MOTIVATION
AND PSYCHOLOGY
ASPECTS
IN THE CONSTRUCTION
INDUSTRY

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MOTIVATION AND PSYCHOLOGY ASPECTS IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY

The monograph scientifically edited by Mariola Książek and Christoph Motzko

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This manual is part of the Construction Managers’ Library – a set of books related to the wide area of management in construction. The books were created within the Leonardo da Vinci (LdV) projects No: PL/06/B/F/PP/174014; 2009-1-PL1-LEO05-05016 and 2011-1-PL1-LEO05-19888, entitled: “COMMON LEARNING OUTCOME FOR EUROPEAN MANAGERS IN CONSTRUCTION, phases I, II and III – CLOEMC)”. Warsaw University of Technology, Civil Engineering Faculty, Department of Construction Engineering and Management was the Promoter of the Projects.

The following organisations were Partners in the CLOEMC I Project:
- Association of Building Surveyors and Construction Experts (Belgium),
- Universidad Politécnica de Valencia (Spain),
- Chartered Institute of Building Ireland (Ireland),
- Polish Association of Building Managers (Poland),
- Polish British Construction Partnership Sp. z o.o. (Poland),
- University of Salford (Great Britain),
- Chartered Institute of Building (Great Britain).

The objective of this project was to create first, seven manuals conveying all the information necessary to develop civil engineering skills in the field of construction management.

The following manuals have been developed in CLOEMC I (in the brackets you will find an estimate of didactic hours necessary for mastering the contents of a given manual):
M1: PROJECT MANAGEMENT IN CONSTRUCTION (100),
M2: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN CONSTRUCTION (100),
M3: PARTNERING IN CONSTRUCTION (100),
M4: BUSINESS MANAGEMENT IN CONSTRUCTION ENTERPRISE (100),
M5: REAL ESTATE MANAGEMENT (100),
M6: ECONOMY AND FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT IN CONSTRUCTION (240),
M7: CONSTRUCTION MANAGEMENT (100).

The manuals created for the purposes of the library are available in three languages: Polish, Spanish and English. The manuals may be used as didactic materials for students of postgraduate courses and regular studies in all three languages. Graduates from the courses will receive a certificate, which is recognized by all organisations – members of the AEEBC, association of construction managers from over a dozen European countries.
Polish representative in the AEEBC is the Polish Association of Building Managers, in Warsaw.

Partners of the CLOEMC II project were:
- Technische Universität Darmstadt (Germany),
- Universida de do Minho (Portugal),
- Chartered Institute of Building (Great Britain),
- Association of European Building Surveyors and Construction Experts (Belgium),
- Polish British Construction Partnership (Poland),

Within the second part of the project the following manuals were developed:
M8: RISK MANAGEMENT (130)
M9: PROCESS MANAGEMENT – LEAN CONSTRUCTION (90),
M10: COMPUTER METHODS IN CONSTRUCTION (80),
M11: PPP PROJECTS IN CONSTRUCTION (80),
M12: VALUE MANAGEMENT IN CONSTRUCTION (130),
M13: CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS – GOOD PRACTICE (80),

The manuals were prepared in four languages: Polish, Portuguese, German and English.

Partners of the CLOEMC III project were:
- Technische Universität Darmstadt (Germany),
- Universida de do Minho (Portugal),
- Chartered Institute of Building (Great Britain),
- Thomas More Kempen University (Belgium),
- Association of European Building Surveyors and Construction Experts (Belgium),
- Polish Association of Building Managers (Poland),

Within the third part of the project the following manuals were developed:
M14: DUE-DILIGENCE IN CONSTRUCTION (100),
M15: MOTIVATION AND PSYCHOLOGY ASPECTS IN CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY (100),
M16: PROFESSIONALISM AND ETHICS IN CONSTRUCTION (100),
M17: SUSTAINABILITY IN CONSTRUCTION (100),
M18: HEALTH AND SAFETY IN CONSTRUCTION (100),
M19: MANAGING BUILDING PATHOLOGY AND MAINTENANCE (100).
The manuals were prepared in five languages: Polish, Portuguese, German, French and English.

The scope of knowledge presented in the manuals is necessary in activities of managers - construction engineers, managing undertakings in the conditions of the modern market economy. The manuals are approved by the European AEEBC association as a basis for recognising manager qualifications. Modern knowledge in the field of management in construction, presented in the manuals, is one of prerequisites to obtain EurBE (European Building Expert) cards, a professional certificate documenting the qualification level of a construction manager in EU. The manuals are designated for managers - construction engineers, students completing postgraduate studies “Management in construction” and students completing construction studies. Postgraduate studies are a recognised program, and graduates receive certificates recognised by 17 national organisations, members of AEEBC.

More information:
- about the project: www.leonardo.il.pw.edu.pl
- about the EURBE CARD: www.aeebc.org
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION + LEARNING OUTCOMES

(K. KOSY)

The issues of occupational psychology and motivation seem to be underestimated in the construction industry. Other industries, like FMCG, pharmaceuticals, financial sector and many others tend to put much more stress on “soft” aspects of managing people in their everyday practice. Also there are very few studies and publications on the subject in the construction context. The ambition of this book is to fill this gap and encourage construction managers and scholars to get some more insight into this fascinating field.

The research shows that proper employee-organisation fit is a vital source of building competitive advantage in the market. Motivated, committed and satisfied employees perform much better, which results in higher output and better technical and financial results. On the other hand, happy workers are able to balance their professional and private life and this should be considered as a crucial part of corporate social responsibility.

The authors have tried to cover the most important aspects of psychology and motivation in the construction industry. Of course some knowledge is of universal character and may be applied in every sector of human productive activity. However, when possible, the unique specificity of construction employee relations are pointed out and discussed. The next chapter covers some basic principles of occupational psychology, which are the key to understand human behaviour in a working environment. Further chapters (3 and 4) deal with the issues of motivation. Chapter 3 focuses on motivation theories and various perspectives that they provide. The key question here is the following: what drives people to work efficiently? Is it work itself, or fair distribution of resources, or the individual desire to excel, or maybe just well-defined goals? The theories provide different answers. Chapter 4 concentrates more on practical aspects of motivating people at work, in terms of both financial and non-financial incentives. Is it possible to improve workers’ engagement with a tight budget and limited options to encourage people with money? The reader will find some answers to these questions here.
Chapter 5 deals with difficult and unfortunately inevitable phenomenon in every single workplace: stress. How to cope with stress? What are the most efficient strategies? Is stress always harmful? Chapter 6 describes the issues of leadership. Old consulting wisdom says that people do not leave organisations, they leave their managers. The research shows that management and leadership skills are absolutely vital when individual and team performance is considered. What are the traits of a good leader? How to identify and develop leaders in an organisation? How does leadership influence results? Again some more insight can be found here. Eventually Chapter 7 discusses team dynamics. How to enhance a team’s performance? What are the bottlenecks of a team’s efficiency? What are the stages of a team’s development? The construction industry is absolutely team-based, there is little space for individual players, and much stress has been put on this matter. In addition, the reader will find some practical case studies that show how the issues mentioned above may influence every day practice.

LEARNING OUTCOMES
The reader will gain basic knowledge of various aspects of psychology and motivation in the construction industry. The aim is to combine theory with some practical insight and show the links between both. Another aim is to encourage the reader to study the field further and to apply this knowledge in every day working activity. Especially, the following phenomena have been covered in detail: occupational psychology, occupational personality, individual motivation at work, engagement, stress and coping with stress at work, leadership, work-life balance, team dynamics and others. The reader will gain an insight into what drives people to work and what are the vital factors to create an efficient and friendly working environment. Furthermore, some practical tools provided here, let the reader understand better their own preferences in terms of teamwork, work style or work-life balance.
CHAPTER 2

PRINCIPLES

(K. KOSY, M. KSIĄŻEK)

This chapter is designed to explain certain basic principles that will mostly be covered in following chapters and serves as an introduction to the topic of the handbook.

What remains important in every single construction company is to maintain high organisational effectiveness [4], which means using available resources in a cost-efficient and productive way. One of the most important resources to a company’s disposal are human resources. And here occupational psychology proves to be helpful. One can mention multiple elements that influence individual and group efficiency at work. However, let us focus on one crucial issue, that is employee behaviour, that may be more productive or counter-productive. In general terms, the individual behaviour at work is affected in principle by:

- Occupational personality – a person’s typical or preferred way of behaving, thinking and feeling.
- Motivation – what drives an individual and directs and sustains their behaviour.
- Attitudes – a learned orientation or disposition towards an object or situation which produces a tendency to respond either favourably or unfavourably to the object or situation [9].
- Beliefs – patterns of behaviour which, through a process of socialisation, are held in high regard by members of a particular group.
- Values – a belief by which someone acts by preference.
- Interests – something which arouses attention and curiosity.
- Ability – qualities, competence and talent which enable someone to perform a task.

Of course all of the traits mentioned above interact with each other. So, for instance, attitudes and interests influence motivation. Also, motivation is usually affected by ability. We tend to prefer tasks that we feel confident will deliver good results and high quality. Some of these interactions will be discussed later in the handbook.
What needs further explanation here is the concept of occupational personality [8]. As mentioned above, personality is best defined as a person’s typical or preferred way of behaving, thinking and feeling. This recognises that behaviour (also at work) is always to some extent determined by the current environment and circumstances. The emphasis, however, is upon those relatively stable and enduring characteristics which determine differences between individuals in their typical manner of relating to other people, approaching tasks and generally responding to situations. The adjective “occupational” indicates that we focus on behaviours and actions in the work environment.

Occupational personality influences (non-technical) competencies that are often defined as a cluster of related abilities, commitments, knowledge, and skills that enable a person (or an organisation) to act effectively in a job or situation. Competence also indicates sufficiency of knowledge and skills that enable someone to act in a wide variety of situations. Because each level of responsibility has its own requirements, competence can occur in any period of a person’s life or at any stage of his or her career.

![Competence model](image-url)
WORK ENVIRONMENT [8] plays a crucial role in terms of increasing or decreasing individual productivity. Work environment consist of physical, organisational, psychological and social elements. The physical aspects are for example: temperature, light, humidity, noise, but also colour and music. Weather conditions are especially characteristic and greatly influence working on construction site, which create a harder work environment for employees comparing to other industries. The organisational aspects of work environment are working hours, work system (for example shift work) and breaks. As opposed to some of the physical conditions (weather for instance), a construction company may strongly influence organisational aspects of work environment increasing the well-being of employees. One of the tools available is flexible working hours, which of course requires some management and administration effort. Psychological aspects of work environment are related to exposure to monotony, tiredness and routine. These issues, if not managed properly may result in increased risks in terms of health and safety. The typical tools that help to address these issues are either simplifying or diversifying one’s work (depending on the situation). The social aspects of work environment are relations with peers and superiors, and job atmosphere. These issues will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 7 (Team dynamics).

EMPLOYEE-WORK ADJUSTMENT may be defined as the level of conformity between employees’ and organizational values [8]. So, values are the key word in this concept. This compatibility can be increased by proper recruitment, selection and socialising procedures (for example job induction). The lack of adjustment discussed here is very often observed nowadays with young employees, who are part of the so called Generation Y. The main characteristics of Generation Y are high self-esteem, unwillingness to over sacrifice at their work, strong tendency to maintain good work-life balance (generally they want to fulfill themselves not only at work, but also to achieve their private goals and ambitions, not necessarily related to professional career). That may end up in a conflict of values, especially in highly-demanding work environments such as construction industry. Therefore what remains important here is:

- proper selection procedure including open communication from employer on job requirements, expectations and challenges;
- proper induction process (helping new employees at the beginning of their employment period) that helps them to adapt to their new work environment.

Job attitudes influence what employees are ready to deliver at work. In other words, job attitudes are responsible for motivation and engagements
of the crew. Other key words related to job attitudes are job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Let us unfold these principles.

**JOB SATISFACTION** is simply how content an individual is with his or her job. At the more specific levels, job satisfaction has varying definitions. Affective job satisfaction is usually defined as an unidimensional subjective construct representing an overall emotional feeling individuals have about their job as a whole. Hence, affective job satisfaction for individuals, reflects the degree of pleasure or happiness their job in general induces. Cognitive job satisfaction is usually defined as being a more objective and logical evaluation of various facets of a job. As such, cognitive job satisfaction can be unidimensional if it comprises evaluation of just one aspect of a job, such as pay or working conditions, or multidimensional if two or more facets of a job are simultaneously evaluated.

**MOTIVATION** is a psychological feature that arouses a human being to act towards a desired goal and elicits, controls, and sustains certain goal-directed behaviours. It may have intrinsic sources (I work hard because work is an important value to me) or extrinsic (I work hard to earn more money or because I am afraid of losing my job) [8].

**ENGAGEMENT** is closely connected to motivation and is definitely linked to it. A person that is not motivated, probably will not be engaged as well. However, engagement, not just motivation, is something that a company should eventually seek for. Engagement expresses itself in specific attitudes that may affect productivity and therefore a company’s success. For example, in an engagement model of AON Hewitt (consulting company) we find three pillars of engagement, which are:

- **Say** – “I am talking positively about my employer” (which enhances corporate image)
- **Stay** – “I stay with my employer even if I get another interesting job offer” (which reduces employees’ turnover)
- **Strive** – “I am ready to provide extra efforts if required” (which helps a company to endure a crisis).

On the top of that we have also **organisational commitment**. It may be the case that people are generally motivated and engaged, but do not identify with current policies, for example introduced by a new Management Board or a new owner. It happens very often in the case of mergers and acquisitions when people have still strongly identified with previous policies.
and/or organisational culture. Of course, if such a situation continues for a long period of time, it also has a negative impact on engagement and motivation. The relationship between these principles is shown in the model below.

**Leadership** is described as a process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task [6] or as "organising a group of people to achieve a common goal" [6]. The leader may or may not have any formal authority. Studies of leadership have produced theories involving traits, situational interaction, function, behaviour, power, vision and values, charisma, and intelligence, amongst others. More on the topic may be found in Chapter 6. A very interesting topic related to leadership is cross-cultural differences in global companies. Based on a study in 72 different countries, Hofstede identified five differences in mental programming, which he calls five dimensions:

1. **Power Distance**
   Power distance measures how subordinates respond to power and authority.
   In high-power distance countries (Latin America, France, Spain, most Asian
and African countries), subordinates tend to be afraid of their bosses, and bosses tend to be paternalistic and autocratic. In low-power distance countries (the US, Britain, most of the rest of Europe), subordinates are more likely to challenge bosses and bosses tend to use a consultative management style.

2. COLLECTIVISM VERSUS INDIVIDUALISM
In individualistic countries (France, Germany, South Africa, Canada, etc.), people are expected to look out for themselves. Solidarity is organic (all contribute towards a common goal, but with little mutual pressure) rather than mechanical. Typical values are; personal time, freedom, and challenge.

In collectivist cultures (Japan, Mexico, Korea, Greece) individuals are bonded by strong personal and protective ties based on loyalty to the group during one’s lifetime and often beyond (mirrored on family ties). Values include training, physical condition and the use of skills.

3. FEMININITY VERSUS MASCULINITY
Hofstede’s study suggested that men’s goals were significantly different from women’s goals and could therefore be expressed on a masculine and a feminine pole. Where feminine values are more important (Sweden; France, Israel, Denmark, Indonesia), people tend to value a good working relationship with their supervisors; working with people who cooperate well with one another, living in an area desirable to themselves and to their families, and having the security that they will be able to work for their company as long as they want. Where the masculine index is high (US, Japan, Mexico, Hong Kong, Italy, Great Britain), people tend to value having a high opportunity for earnings, getting the recognition they deserve when doing a good job, having an opportunity for advancement to a higher-level job, and having challenging work to do to achieve a sense of accomplishment.

4. UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE
When uncertainty avoidance is strong, a culture tends to perceive unknown situations as threatening so that people tend to avoid them. Examples include South Korea, Japan, and Latin America. In countries where uncertainty avoidance is weak (the US; the Netherlands; Singapore; Hong Kong, Great Britain) people feel less threatened by unknown situations. Therefore, they tend to be more open to innovations, risk, etc.

5. LONG-TERM VERSUS SHORT-TERM ORIENTATION
A long term orientation is characterised by persistence and perseverance, a respect for a hierarchy of the status of relationships, thrift, and a sense of shame. Countries include China; Hong Kong; Taiwan, Japan and India. A short-term orientation is marked by a sense of security and stability, a protection of one’s reputation, a respect for tradition, and a reciprocation
of greetings; favours and gifts. Countries include: Great Britain, Canada, the Philippines; Germany, Australia. Eventually what we are looking for in every single organisation are Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB), which is defined as a discretionary, spontaneous and non-rewarded organisational activity focused on the whole organisation or its individual members and it improves social and psychological context that supports task performance.

Opposite to OCB is Counterproductive behaviour, which is an intentional activity aimed at detriment to the organisation and its members and connected to violation of the implicit or explicit standards of acceptable work behaviour. Another concept further developed in the handbook is work-life balance, which allows employees to develop themselves both in private and professional life. Of course certain job characteristics have to be met to let people benefit from work-life balance (flexible working hours, longer holidays etc.).
## Table 2.1. Self diagnosis. Check your Work-Life Balance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am clear what is expected of me at work</td>
<td>Never Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I can decide when to take a break</td>
<td>Never Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Different groups at work demand things from me that are hard to combine</td>
<td>Never Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I know how to go about getting my job done</td>
<td>Never Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I am subject to personal harassment in the form of unkind words or behaviour</td>
<td>Never Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I have unachievable deadlines</td>
<td>Never Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>If work gets difficult, my colleagues will help me</td>
<td>Never Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I am given supportive feedback on the work I do</td>
<td>Never Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes Often</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.1. Self diagnosis. Check your Work-Life Balance - continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I have to work very intensively</td>
<td>Never  Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often  Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I have a say in my own work speed</td>
<td>Never  Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often  Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I am clear what my duties and responsibilities are</td>
<td>Never  Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often  Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do</td>
<td>Never  Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often  Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I am clear about the goals and objectives for my department</td>
<td>Never  Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often  Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>There is friction or anger between colleagues</td>
<td>Never  Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often  Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I have a choice in deciding how I do my work</td>
<td>Never  Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often  Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I am unable to take sufficient breaks</td>
<td>Never  Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often  Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I understand how my work fits into the overall aim of the organisation</td>
<td>Never  Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Often  Always</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.1. Self-diagnosis. Check your Work-Life Balance - continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I am pressured to work long hours</td>
<td>Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I have a choice in deciding what I do at work</td>
<td>Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I have to work very fast</td>
<td>Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I am subject to bullying at work</td>
<td>Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I have unrealistic time pressures</td>
<td>Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I can rely on my line manager to help me out with a work problem</td>
<td>Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I get the help and support I need from colleagues</td>
<td>Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I have some say over the way I work</td>
<td>Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>I have sufficient opportunities to question managers about change at work</td>
<td>Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>I receive the respect at work I deserve from my colleagues</td>
<td>Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.1. Self diagnosis. Check your Work-Life Balance - continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Staff are always consulted about change at work</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>I can talk to my line manager about something that has upset or annoyed me at work</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>My working time can be flexible</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>My colleagues are willing to listen to my work-related problems</td>
<td>Never</td>
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<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>When changes are made at work, I am clear how they will work out in practice</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>I am supported through emotionally demanding work</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Relationships at work are strained</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>My line manager encourages me at work</td>
<td>Never</td>
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BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER 3

MOTIVATION THEORY

(K. KOSY, M. KSIĄŻEK)

Motivation is the psychological feature that arouses a human being to take action towards a desired goal and elicits, controls, and sustains certain goal directed behaviours. Factors influencing motivation are changing and depend on many variables. On the diagram below, some are identified as crucial in the construction industry in recent times.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main factors of motivation today</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>• Do incentives exist that encourage you to invest more in time and effort?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work environment / Work Life Balance</td>
<td>• Do architecture and work equipment have a positive influence on one’s daily work?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>• Does the firm respect you having a private life as well?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Career development</td>
<td>• Is the job secure?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Do people work together or against each other?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Do bosses behave supportive?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• How does the firm treat longer term illness or baby leave?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• How do colleagues integrate new joiners?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Do clear and understandable criteria exist for promotions and are they used equally for everyone?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Does the firm create interesting jobs also on an international scale?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Do ‘fast trackers’ and ‘on trackers’ both have interesting career chances?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.1. Today’s motivation drivers
3.1. INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Intrinsic motivation [1] refers to motivation that is driven by an interest or enjoyment in the task itself, and exists within the individual rather than relying on any external pressure. Intrinsic motivation is based on taking pleasure in an activity rather than working towards an external reward. Employees who are intrinsically motivated are more likely to engage in the task willingly as well as work to improve their skills, which will increase their capabilities. Employees are likely to be intrinsically motivated if they:

- attribute their educational results to factors under their own control, also known as autonomy,
- believe they have the skill that will allow them to be effective agents in reaching desired goals (i.e. the results are not determined by luck),
- are interested in mastering a topic, rather than just rote-learning to achieve good results.

3.2. EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Extrinsic motivation [1] refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain an outcome, which then contradicts intrinsic motivation. It is widely believed that motivation performs two functions. The first is often referred to as the energetic activation component of the motivation construct. The second is directed at a specific behaviour and makes reference to the orientation directional component. Extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the individual. Common extrinsic motivations are rewards like money and recognition, and the threat of punishment. Competition is in general extrinsic because it encourages the performer to win and beat others, not simply to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of the activity.
3.3. MOTIVATION THEORIES

Motivation theories focus on explaining human behaviour at work. Some of these theories do not pay much attention to the work environment, some concentrate on the individual attributes of the employees.

3.3.1. ACHIEVEMENT THEORY

ACHIEVEMENT THEORY (developed by David McClelland) focuses on the individuals’ need to achieve something at work, being the best or outstanding performer. The research shows that one of the main attributes of efficient leaders is the need of achievement. These results have been confirmed in various countries, so it has a cross-cultural character. The conclusion is that if a company wants to invest efficiently in its human resources, it should identify individuals that possess a high need of achievement [9]. So, the question arises, how to identify them? McClelland’s research points out three main attributes of these employees:

- they prefer a work environment, where they can clearly define their responsibility area,
- they are able to calculate risks of their decisions and set ambitious, but achievable targets basing on the risk calculation,
- they expect clear and fair feedback, so to be able to improve their performance.

MAIN TIP FOR CONSTRUCTION MANAGERS: identify ambitious employees with high development needs and take an effort to provide them with complex feedback.

3.3.2. THE HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY

THE HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY (developed by Abraham Maslow) describes a certain sequence of human needs [9]. Once we are able to satisfy needs on a lower level, we tend to focus on the needs from the higher level. The list of needs goes as following (starting from the lowest level – those that appear first):

1. Physiological needs,
2. Safety needs,
3. Belonging needs,
4. Respect needs,
5. Self-realisation needs.

Surprisingly, all the needs above have very much to do with work environment. Physiological needs are supported by salary, safety needs may be satisfied if one has stable, long-term employment. Belonging needs are related to the phenomenon of us building our self-image largely built on professional career (“I’m an engineer”, “I’m part of the Skanska company”). The needs from levels 4 and 5 can also be fulfilled to a larger extent by satisfying work environment and professional career. However, what is the main practical conclusion coming from this theory? People differ in terms of their needs. For instance, low-paid workers may be motivated in the first place even by a moderate increase of their salary, which responds to their physiological and safety needs, but that might be partly frustrating. Trying to motivate them by adding new tasks may bring on opposite effects. On the other hand, increasing salary of experienced, top managers may be less efficient in terms of motivation than for example letting them face new challenges.

Figure 3.2. Maslow model

MAIN TIP FOR CONSTRUCTION MANAGERS: adjust motivation tools to particular needs and expectations of various groups of employees

3.3.3. THE THEORY OF MOTIVATORS AND HYGIENE FACTORS

THE THEORY OF MOTIVATORS AND HYGIENE FACTORS (developed by Frederick Herzberg), also known as two-factors theory, combines both the aspects of motivation and job satisfaction [6]. According to this theory,
on one hand, we have so called motivators, which drive employees to better performance. These motivators are related to internal work attributes, such as the nature of work, feedback, respect, individual responsibility, professional development and growth. Stimulating jobs that provide interesting challenges enable lots of motivators. Hygiene factors are the elements of external work attributes such as HR policies, quality of leadership and also salary. Hygiene factors are more related to job satisfaction. If employees are unhappy with hygiene factors, it may lead to motivation decrease, whereas motivation increase may be driven only by motivators.

![Motivators and Hygiene Factors table]

**Figure 3.3. Herzberg model**

**MAIN TIP FOR CONSTRUCTION MANAGERS:** if you want to manage motivation issues properly, do not forget about the basics that influence employees’ satisfaction, for example quality of leadership. Remember: most times people do not leave companies, they leave their managers.

### 3.3.4. JOB ATTRIBUTES THEORY

Job attributes theory (developed by J.R. Jackman and G.R. Oldham) points out particular aspects of work that create psychological conditions allowing motivation, productivity and satisfaction increase [9]. The authors of this theory enlist the following:

1. Variability
2. Task identification possibility
3. Task importance
4. Autonomy
5. Feedback
Variability reflects the job requirements. The more abilities and competencies a particular job needs, the more varied it is, and therefore (according to the authors of this theory) the more stimulating and motivating environment it creates. Another important feature is the possibility to identify the global result of one’s work. Let us consider working in a steel construction division. If a welder is conscious of the fact that he builds a bridge, not just a particular element, it should increase his involvement in the task performed. For this reason, in front of one of Boeing’s facilities, the assembled plane was standing, to give the employees this particular feeling of creating special value and being part of the broader challenge.

MAIN TIP FOR CONSTRUCTION MANAGER: remember that motivation is not only about money. Variability, task identification possibility, task importance, autonomy and proper feedback may strongly increase employees’ motivation and commitment at work.

3.3.5. EXPECTANCY THEORY

EXPECTANCY THEORY (developed by Victor Vroom) states that people make their choices basing on the expectation that particular behaviours lead to certain rewards [10]. This process takes three steps. Firstly, employees must be aware of the fact that certain behaviours - for example respecting health & safety regulations - bring expected results. Second, employees should be convinced that achieving these results gives them the prospect of a reward. And third, if this reward provides value that is worth their efforts. In other words, these three steps could be shortly called: expectation, instrumentalism (expecting a reward) and value. According to the theory, if there is a failure at any of the steps described above, motivation process would not work properly. For example, if employees are granted bonuses that are not regarded as significant (value level) or there is unclear link between behaviours and bonuses (instrumentalism level), they will not be inclined to increase their output.

MAIN TIP FOR CONSTRUCTION MANAGER: make sure that your motivation scheme clearly links expected behaviours with value for employees.
3.3.6. FAIRNESS THEORY

Fairness theory (developed by J. Stacy Adams) underlines the issue of fair treatment at work [9]. What employees always do in every work environment (even at subconscious level) is compare their input (what they provide at work) with output (what they receive from their employer). It is important that the output does not necessarily only mean money. It may also be the prospect of promotion, personal development, training, fair feedback etc. This theory puts stress on fair distribution of various resources amongst employees. The conclusion is that even if your employees earn substantially more compared to benchmarked companies, if they feel treated unfairly compared to their peers, there is strong chance that their motivation will decrease. However, as research shows, strong chance does not mean necessity. Apparently, some people, are less vulnerable to this phenomenon (so called generous people), some more (so called claimers). So there is, as usually in psychology, certain individual variety.

**MAIN TIP FOR CONSTRUCTION MANAGER:** make sure the distribution of various resources (not necessarily financial only) is fair and reflects individual inputs.

3.3.7. TARGET’S SETTING THEORY

TARGET’S SETTING THEORY (developed by Edwin Locke) states that our basic source of motivation at work is to achieve clearly set targets. Once we have such a target we know what to do (or at least which direction we should follow). The research shows that employees with well-defined targets are more productive than those without clear aims at work [9]. The SMART model describes attributes of a good and clear target that drives people ahead. According to the model, the target should be:

- Specific
- Measurable
- Ambitious
- Reasonable
- Time-oriented

**MAIN TIP FOR CONSTRUCTION MANAGER:** set clear and well-defined targets for your employees to achieve better results.
3.3.8. BELBIN'S TEAM THEORY

BELBIN’S TEAM THEORY can be used to assess how effectively a team is likely to work together, including selecting the best candidate to fulfill each role, and identifying gaps and overlaps in the Team Role distribution which might have an impact on a team's success [3].

COORDINATOR

Leads the team, coordinates its efforts to achieve the targets, determines the order of action, sums up and takes major decisions, determines the criteria, but does not dominate.

✓ STRENGTHS: is aware of the purpose of the designated team.
✓ WEAKNESSES: in individual work, does not stand out with creativity.

Expressions characteristic of the Coordinator:
- "We are here in order to ..."
- "Let's get it first, and then ..."
- "In summary, the main issues are ...
- "Maybe you could .... and then a colleague ...
- "To go back to the basic things that you can ..."

LOCOMOTIVE

Meets all the challenges, is the driving force of the team, introduces an element of competition and recovery, supports all the ideas and then tries to put them into practice, is energetic and very active, has a high need of achievement and is goal-oriented.

✓ STRENGTHS: with enthusiasm towards challenges.
✓ WEAKNESSES: his attitude may provoke or annoy others.
Phrases characteristic of Locomotives:
- "We have to do ..."
- "Do not waste time - after all, we have to ..."
- "No, you're wrong, the most important are ..."
- "If you combine your proposal with what he said, we can ..."

PLANT

Provides a team with new concepts and ideas, establishes contacts with the environment in search of news and data, thanks to improvisation and provocation of a group, encourages people to find new opportunities.

✓ STRENGTHS: easy to establish contacts with others, willing to take challenges.
✓ WEAKNESSES: easily says "yes", but also easy to be discouraged.

Expressions characteristic of the Plant:
- "What if .."
- "Let's take a closer ..."
- "It should be orange ..."
- "And if the reverse situation, we have ..."
- "We can not forget about the effects of attraction ..."
- "Maybe I'd better get back to the basics ..."

TEAMS SOUL

Supports the team emotionally, responding to the needs of its members, reduces conflicts, usually for the good of all, does the hard work, unites the group and cares about team spirit.

✓ STRENGTHS: promotes, “team spirit”, supports the atmosphere of friendliness and enthusiasm.
✓ WEAKNESSES: under stress shows a lack of decisiveness.
Phrases characteristic of the Teams’ soul:
- "You know, I think you should listen to Charles, what he is saying on the matter"
- "Let her introduce this idea"
- "There is no need to argue about ..."
- "We can, but as X returns from holiday."

RESOURCE INVESTIGATOR

Generates a large number of ideas, thanks to original and uncompromising ideas, constantly drives forward, stimulates new ideas, resource investigator is effective in finding solutions outside the group.

✓ STRENGTHS: has a great imagination and knowledge.
✓ WEAKNESSES: lives “with his head in the clouds”, can ignore the practical aspects of the project.

Phrases characteristic of the Resource Investigator:
- "I know someone who could ..."
- "It does not matter - I'll get it wholesale."
- "XYZ? - No problem - my cousin ...
- "I can see the sales department to ..."

MONITOR EVALUATOR

Very rational, constantly evaluates the work of the team and the possible consequences of presented ideas, logically and correctly able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the ideas, feels responsible for the group and that is why, with constructive criticism, prevents the group from working on unrealistic ideas.

✓ STRENGTHS: rational, independent.
✓ WEAKNESSES: lacks inspiration, unable to motivate others.
Expressions characteristic of Monitor Evaluator:
- "The difficulty is that ..."
- "We have to keep an eye on ..."
- "Do not miss ..."
- "If we do not lose sight of the heart of the matter, we should ..."

IMPLEMENTER

Person of action, practical, organiser, performs the task of translating team’s ideas into reality, focuses the objectives, while maintaining the discipline of work.

✓ STRENGTHS: organisational skills, common sense, hard-worker, self-discipline.
✓ WEAKNESSES: lacks flexibility, does not recognise the new, under-tested concepts.

Expressions characteristic of Implementer:
- "Considering how much time we have left ..."
- "We certainly realize X as part of our budget."
- "Analysis of gravity ... it's crazy, but we put more weight underneath."
- "Let us write it on the board."
- "What a great idea."

COMPLETER FINISHER

Takes care of every detail of every task, conscientious, disciplined, determined to bring all things to an end.

✓ STRENGTHS: accurate, diligent, tenacious.
✓ WEAKNESSES: overly concerned about the little things, can get lost in the details.
Expression characteristic of the meticulous Completer Finisher:
- "Let me check..."
- "No we cannot ... unless ..."
- "Do not forget about ..."
- "No, we have ... everything to make it work."
- "Let's look at Article 3 in paragraph (iv), Section G in volume nine."
- "We can’t - we will be a week late."

**SELF-DIAGNOSIS: CHECK WHICH TEAM ROLE YOU PREFER**

Instructions: In each of the following section you have to allocate 10 points to statements which in your opinion best describe your behaviour. Points can be divided amongst a number of questions. In extreme cases, you can assign it to all the phrases or just assign 10 points to one.

**1. I BELIEVE THAT I CAN BRING TO THE TEAM THE FOLLOWING ELEMENTS:**

- **(A)** I can quickly see and take advantage of new opportunities,
- **(B)** I can work well with people of different types,
- **(C)** Suggesting ideas is my natural asset,
- **(D)** I have the ability to identify people who may deliver a valuable contribution to the objectives of group,
- **(E)** I can consistently develop other’s ideas,
- **(F)** I can afford to fall from grace, if it will bring good results for the team,
- **(G)** I can quickly realise what is likely to succeed in the circumstances given,
- **(H)** I can propose a reasonable, objective and free from bias justification for an alternative procedure.

**2. IF YOU ARE NOT EFFICIENT AT TEAM WORK, THE REASON FOR THIS LIES IN THE FACT THAT:**

- **(A)** I do not feel at ease when meetings are not rightly held, with a poor leader and no time-management,
- **(B)** I have a tendency to listen carefully to people with interesting ideas, who have not been heard by the team,
- **(C)** I have a tendency to chat when the group is engaged in new ideas,
- **(D)** My objective outlook makes it difficult to share the enthusiasm of my colleagues,
- **(E)** When I work in a team, I am often considered to be the authoritarian person,
- **(F)** It is difficult for me to lead the team, perhaps because I am very much focused on maintaining a good atmosphere in the team,
- **(G)** It is easy to get lost with new ideas in my mind, so I lose touch with what's going on around me,
(H) My colleagues believe that I worry unnecessarily about details and the possibility of failure.

3. WHEN I WORK WITH OTHERS ON THE PROJECT:
(A) I am able to influence others without putting pressure on them,
(B) My usual vigilance helps to prevent the team from ignoring issues and errors,
(C) I am prepared to work in order not to lose both the time and the main goal,
(D) You can count on the fact that I will bring something original,
(E) I am always willing to support a good proposal in the name of the common good,
(F) I gladly identify the latest ideas and innovations,
(G) I believe that my ability to assess things in a calm way is liked by others,
(H) In regards to the organisation of work, you can rely on me.

4. MY TYPICAL APPROACH TO WORKING IN A GROUP CAN BE DEFINED AS FOLLOWS:
(A) I would like to understand people better,
(B) I do not hesitate to call into question the views of others or join a minority,
(C) As a rule, I manage to find a right argument to reject the proposal,
(D) I think I have a talent to implement the plans, once they are set,
(E) I have a tendency to avoid "obvious" and bring an element of surprise,
(F) For each work undertaken by me, I bring an element of perfectionism to the group,
(G) I am willing to use existing contacts beyond the group,
(H) Although I am interested in all views, that's when you need to make a decision, I easily come up with my own view.

5. JOB SATISFACTION IS ACHIEVED BY ME, BECAUSE:
(A) I like to analyse the situation and consider all the possibilities,
(B) I am interested in finding practical solutions to problems,
(C) I feel that I will contribute to a good working relationship,
(D) I can have a considerable impact on the decisions of the team,
(E) I can get to know people who may offer something new,
(F) I can get the necessary consent for the proper course of action,
(G) I can fully concentrate on the task entrusted to me,
(H) I like to be in areas where I can use my imagination.
RESULTS ANALYSIS
In the table below, please apply in turn, points awarded to individual phrases of each part, and then sum them up vertically in the columns. As a result of the calculation, you can observe, which team role you prefer.

Table 3.1. Results analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Implementer</th>
<th>Coordinator</th>
<th>Locomotive</th>
<th>Plant</th>
<th>Resource Investigator</th>
<th>Monitor</th>
<th>Evaluator</th>
<th>Teams soul</th>
<th>Completer</th>
<th>Finisher</th>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
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3.4 BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER 4

MOTIVATIONAL TOOLS AND STRATEGIES IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY

(V. MOTZKO, C. MOTZKO)

4.1. INCENTIVES, COMPENSATION AND REWARDS

While rewards including pay, praise or promotion are considered extrinsic motivators which may have an immediate and powerful but possibly shortlasting effect, intrinsic motivators, such as the quality of working life (e.g. responsibility, autonomy or development) are considered more likely to have long-term and deeper effects on motivation [1].

Vroom's expectancy or VIE theory is a key theory for approaches to reward management, as it implies that extrinsic financial motivation is only probable when a clear link between effort and reward exists and the reward is considered both achievable and worthwhile [1]. Money does motivate people [9], but it will not motivate everyone to the same extent or in the same way [1]. Money satisfies basic needs for survival and security and may also satisfy the need for self-esteem and status [1]. It may also serve as a means for attracting and retaining employees and provides highly tangible recognition. One study found that pay is the main factor in the choice of employer and most powerful in binding employees to their current job [1].

On the other hand, it has been argued that financial rewards may erode intrinsic motivation [2] as people who work only for money may find their duties less satisfying and, as a consequence, fulfill them less well [1]. This may lead to decreasing self-determination and thus declining motivation and performance [6]. Hence, badly designed pay systems can demotivate employees, especially
if they are perceived as unfair and unequitable and if there is no clear link between effort and reward [1].

Some research shows that non-financial incentives tend to be more motivating in the long term while financial incentives may be more motivating in the short term [9]. However, one study based on meta-analysis, found that rewards do not undermine and can actually enhance interest and performance; it was concluded that, in general, employees enjoy tasks/activities more when they are linked to a reward [6]. Intrinsic motivation arising from work itself is in general regarded as more powerful than extrinsic motivation because the outcomes are more under the control of the individual [1].

The trend in reward management is a move away from traditional pay systems based on age or service and the addition of a variable component to base salary in combination with social components (benefits) and profit sharing is becoming more and more common [4]. The trend in reward management moves towards a holistic total reward approach which includes all types of rewards, extrinsic as well as intrinsic, indirect as well as direct [1], [4]. Total rewards can be defined as including each aspect of rewards: base pay, variable pay, benefits and non-financial rewards such as intrinsic rewards arising from the work itself [1]. The aim of total rewards is to maximise the united influence of a range of reward initiatives on motivation, commitment and job engagement [1]. Total rewards are believed to have long-term effects on motivation and the commitment of employees, to enhance the employment relationship, to flexibly meet individual needs and to help in attracting and retaining talented employees [1].

In this chapter, the basic types of rewards such as base pay, benefits or incentives and their possible motivational effects will be discussed.

**TRENDS IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY:**

Characterised by irregular work flows, firms in the UK construction industry have been under pressure to construct flexible working arrangements, minimise personnel costs and manage workflow through subcontracting [3]. A study of large construction companies (mainly building, civil engineering and housing) in the UK showed that there are significant differences in reward management for manual and non-manual employees with collective agreements dominating reward management for manual employees [3]. One explanation for the tendency to rely on collective bargaining in the construction industry while other industries move away from this method is that especially smaller firms which dominate the industry find it helpful to refer to collective rates of pay as well as national standards for working conditions [3]. In addition, these national standards are advantageous, considering the unpredictable characteristics of construction work, such as product diversity, geographical
variation and irregularity of conditions [3]. A recent study by the Institute of Construction Technologies and Management at TU Darmstadt showed that in the German construction industry most tariff-bound employees receive a construction site premium on top of the compensation and benefits package determined by tariff contracts. Some companies also offer additional benefits and incentives such as pension schemes, company cars, holidays and Christmas gratifications. The use of compensation and benefits packages depends on the size of the company, with bigger firms applying more structured and systematic approaches.

4.1.1. BASE PAY

Base pay is defined as the fixed salary or wage which forms the rate for the job and usually varies according to job grade or level of skill required for blue-collar workers [1]. Base pay may be conveyed as annual, weekly or hourly rates; allowances for overtime, shift-working or increased cost of living may be added to the base pay [1]. Pay levels are commonly influenced by internal relativities such as job evaluation and external relativities such as the tracking of market rates or collective bargaining [1].

Blue-collar workers are often paid in the form of time rates such as day rates, flat rates or hourly rates with incentive schemes such as payment-by-results schemes used on top of base pay [1]. Time rates offer a fixed rate for actual hours worked and provide employees with predictable and steady earnings without engaging them in discussions about piece rate or time allowances [1]. The disadvantages are the lack of provision of a direct link between effort or result and rewards [1].

Pure time rates are often used when the work is dangerous or unpredictable, for supervisory work or when the work often changes or is interrupted [8] - work features common on construction sites. The advantages of pure time rates are: protection of employees and resources, maintenance/improvement of quality, reduction of accident hazards, reduced unit costs for increased output and easy planning of compensation [8]. Disadvantages include; the risk of reduced output, thereby increased unit cost, no incentive for increased output and discontent of high performing employees [8]. Pure time rates offer no incentive for short term increased performance [4]. Longer-term increased performance based on the motivation and qualification of an employee can only be rewarded belatedly by an adjustment of the wage rate [4]. National agreements may be useful not only for pay levels but also as a reference for grading schemes; in a UK study, 12 out of 30 companies used grading structures for blue-collar workers [3].
REWARD PRACTICES IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY

Reward practices for the white-collar workforce of construction firms, such as architects, civil engineers or site managers are generally different from those of blue-collar workers, because they benefit from greater employment stability and are often employed directly [3]. Especially in the private sector, white-collar employees are often not subject to collective bargaining agreements and the majority of firms have separate reward arrangements for them [3].

In the UK study mentioned before, payment systems tend to combine annual salaries based on formal grading systems with annual cost-of-living increases and/or performance-related bonuses [3]. Formal grading systems for white-collar staff may be helpful in the construction industry for several reasons [3]:

- skill shortage problems can be addressed more easily by individual progression based on training and development,
- grading systems indicate fair treatment as opposed to subjective assessment,
- job evaluation schemes can be used for comparisons with the external market.

25% of surveyed companies, link salaries with formal performance appraisals whilst three-quarters base salary progression on informal systems with space for management discretion [3].

The Institute of Construction Technologies and Management at TU Darmstadt conducted a study with German professionals from the construction industry which shows that professionals receive an annual base salary according to tariff contract. White-collar employees get by the start of the professional career adequate tariff salaries which change depending from the professional career into non-tariff salaries. In this case especially huge construction companies use partly salary bands, which defines a maximum and minimum amount depending on the professional skills, experience and project profiles. For blue-collar workers in Germany the wages must strictly be paid according to the tariff-system. In the frame of an individual agreement, a piece-rate payment is possible.

4.1.2. CONTINGENT/VARIABLE PAY

On top of the base salary, firms can offer their employees so-called contingent or variable pay elements. These can be short-term in the form of bonuses or, especially in the construction industry, as construction site premiums which
are commonly paid on a yearly basis. Nowadays, companies also use mid-term (2-3- years) or long-term incentives, such as profit-sharing plans. Contingent pay links financial rewards to the competence, performance, contribution or skill of individual employees but can also be team-based or related to organisational performance [1]. Variable pay bases a part of an employee's compensation on an individual and/or organisational measure of performance instead of paying only for length of service or seniority [9], [10]. Variable pay schemes include: piece-rate pay, merit-based pay, bonuses, skill-based pay, profit-sharing plans, gain sharing and employee stock ownership plans [9]. A summary of the different variable pay schemes, their main features as well as advantages and disadvantages is provided as follows (see Table 4.1).

Variable pay programmes can increase both motivation and productivity but not all employees respond positively to them [9]. One argument for individual contingent pay is that that employees who contribute more, should be paid more [1]. Reasons for using contingent pay include [1]:

- the recognition and rewarding of better performance,
- the attraction and retention of high quality employees,
- the focus of attention on key results and values,
- the improvement of organisational performance,
- the motivation of employees,
- the influence on behaviour.

Arguments against individual contingent pay comprise [1]:

- money by itself will not result in long-term motivation,
- it cannot be presumed that money will motivate all people equally,
- financial rewards may motivate those who receive them but can demotivate those (possibly the majority) who do not,
- can create more dissatisfaction than satisfaction if pay scheme is perceived as unfair or inadequate,
- management's judgement of performance could be partial, inconsistent or ill-informed,
- can erode quality of work and teamwork.
Table 4.1. Variable pay schemes [8], [9]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF SCHEME</th>
<th>MAIN FEATURES</th>
<th>ADVANTAGES</th>
<th>DISADVANTAGES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Piece-rate pay</td>
<td>Fixed sum paid per unit of production</td>
<td>– The harder employees work, the more they earn</td>
<td>– Not feasible for many jobs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– May increase performance</td>
<td>– Overstraining of employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– Reduction of quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– Complex collection and control of data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merit-based pay</td>
<td>Pay is based on performance and depends on performance appraisal ratings</td>
<td>Employees perceive strong relationship between performance and rewards (if designed appropriately)</td>
<td>– Performance appraisals may be invalid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– Pay raise pool depends on economic conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– Resistance by unions possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonuses</td>
<td>– Often annual, nowadays not only for management but also lower-rank employees</td>
<td>– Rewards recent rather than historic performance, which increases incentive effects</td>
<td>– Employees may view them as pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– In addition to base pay, commonly depending on the firm’s profits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit-sharing plans</td>
<td>– Organisation wide programs offering compensation based on formulas designed around the firm’s profitability</td>
<td>–</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– Direct cash allocation or in the form of stock options</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gainsharing</td>
<td>– Formula-based group incentive plan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– Rewards tied to productivity gains rather than on profits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee stock ownership plans</td>
<td>– Company-established benefits plans allowing employees to acquire stock, often at below-market prices</td>
<td>– Potentially increase employee satisfaction and work motivation</td>
<td>– Impact on performance not clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– Ownership and participative style of management required to improve organisational performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is also argued that variable pay holds a danger of focusing employees on short-term goals and that the increased pressure to perform may result in mental problems [10]. The success of a contingent pay scheme depends heavily on line managers capabilities’ but also on effective communication, involvement of employees and the implementation process of such a system [1]. One possible solution to the problems of individual contingent pay is to rely more on non-financial motivators [1].

Based on the criticism of performance-related pay, the concept of contribution-related pay, which links the output-oriented focus of performance-related pay with an input (competence) focus, has proved to be appealing [1]. Another development in pay schemes is skill-based pay which directly links an employee’s skill progression with pay. An overview and comparison of individual contingent pay schemes is provided as follows (see Table 4.2):

### Table 4.2. Individual contingent pay schemes [1]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF SCHEME</th>
<th>MAIN FEATURES</th>
<th>ADVANTAGES</th>
<th>DISADVANTAGES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Performance-related pay | Increases to base pay or bonuses are related to performance assessment | – Links rewards and objectives  
– Meets the need to be rewarded for achievement  
– Message: good performance is important and will be rewarded | – Relies on possibly subjective judgements of performance  
– Prejudical to teamwork  
– Focuses on outputs rather than quality  
– Relies on good performance management processes  
– Difficult to manage well |
| Competence-related pay | Pay increases are related to level of competence | – Focus attention on the need to achieve higher levels of competence  
– Encourages development | – Assessment of competence level may be difficult  
– Ignores outputs- danger of paying for competences which are not used  
– Relies on well trained and committed line managers |
| Contribution-related pay | Increases in pay or bonus are related to both inputs (competence) and outputs (performance) | – Rewards people not only for what they do but how they do it | – May be hard to measure contribution  
– Difficult to manage well |
| Skill-based pay | Increments related to acquisition of skills | – Encourages and rewards the acquisition of skills | – Can be expensive when people are paid for skills they don’t use |

Team-based pay has been developed as an alternative to individual contingent pay; rewards are provided to teams or groups of employees carrying out similar
or related work linked with the performance of the team [1]. Team pay removes the individualistic aspect and encourages teamwork, clarifies team goals, and provides an incentive for the team to collectively improve performance [1]. On the other hand, it is rather difficult to apply, works only in cohesive teams and individual employees may resent the fact that their performance is not rewarded specifically [1].

Profit-sharing plans, for example, are associated with superior profit performance and many companies using gainsharing plans report rises in productivity and/or quality and a reduction of costs [2]. Yet, profit-sharing plans are used in the construction industry only by medium-sized or large companies; a study by TU Darmstadt found that these are also mainly implemented for upper management. According to a study covering 199 Suisse companies, the average variable part of compensation in the construction industry amounts to only 6% whilst in the banking / insurance or consulting industry it ranges from 22-30% [10]. One third of the surveyed construction firms in a UK study, link pay to individual performance measures and completion bonuses or team based incentives for blue-collar workers [3]. The minority of companies offer bonuses linked with quality standard targets or open company wide bonus schemes to blue-collar workers [3]. The variable proportion of pay for white-collar staff in the UK construction industry ranged between 10%-20%, the most common being merit bonuses and overtime pay; in a UK survey of 41 companies, other additions include [1]:

- profit-related pay and share bonuses,
- SAYE share option schemes,
- shift/ unsocial hours payments,
- team/project completion bonuses.

### 4.1.3. Benefihs, Perks and Other Rewards

Pensions, sick pay, insurance coverage, company cars and other perks are included in benefits which are defined as elements of remuneration, additional to cash pay and which are not necessarily financial (e.g. annual holidays) [1]. The objectives of employee benefits programs are the provision of a total remuneration package attracting and retaining high quality employees, provision for personal needs of employees, enhancement of commitment to the firm and a tax-efficient remuneration method [1]. While normal benefits rarely have a direct and immediate influence on performance, they may improve commitment and organisational performance by creating positive attitudes...
towards the company in the longer term [1]. An overview of the main types of benefit categories is provided below (see Table 4.3):

**Table 4.3. Benefit categories [1]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefit Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pension schemes</td>
<td>• Generally regarded as the most important benefit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal security</td>
<td>• Enhance personal and family security with regard to illness, health, accident or life insurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance</td>
<td>• Loans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal needs</td>
<td>• Holidays and other forms of leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company cars and petrol</td>
<td>• Care and other forms of leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other benefits</td>
<td>• Subsidised meals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangible benefits</td>
<td>• Characteristics of the firm contributing to the quality of working life</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Flexible benefits provide each employee with individually tailored benefits packages which commonly replace the traditional one-benefit-fits-all approach [4], [9]. Choosing individual compensation packages which best satisfy an employee's current needs is consistent with expectancy's theory thesis, that rewards should be linked with the employees' individual goals [9].

The three most commonly implemented types are: modular plans, core-plus options and flexible spending accounts. The advantages of so-called cafeteria systems for the company, include an increase in employee job satisfaction and motivation as well as an improvement of the company's image and cost effectiveness [10].
Employees benefit from packages tailored to individual needs, an increased flexibility in choice of benefits and enhanced voice in the company [10]. Employees and unions may resist a cafeteria system, and studies show that few employees participate in optional cafeteria systems [10]. Pension schemes, gratifications, company catering and payments in kind are widespread but increasingly reduced in practice [4]. Nowadays a splitting of the compensation into a period and a pension component (deferred compensation) as well as pension funds and time shares are becoming more important [4].

**MOTIVATIONAL EFFECTS**

In general, the motivational aspects of incentives, compensation and rewards are from the company's point of view- attraction, performance and retention [5]. Typical motivational effects of different compensation components on high achievers could be summarised as follows (see Table 4.4):

**Table 4.4. Motivational effects [5]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base pay</th>
<th>ATTRACTION</th>
<th>PERFORMANCE</th>
<th>RETENTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable pay (individual goals)</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+/0</td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable pay (company goals)</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holiday/christmas gratification</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jubilee pay</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company car</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accident insurance</td>
<td>0/+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loans, cafeteria</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee shares</td>
<td>0/+</td>
<td>0/+</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deferred compensation</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pension schemes</td>
<td>+/++</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+/++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stock options</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Base salary is an important factor for the attraction of employees, even though the possibilities for development and autonomous work, play an increasingly crucial role in employer selection as well [5]. The influence of base salary on performance is relative also because the comparison with colleagues is more important than an absolute increase and it tends to be short-term [5]. Similar but weaker motivational effects can be caused by holiday and Christmas gratifications [5]. Variable pay may have a stronger effect on performance depending on the employee's perception of how influenceable the compensation
components are; individual or group/departmental goals tend to be more easily achieved than company goals and may therefore have a greater impact on performance [5]. For benefits, company cars and pension schemes seem to have the strongest influence in terms of attraction and retention but not on performance [5]. Accident insurances and deferred compensation can exercise low to medium attraction effects while long-term incentives such as stock options may strongly impact attraction, retention and performance [5].

4.2. NON-FINANCIAL MOTIVATION

Non-financial rewards do not require any direct payments and include achievement, autonomy, recognition, scope to use and develop skills, training and career development opportunities, they are commonly intrinsic rewards arising from the work itself [1]. According to Herzberg's two-factor theory, the work environment and (physical) working conditions, including corporate policy, relationships with superiors and colleagues, job security but also rewards belong to the hygiene factors (see chapter 2), which may prevent dissatisfaction but cannot cause satisfaction [9], [10].

Motivators such as recognition, autonomy, responsibility or self-fulfilment, factors which are closely related to an employee's performance may lead to satisfaction [10]. A company should thus attempt to avoid negative impacts of hygiene factors in order to prevent dissatisfaction and then "activate" motivators in order to increase satisfaction [10]. Herzberg's theory provided a basis for the development of job enrichment programmes [10] which seek to increase prospects to obtain intrinsic motivation from the work itself, thereby improving the quality of working life [1]. Job satisfaction is influenced by both extrinsic and intrinsic factors and research has found that the key factors are career opportunities, job influence, teamwork and job challenge [1].

Communication is also considered as very important as an instrument of non-financial motivation. Several construction companies offer corporate design clothing for construction site staff, such as jackets with the firm logo and for bigger projects even the project name. A different form of communication is the regularly publishing of employee magazines. Several companies also have employee suggestion schemes or complaint systems in place which offer employees the chance to anonymously communicate their concerns.
4.2.1. WORK ENVIRONMENT AND WORKING CONDITIONS

The degree of individual job satisfaction depends not only on individual needs and expectations, but also on the working environment [1]. Employees are more likely to be motivated in an environment which makes them feel they are valued for what they are and do. This emphasises their need for recognition which can be satisfied by recognition programmes, effective performance management processes and reward systems [1]. Job design, job enrichment, decision-making responsibility and control over how the work is carried out will assist in recognising people's need for work which provides a means to achieve goals and provides them with a degree of autonomy and scope to use skills and competencies [1]. The need for growth by development of abilities and careers may be met by providing learning opportunities through personal development and career planning processes or training [1]. The development of an organisational culture which values and rewards employees will also influence attempts to motivate people [1].

Another important factor for increasing motivation is leadership which should encourage achievement and provides employees with support in achieving goals and improving their performance. A focus on leadership qualities along with identification of leadership potential through performance management and the provision of training may assist in the development of a leadership culture [1].

The main job-satisfaction factors include work itself, pay, advancement opportunities, supervision and co-workers; of these, enjoying the work is most strongly correlated with high levels of job satisfaction [9]. Jobs providing training, variety, autonomy and control as well as interesting, challenging and stimulating jobs satisfy most employees, while routine and predictable jobs may lead to lower job satisfaction [9]. Education, job security, work/life balance and employee participation were also found to be linked with higher job satisfaction according to a European-wide study [9]. Studies suggest that the link between job satisfaction and performance is usually moderate but tends to be stronger in jobs where demanding and complex tasks are performed, such as engineers or managers [7]. The specific working conditions in construction industry are described in Chapter 5.
4.2.2. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

As stated above, opportunities for self-development such as advancement and promotion are important to increase motivation. For details see Manual M16.

4.2.3. RECOGNITION

Recognition is usually a non-financial incentive given to employees to reward a certain behaviour or accomplishment not measured against a given target [6]. It is about the acknowledgement of commitment, effort and learning as well as the celebration of success [6]. Recognition programmes vary from the informal "thank you" to publicised formal programmes with clear procedures encourage specific types of behaviour [9]. One study involving 1,500 employees from various work settings identified recognition as the "most powerful workplace motivator" [9]. Another survey found, that 84% of employees would be more loyal to their company and 71% would be willing to put in extra effort if companies improved acknowledgement of increased performance [9]. Young workers aged 30 and under seem to be more easily demotivated by a lack of praise. While recognition programmes are growing more and more popular, partly due to their low cost, critics state that these systems are highly prone to manipulation by management, especially when performance criteria are relatively subjective. Such a manipulation may undermine the value of a system and hence lead to demoralised employees [9].

RECOGNITION IN CONSTRUCTION

Recognition is an important instrument of motivation in the construction industry. Amongst others, the non-financial instruments which are used by the companies covered by a recent study of the German construction industry, include events, such as summer festivities, roofing ceremonies or Christmas parties. Company-facilitated sports activities play a major role as well. While some offer internal sports events such as football tournaments or cycle races, other companies participate in and sponsor official sport activities, such as marathons. These events offer employees the possibility to network and are considered as an important means of communicating the company's values and showing recognition. In the larger companies, many of these events are organised on a regional level and incorporate regional specialities. Yet, as a construction manager you do not need to rely on recognition programmes-, instead use praise and positive feedback to motivate your employees and colleagues. An informal thank you for a task
or a job well done will be welcomed and produce a positive atmosphere as well as keep your team motivated.

4.2.4. ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Organisational justice deals with the overall perception of fairness in the workplace and is composed of distributinal, procedural and interactional justice [9]. Distributive justice refers to the "employee's perceived fairness of the amount and allocation of rewards among individuals" [9]. Employees perceive a just treatment when they believe that rewards are allocated in accordance with their contributions, that they get what was agreed and receive what they need [1]. Employees invest their energy, health as well as intelligence and in return receive pay, social benefits, recognition and other rewards, which must be balanced [7].

Procedural justice is the perceived fairness of the process on which determination of distribution of rewards is used [9]; this refers to how managerial decisions are made and how HR procedures are managed [1]. The key factors of this notion are process control and explanations; the former is the possibility to communicate desired outcomes to decision makers [9]. Explanations are the adequate reasons given by management for the outcome; employees need the feeling of having some control over the outcome and require adequate explanations for the reasons behind the outcome [9]. To ensure procedural fairness, managers should be consistent, transparent, unbiased, non-discriminatory, open to requests and base decision-making on accurate information [1], [9]. Interactional justice refers to the "perceived degree to which an employee is treated with dignity, concern and respect". An employee who feels treated unjustly may respond with retaliation [9]. Research suggests, that perception of interactional justice is often related to an employee's supervisor as it relates to the person communicating the information [9].

Studies show, that when distributive justice is lacking, procedural justice effects become more important [9]. Distributive justice is strongly related to employees satisfaction with outcomes such as pay and organisational commitment, while procedural justice affects job satisfaction, employee trust, performance and citizenship behaviours [9]. Managers should be aware, that sensitivity to procedural injustice is higher when bad news is communicated (low distributive justice). They should then openly share information about distribution decisions, follow reliable and neutral procedures, as well as focus actions on the source of the problem to increase the perception of procedural justice [9]. All types of perceived injustice are strongly related to negative
behaviours - the feeling of being treated unfairly leads to negative behaviour [7]. Organisational justice also plays an important role in performance management processes, especially when performance appraisals are held as employees ask themselves whether their commitment was worthwhile [7].

4.3. BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER 5

STRESS AT WORK IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY

(V. MOTZKO, C. MOTZKO)

5.1. STRESS DESCRIPTION

Occupational stress seems to be growing as organisations are more and more faced with rapidly changing environments, increased competition and lower job security. Today's workforce is becoming more dynamic and diverse [10], in the construction industry particularly. Employees must be able to adapt to rapid developments in information technology which leads to increased availability and input. Jobs become obsolete due to new technologies and the gap between skills required for new technologies and skills held by the workforce is growing [10]. While absenteeism based on illness has decreased in Germany over the last few years, the inability to work due to psychological illness is continually increasing [6].

Stress can be defined as a subjective and intensive state of tension arising from so-called stressors, which are external and internal psychic stimuli likely to result in stress reactions [6]. Stress in itself is neither good nor bad [7]. Some research differentiates between positive and negative stress, but the latter is usually focused on [6]. Stressors are factors which may cause stress and which are considered as additive; each new stressor adds to existing stress and thus increases the stress level [7]. Stressors include factors from the material-technical system such as time pressure and deadlines, factors from the social system e.g. family conflicts and factors from the personal system such as anxiousness [6].

In general, stress can be caused by several factors which may similarly be categorised into environmental, organisational and personal factors (see Figure 1).
Individual differences play a role in how people experience and react to stress. Each person perceives stress differently; studies have found at least four moderators influencing the connection between potential stressors and experienced stress: perception, job experience, social support and personality [7]. Perception regulates the link between a possible stress condition and a person's reaction to it. It is not objective and depends on an employee's interpretation of a situation [7]. Research shows that job experience negatively correlates with work stress; this may be because voluntary turnover is more commonly found in people who experience more stress and also because people tend to develop stress coping strategies [7]. Social support in the form of supportive relationships with colleagues or supervisors can mitigate the effects of negative stress [7].

**PERSONALITY AND STRESS**

Personality also plays a role in how people experience and cope with stress. The so-called Type A personality is linked to higher levels of stress in combination with an increased risk for heart disease [7]. Type A personalities are excessively competitive and always seem to struggle to achieve more in less time than others; but on the other hand, they are considered fast workers [7]. This type, especially when characterised by a hostile outlook, quick temper and mistrust of people is at a higher risk of experiencing stress [7].
Type A personality is generally classified as being ambitious, impatient and controlling [6]. In contrast to the personality of Type A is personality Type B, regarded as, working under lower stress, focused on quality over quantity and enjoys exploring ideas and concepts.

CONSEQUENCES OF STRESS
The consequences for an individual experiencing high levels of stress can be categorised into physiological, psychological and behavioural symptoms, which are described in more detail as follows [7].

1. PHYSIOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS:
   - Headaches
   - High blood pressure
   - Heart disease
   - Changes in metabolism
   - Increased breathing rates.

2. PSYCHOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS:
   - Tension
   - Anxiety
   - Depression
   - Irritability
   - Decrease in job satisfaction.

3. BEHAVIOURAL SYMPTOMS:
   - Productivity
   - Absenteeism
   - Turnover
   - Different eating habits
   - Increased smoking/alcohol consumption
   - Sleep disorders.

The link between certain symptoms and stress is not clear due to the complexity and difficulties with their objective measurement. Yet, in one study, stressful job demands have been linked with a poor immune system and respiratory illnesses [7]. Research suggests, that job related stress and dissatisfaction is linked with jobs characterised by multiple/conflicting demands and a lack of clarity concerning job responsibilities, also low levels of variety, autonomy and feedback [7].

Recently, there is a dramatically increase of burnout cases to observe. Burnout is generally defined as a job related chronic fatigue and a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced performance [6]. When feeling emotionally exhausted, the person concerned is unable to cope with other people and interpersonal interactions. Reduced personal performance
describes the tendency to develop a feeling of weak professional self-worth and dissatisfaction with one's work [6]. Especially physically exhausting tasks and few possibilities to influence working conditions may lead to a feeling of frustration, helplessness and even resignation. These factors are often present in the construction industry [6]. On the other hand, functioning social networks and a supportive family may act as moderating variables. The burnout syndrome develops over a long period of time and is very energy-sapping for the concerned individual. This complex process is influenced by factors such as job and task requirements, personal characteristics and the individual life situation. People suffering from burnout are confronted with permanent stress and are not able to cope with stress in an efficient way. This may also be due to the fact that they lack social support or they cannot use coping strategies efficiently [6].

In Germany, absent days due to burnout syndrome have increased tremendously between 2004 and 2010. (see Figure 5.2).

**Figure 5.2. Absent days due to burnout syndrome in Germany [1]**

Occupational stress in general refers to workload (job pressure). It is generally perceived as negative but is highly individual. It is generally acknowledged, that work-related stress may negatively affect a person's physical and mental health as well as job satisfaction and job performance. It may disrupt the family and social life [10].

One study (*112 married couples) [10] found, that heavy workload provided the second largest proportion of work problems (14%), while "negative interaction with people at work" accounted for 75% [10]. Job-related stress is more and more becoming a concern for organisations today. Not only due to the increased absenteeism and employees' turnover which it may cause,
but also because of the increasing costs involved. By some, stress is even referred to as the "Black Plague" of the post-industrial era; the overall cost of stress including absenteeism, reduced productivity, compensation claims, health insurance and medical expenses accounted for 150 billion per year in the US in the 1990s [9]. In addition, stress causes indirect costs which are mirrored in the significant level of substance abuse, high divorce rates, deaths and accidents [10].

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN STRESS
Research suggests that there are cultural differences in what employees consider a stressful experience in the workplace. US employees, for example, tend to perceive a lack of control whereas Chinese employees rated a lack of training as well as job evaluations as stressful [7]. Yet, type A personality characteristics predict stress independent of culture and research shows that "stress is equally bad for employees across cultures" [7]. Also the support in stress reduction provided by the social network (friends, family, etc.) seems to be important for employees regardless of their cultural background [7].

5.2. SOURCES OF STRESS AT WORK

Potential sources of stress at work are many and various. Stress can be caused by too little or too much work but also by time pressure, excessive travel, physical fatigue, or having to cope with frequent changes at work, to name a few [10]. Stress sources at work can be separated into the following major categories [10]:

1. Factors intrinsic to the job or workplace
2. Role in the organisation
3. Problematic relationships at work
4. Career development
5. Organisational structure, climate and culture
6. Home/work interface

1. The first category refers to physical conditions, such as inadequate lighting, noise, physical danger and lack of privacy as well as task-related stress sources, such as work underload/overload, lack of autonomy, disrupted work patterns, long/unsual work hours, shift work or extensive travel [10].
Qualitative and/or quantitative work overload may have enormous effects on health and produce tension, low self-esteem or high cholesterol levels, heart diseases, drinking and absenteeism [10]. This category includes a lot of factors which are typical to working in the construction industry, such as physical danger and unusual work hours.

2. If an employee is unsure about his/her role in the organisation, this may affect
   • Role ambiguity: due to insufficient information about tasks, duties and scope; is linked with high anxiety and poor productivity; stress resulting from uncertainty.
   • Can occur when managers are uncertain about several matters relating to their jobs, such as what is expected of them and how to divide their time between various duties.
   • Role conflict: inconsistency between expected behaviours/conflicting job demands; linked with tension and low self-esteem.
   • Powerlessness: perception that the employee cannot control outcomes; linked with job dissatisfaction, anxiety and futility.
Role conflict, role ambiguity and role underload or overload have been found by studies to be related to higher stress. Role ambiguity is especially interrelated with uncertainty which opposes our (motivational) need for security, recognition and achievement [10].

3. Poor relationships with colleagues, subordinates, superiors or clients are a frequently reported work-related stress factor and play a great role in poor individual and organisational health. Low trust, low supportiveness and low interest in problem-solving result in unsatisfactory interpersonal relations which are related with our need for acceptance and recognition [10].

4. This refers for example to problems of job loss, demotion and derailing, underpromotion and unclear career future. The lack of job security is a source of fear for many employees today and transitions as well as organisational changes are often viewed as disruptive [10]. Especially since the M&A boom in the 80s and the organisational changes brought about by globalisation, job insecurity and career development issues have developed into possible stressors.

5. Includes inadequate training, inappropriate management style and lack of feedback or poor communication. For example, a gap between job demands and required knowledge, skills and abilities may result in increased stress levels for an employee [10]. A lack of participation in organisational decision making,
personal or sexual harassment at the workplace may be a source of stress as well.

6. Refers to the management of the interface between home and work; this is especially true for dual career couples or employees experiencing a financial crisis. Working mothers may also experience stress related with this aspect. By offering flexible work time and development of family friendly policies, the stress resulting from a disturbed work-life-balance may be reduced [10]. It was found, that unpleasant working conditions also influence mental and physical health. The need to work quicker, increased physical effort under excessive and inconvenient hours and repetitive tasks may have a negative impact on mental health [10]. One study conducted by a German health insurance company, found that deadline pressures (52%), information overflow/constant availability (33%) and unclear tasks (29%) are the main reasons for job-related stress (see Figure 5.3).

![Figure 5.3. Main reasons for job-related stress in Germany [9]](image-url)
Another German study found that the most frequent work pressures are caused by time/performance pressures (40%), overtime/long working hours (35%) and physical conditions such as noise/cold/heat (35%) (see Figure 5.4). While these may be typical for other industries as well, work pressures typical for the construction industry such as lifting/carrying heavy loads and working in uncomfortable positions are experienced frequently by 26 - 27% of the questioned employees. Shift work has a negative impact on 21%; these figures are even higher for men.

Figure 5.4. Work pressures in Germany in 2010 [11]
5.3. CAUSES OF STRESS IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY

PHYSICAL STRESS FACTORS OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS
The work on construction sites is challenging both for the site managers as well as for the blue-collar workers in relation to mental and physical stress. The blue-collar workers are performing works, which can be classified as heavy physical work. They are characterised by multiple stresses such as lifting and carrying of loads while working under cold, hot and wet weather conditions, exposed to noise, dust and possibly other emissions (Figure 5.5).

![Physical workload of blue-collar workers](image)

In particular, the structural works, where you can find the activities of the concrete workers, carpenters and scaffolders, are influenced by the handling of heavy loads. These professional groups rate their work in the category of "difficult" one (see Table 5.1).
Table 5.1. Stresses due to handling of weights [5]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
<th>Weights &lt; 10 kg</th>
<th>10 - 25 kg</th>
<th>&gt; 25 kg</th>
<th>Assessment of heavy work [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plumber</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bricklayer</td>
<td>539</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concrete worker</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpenter</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roofer</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>53.2</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scaffolder</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>73.4</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road builder</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled labourer</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drywall builder</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiller</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>24.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interior designer</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>57.7</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painter</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machine operator</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleaning</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White-collars</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average (Construction Industry)</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>56.4</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average (Total)</td>
<td>3413</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Taking under consideration the tough conditions on construction sites, occupational health and safety as a form of social movement against the consequences of the exploitation of labour power of working people, is of highest importance. It refers on the one hand, to the improvement of historical specifics and as a result of the development of technology, organisation and science constantly changing working conditions, on the other hand as an element of identification with own executed work. Through practice and science studies, it can be confirmed [2], that disturbed work balance can lead to significant health problems and stress symptoms as well as to increased fatigue. In such cases the risk of accidents increases. Therefore, in the discussions about the potential of rationalisation in construction, human beings must be at the centre of attention. Adequate work system structures have to be developed (see manual M9). In this context, it is important to measure the individual strain of working people depending on the task demands, task conditions and other constraints. Rohmert developed for this problem, a Stress-Strain Concept [8]. As an integrated system, a computer-aided power-fatigue model was created, which integrates the findings of ergonomics (stress-strain concept of Rohmert) and the REFA methodology.
Figure 5.6. Ergonomic model of fatigue, the range of services and their impact on basic and recovery times [2]

STRESS FACTORS OF SITE MANAGERS

The competences of site managers are characterised by a large variety of their duties. Site managers need skills in technical, methodological, social and personal areas. The manifestation of stress of site managers depends primarily on the individual resilience. The stressors connected with the occupational profile of a site manager can be categorised as follows Bundesanstalt für Arbeitsschutz und Arbeitsmedizin [3]:

STRESSORS RESULTING FROM THE PROJECT:
- Cost pressure,
- Time schedule and time pressure,
- Several projects to be processed simultaneously,
- Unforeseen disturbances and incidents on site,
- Decision without adequate information base.

STRESSORS RESULTING FROM THE PROFESSIONAL ROLE:
- High responsibility,
- Lack of recognition,
- Lack of support from supervisors or departments,
- Conflicts with superiors and colleagues.

STRESSORS RESULTING FROM THE OPERATIONAL ORGANISATION:
- Structural changes, such as reorganisation of departments and redistribution of competence areas,
- Lack of information,
- Bad operating climate.

INDIVIDUAL STRESSORS:
- Failures,
- Defects,
High expectations and standards,
Contradictions between work demands and the expectations of family, friends, etc.

**STRESSORS RESULTING FROM THE ENVIRONMENT:**
- Noise,
- Heat,
- Unfavourable light or atmospheric conditions,
- Frequent workflow interruptions.

In another survey of the working conditions of site managers, the most important stress-causing factors were quantified according to their intensity. The results are shown in Figure 5.7.

![Stress-causing factors of site managers](image)

**Figure 5.7. Stress-causing factors of site managers [12]**

Another case study dealing with the stress situation of site managers was conducted by the Institute of Construction Technologies and Management of TU Darmstadt and is presented in chapter 8.2.
5.4. COGNITIVE - TRANSACTIONAL THEORY OF STRESS

Cognitive stress models do not focus on stimuli or reactions [6] and are considered as more modern. The cognitive and emotional evaluation of a situation and the possible coping mechanisms are analysed instead. The transactional model of stress based on Lazarus is probably the most influential model and defines occupational stress as "a mobilisation of an individual's resources in response to organisational and work demands, challenges, threat and affordances" [10]. This model regards stress situations as complex dynamic interactions between the individual and the situational requirements (see Figure 5.8) [6]. While challenges may lead to a positive stress response, threats will most likely cause a negative stress response. This may depend on the evaluation or appraisal process of the individual, which consists of three parts:

1. Primary appraisal: evaluation of potential threats (environmental factors/requirements),
2. Secondary appraisal process determines whether sufficient resources such as time/ability are available to successfully cope with the event,
3. Re-appraisal: determines whether the requirements can be met or whether the situation is still seen as a threat [6].

These appraisal processes can repeat several times. Another part of this model are effective coping mechanisms or patterns, which will be studied in more detail in the following chapter [6]. In contrast to other stress models, Lazarus' model allows the prediction of long-term consequences of stress and hence provides a good basis for the development of preventative measures [6]. According to Lazarus, a potential for stress exists when an environmental situation is perceived as presenting a demand which threatens to exceed the person’s capabilities and/or resources for meeting it. For instance, if an individual perceives the amount of work as difficult to handle, being given control over work assignments and work pace may be helpful. On the other hand, being given the opportunity to participate in organisational decision-making could be counterproductive because it would add to the workload. Each person perceives and reacts to stress in a different way, so that activities
concerning stress on an organisational level are important, but need to address reactions to stress on an individual level [6].

![Stress Experience Diagram](image)

**Figure 5.8.** The stress experience as an active cognitive process involving a dynamic interaction between the individual and the environment [4]

### 5.5. COPING WITH STRESS

Coping is characterised as a process which is interrelated with the person's traits, his or her present state as well as the physical and social environment [6]. Moderate levels of stress may lead to increased employee performance but high or very low stress levels over a longer period of time may have the opposite effect and thus require action [7]. Managing and coping with work related stress is complex. The restrictive work environment limits the possible coping responses as well as individual control [10]. Yet, coping behaviours can reduce the effect of stress and its negative consequences.

Three main functions of coping mechanisms are:

- The prevention, elimination or change of circumstances creating problems
- Control experience in order to neutralise stress

69
Limiting emotional consequences to acceptable bounds.

Coping is generally situation-specific and may vary with reference to relevant stressors [10]. Coping is divided into coping styles, which refers to "consistent and stable preferences for particular strategies in dealing with stressful situations" and coping behaviors which reflect the actual behaviour as a reaction to stress [10]. The management of stress can happen on two levels: the individual and the organisational.

**INDIVIDUAL APPROACH**

Individuals can take responsibility for reducing their stress levels, for example by:

- Implementation of time management techniques
- Increasing physical exercise
- Relaxation training
- Expansion of social support network.

This approach is referred to as the personal/individual approach to managing stress [7]. Such a lifestyle change may also be supported by therapies such as cognitive self-therapy or behaviour therapy (attempting to overcome stress by focusing on behaviour that reduces it). More effective time management may reduce stress caused by job demands. Physical exercises such as aerobics, walking or swimming can also be helpful in dealing with stress as such exercise increases heart capacity and lowers the at-rest heart-rate [7]. The positive effects of relaxation techniques can be on the blood pressure or heart rate [7]. It also can help to stop thinking about work and make you feel relaxed. A stable social network including family, friends and colleagues offers not only an opportunity to let off steam but also communication which may provide a more objective perspective of a situation [7].

Individual coping strategies used by employees are usually aimed at one or more of the following [10]:

- Changing work environment
- Changing one's behaviour
- Changing physical conditions
- Changing psychological conditions.

However, studies have found that individual coping strategies are less effective when dealing with work-related stress. Group coping, involving groups of workers or entire organisations has been found more potent as many of the stress factors at work are beyond the individual's control [10].
ORGANISATIONAL APPROACH
The organisational approach [10] is aimed at changes in an organisation’s structure / function / process / program (right-sizing, re-engineering and reprocessing):

- Jobs re-design (jobs can be enlarged, enriched, divided, shared and redefined),
- Changing selection, placement, training procedures,
- Changing socialisation processes,
- Using participative decision making/ involvement.

Some factors causing stress, such as role and task demands are under the control of management and can hence be changed [7]. Employees with little experience tend to be more vulnerable to stress - this should be considered in selection and placement decisions but also when identifying training needs. Training may increase an employee’s self-efficacy and hence reduce job strain [7].

The use of goal-setting may also reduce stress, as goals and related feedback decrease uncertainty about job expectations and actual performance [7]. Another technique for reducing stress levels on the part of the organisation is job redesign which may enhance employee responsibility and autonomy. This factor will influence individual employees in different ways as some may prefer less responsibility and increased specialisation [7]. An increase in employee involvement in decision making may also diminish role stress by enhancing employee control [7]. Uncertainty and role ambiguity can also be decreased by strengthening organisational communication with employees. So-called "wellness programmes" focussing on physical and mental conditions with topics such as alcohol usage, healthy eating and exercises may be offered in addition to supporting employees with stress management [7].

RESOURCES IN COPING WITH STRESS
The availability of certain resources plays a great role in successful coping with stress. Resources can be:

1. The person him or herself,
2. The physical material environment (e.g. working conditions, lighting) or
3. The social environment (family / friends) [6].

Tasks with strong demands and low decision latitude are considered as responsible for increasing stress levels and may cause medication abuse, longer periods of disability and cardiovascular diseases in the long term [6]. Jobs with low job demands and either high or low decision latitude may result in a feeling of being underchallenged or monotonous, which can - in the long term - also influence private lives to more passivity [6]. In terms of reward,
there is a distinction between financial reward and non financial reward also in the form of praise, promotions or job security. The combination of high effort and low reward may be a factor for causing cardiovascular diseases and mental illnesses [6]. In other words, if you have to put in a lot of effort but feel that you are not equitably rewarded for your effort - in terms of either too little compensation or not being promoted - you will become dissatisfied with your work. Your motivation may thus decrease, you may reduce your performance and this could even lead to inner resignation.

An important resource for dealing with stress is social support, which can act as a moderator [6]. This support can come from colleagues or supervisors but also from family and friends and may cause an increase in the feeling of self-worth which enables a person to see him or herself competent to deal with the demands [6]. Resources related to the person, include the already discussed Type A personality traits as well as the locus of control [6]. But people do not only differ in terms of the resources available to them for dealing with stress, they also differ in how they react to stress. The two most important coping styles are problem-focused and emotion-focused coping [6]. Employees with a rather instrumental or problem-focused coping style will tend to take direct action to reduce the present threat (see Lazarus model). This can be in the form of changing one's way of working, seeking to acquire new competencies or by open discussion. An emotional coping style prefers the regulation of emotions, such as distraction or extenuation of a situation but may even take the form of substance abuse [6]. This tactic may lead to a short-time relief but will not alter the cause of the stress experience.

**TOOLS AND STRATEGIES FOR STRESS MANAGEMENT AND STRESS PREVENTION**

In general there is a distinction between two major stress prevention measures, the behavioural and conditional measures. Both of which should ideally be combined by the company [6]. Behavioural measures which are conducive to health can include the alteration of attitudes and behaviours which may endanger an individual's health, such as alcohol abuse as a coping strategy. They usually comprise of training focussing on the individual and enabling this individual to handle stress more effectively. Seminars for quitting smoking or stress management are a few examples [6]. The latter emphasises the development of individual coping strategies and often includes training in communication skills, time management techniques and relaxation. The conditional measures focus on the reduction of physical and psychosocial job strains and improving working conditions to achieve higher motivation and job satisfaction. These measures can focus on the workplace, such as the reduction of noise or the ergonomic design of the workplace and tools
or on the job task, for example by increasing the degree of autonomy or providing flexible working time arrangements [6]. Many companies implement health circles which offer employees the chance to make suggestions for a healthier workplace. Over the past years, companies have enhanced their efforts with regard to health & safety management [6]. This may also be due to the fact that companies want to reduce the costs linked with insufficient health & safety management including stress prevention.

The active stress management can be divided into the areas of stress prevention, coping with stress and ex post stress reduction [3]. The stress management measures must be aligned to the individual causes of stress. For site managers there are several measures listed below (examples), which can be applied.

**STRESS PREVENTION**

To prevent stress situations on construction sites, it is necessary to educate the site managers and to prepare the construction project for it. The possible measures are:

− Participation in soft skills training against stress,
− Education in the field of communication in construction project organisation,
− Education in adjudication and mediation techniques,
− Improvement of proper work preparation on construction sites,
− Providing adequate technical equipment,
− Improvement of occupational health and safety.

**COPING WITH STRESS**

The site managers’ job is stressful. Processes on construction sites, for example, are often executed in deviation from the forecasts, defined in the time and cost schedules. This often arouses feelings of stress. The following list shows methods, how such stressful situations can be managed.

− Perception and sensitivity concerning stress situations,
− Implementation of regeneration breaks,
− Change of personal attitudes concerning stress,
− Individual support and coaching by external professionals.

**EX POST STRESS REDUCTION**

After stress it is necessary to regenerate and to compensate. The possible measures are:

− Company sports,
− Individual support and coaching by external professionals,
− Breaks between projects,
− Flexibility in working-time,
− Medical support.
Some German construction companies are sensitive concerning the aspects of stress and have implemented adequate measures of prevention for their own employees. These construction companies use different instruments and methods for achieving work-life-balance and to prevent burn-out and other illnesses. Flexible work time is quite usual and part-time work as well as sabbaticals are possible even though the latter are rarely used. Individual timeouts are not integrated in systems but rather dealt with on a one-to-one basis. Most of these companies undertake measures for reducing stress such as sport activities or they develop and implement targeted programmes for health which use workshops to inform about topics such as psyche and movement. Several of these companies provide support by occupational medical staff.
5.6. BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER 6

LEADERSHIP
IN THE CONSTRUCTION
INDUSTRY

(K. KOSY, M. KSIĄŻEK)

6.1. MOTIVATIONAL TOOLS
& STRATEGIES IN PRACTICE

6.1.1. MANAGING BY LEADERSHIP
INTRODUCTION

Directing a team is a very complicated and difficult matter, which allows for observation of the development of different group members, discovering one's own potential and completing goals important for the group. According to [8], belonging to a team should present an opportunity to change oneself by looking at one's limitations in contacts with others. It is also a great challenge for the leader themselves, who should be a competent person, possessing the ability to support the members of the group in overcoming various communication barriers, gathering new experience and initiating new forms of activity and creativity. Leadership is also the ability to assertively enforce the instructions issued by the leader and achieving satisfactory results and goals. Building a climate of trust and acceptance demands the leader to be mature in accepting people the way they are, expressing respect for each of them, without prejudice and excessive requirements and accepting their rate of work. Expressing the leader's own feelings and needs, authenticity, integration and coherent actions, creates space for such behaviour in the group. Proper directing of a group is not possible if the leader does not attempt to improve as well. A group allows its participants to gather new experience and develop new forms of activity and creativity. The primary task of the leader is to take care that the considerable potential of the group is optimally taken
advantage of, and bringing its members lasting and satisfactory benefits [8]. So what is leadership? For ages leadership has been defined as a process of affecting and influencing people. It was assumed that leadership occurred every time someone attempted to influence the views or actions of other people in order to reach a specific goal in their private or professional life. However, in recent times the notion of leadership has been transformed and is now defined as "the ability to influence people by releasing their strength and potential in order to allow them to strive towards the so called greater good" [5]. In a case when leadership is focused on achieving a goal, it might be assumed that it applies only to financial results. When considering the so called "high level" leadership, focusing solely on the economic aspect is not enough. The reason is, that the deciding factor is the "greater good", which is achieving the best for the entire team. High level leadership follows the philosophy that personal development is equally important as the results. Consequently, it has the advantage of bringing long-term effects and satisfaction to the team members. Therefore, leadership may be defined as "a process of reaching valuable results by using a fair approach, characterised by care and respect, to all engaged parties" [4]. When this is achieved, there is no more room for leadership focused on self-serving. A leader will only be capable of high level leadership if he discovers the fact that leadership concerns more than just them [8].

6.1.2. THE ESSENCE OF LEADERSHIP IN MANAGEMENT

The idea of developing leadership skills comes from ancient times. Many of the leaders of that time were destined to become leaders, usually by birth. They were prepared for this role by education and practice. Currently the behaviouristic and situational leadership theories are distinguished. It is hard to establish the essence of leadership based only on personality features. Although the interest in practice and development of leadership skills has continued for thousands of years, leadership itself is currently the most widely researched and at the same time the least understood problem in social sciences [2]. Unfortunately the notion of leadership remains elusive and enigmatic despite years of effort by researchers striving to develop its intellectually and emotionally satisfying interpretation. The notion of leadership appears in every aspect of life and the rules of leadership apply in every realm (e.g. in public activities, charity work, education or science). Currently, leadership means to expose the best features of people and manage them in a way, which allows their cooperation towards reaching a goal set by the leader. As everyone works and gathers knowledge in an individual way,
there is no universal recipe for leadership. This results from the fact that, while discussing leadership, people have different expectations on what it is, which often makes communication more difficult. No one can immediately become a "better" leader. Simply put, leadership, similarly to luck, is a secret element of a given organisation's or team's strategy used to achieve success. Therefore, it does not appear suddenly and in contrast to luck it may be shaped and developed depending on the situation [2], [5].

DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP
There are numerous definitions of leadership. Leadership is the ability to influence people by releasing their strength and potential, which allows them to achieve the desired goals. Leadership is also a process of reaching valuable results by the team by using a fair approach, characterised by care and respect, to all parties involved in the project. Leadership is both a process and a property. As a process, leadership is the use of the ability to influence, without the need to resort to coercive means, with the goal to shape the group's or organisation's objectives, motivate actions directed at achieving those goals and to help specify the internal procedures needed to complete the undertaking. On the other hand, leadership is seen as a property and is defined as a set of unique features, which are assigned to individuals, who are seen by those around them as possessing leadership skills. So, leaders are people who have the ability to influence the behaviour and actions of other people and are accepted in this role by the people around them. So what does leadership mean? According to [5], [5] leadership is: (1) communicating with others and shaping mutual relations between people in order to complete a given objective; (2) influencing people, so that they go beyond instructions and orders in their actions; (3) taking actions, which make others go and act in the same direction; (4) a primary driving force, which motivates the team and coordinates its actions towards completing a goal; (5) the ability to inspire, convince and support the cooperation of those, who are indispensable to complete the team's objectives [5], [5]. The basis for strong leadership is first and foremost resolve in action, vision, tolerance and self-confidence. Depending on the decision situation, the leader should combine those features with his/her own competences. The best leaders present their vision of the project completion to the team numerous times, in a way which is clear, they are open for new ideas, new approaches, while at the same time being aware of the exact goal and the direction they should take, which should be followed by the team and the whole enterprise. As leadership is mostly based on the strong position of the leader, they should have specific leadership capacity, which includes, amongst others, the ability to: clearly specify and plan tasks, properly instruct and motivate team members, organise, evaluate and control the performed tasks
and set an example [5]. Specifying tasks mean presenting the tasks which are to be performed in a given time. In order for the formulated tasks to become goals they must be clear, specific, time-specific, realistic, inspiring and be possible to evaluate. Planning is associated with establishing goals, while formulating tasks. The planning function answers the question of "how?", "when?" is something done and "who?" will do it. Instructing is the ability to confer the tasks and plans to the team. Finally, control is a supervision and verification function, which monitors, whether the entire energy of the team and all the available assets have been involved in the completion of the task. The key aspect for specifying the task is establishing the success criteria which will allow verifying, whether the task has been completed, or is it handled in the way that it should be. Of course the evaluation is an element of a specific way of thinking related to values. Motivating is encouraging the willingness of people to perform the specified tasks. Organising is the grouping of resources in the correct proportions, in the right time and in the right order so that the previously planned tasks conferred to the team are completed. Being an example is a primary tool used to confer information using one's own stance and commitment to the completion of the task [5], [7]. The leadership process is inextricably connected with the managing process. In practice, the ability of the given undertaking to succeed, requires the balance between both of these functions. It is therefore required that the leader provides the balance between:

- defining goals as a manager and communicating vision;
- developing strategy and inspiring and motivating to reach the common goal; constructing organisational structures in the team and a friendly work environment;
- establishing deadlines and own aspirations;
- organising resources and the commitment of people to the completion of the project;
- implementing an evaluation and control system and
- high work ethics [5].

MANAGING AND LEADERSHIP - KEY DIFFERENCES
The terms management and leadership are on numerous occasions defined as identical and used interchangeably. However, in reality numerous differences may be specified. In general, leadership refers to the future of organisation (so called "tomorrow"), while management refers to the present. Management usually refers to on-going control over the undertaking, its effectiveness, productivity and all other foreseeable aspects. Conversely, leadership refers to the future, which contains, amongst others, the corporate vision in a given time span, general strategy for various actions and reaching goals as well as future culture of the organisation i.e. the expectations of the leader.
[7]. For example, taking into consideration the organisation goals, it might be stated that management establishes and plans concrete actions i.e. detailed schedules for reaching the set goals and obtaining concrete results needed to acquire and distribute resources (human, material, financial) in order to achieve the results, by creating realistic budgets. Leadership specifies the direction of the development of the organisation in the (close and distant) future and develops a strategy of change on an on-going basis, which allows materialising the vision. Additionally, in relation to problem solving in an organisation, management focuses on control, which is done by monitoring plans, schedules, identifying shortcomings in the implementation of plans, planning and organising of repair actions used to eliminate any errors. Leadership focuses on motivating and inspiring the team to take action and overcome the possible obstacles and barriers (e.g. budget, resources or interpersonal) in order to complete the given tasks. Leadership also focuses on meeting the basic and often unconscious needs of the organisation members (e.g. participation in the decision making process). However, in relation to the question of human resources, management relies on recruiting and employing. This includes, among others, defining the employment structure, allocation of employees, distributing competences and duties, specifying and introducing action procedures and planning, and control and evaluation of the implementation of the planned actions. Leadership defines the direction of actions in a given undertaking and specifies the vision and strategy for the team or organisation [5], [7]. A list of major differences between management and leadership is presented in table 6.1. The basic tasks of the leader and features of management are planning, organising, motivating and control. The leader fulfils the managerial role, develops a schedule of actions, distributes tasks and persons, establishes the project budget, takes care of providing appropriate remuneration for the team and motivates the group to take actions leading to reaching the set goal. In contrast to the manager, the leader does not plan, but indicates a direction and vision for further actions. The main task of the leader is to lead and motivate the team to constructive cooperation and creative work. Leadership influences other people by performing a stimulating, absorbing and inspiring function. Of course, these two functions complement each other perfectly [2], [5], [7], [9]. A list of major differences between a leader and a manager is presented in table 6.2.
Table 6.1. Differences between management and leadership [5], [7]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MANAGEMENT</th>
<th>LEADERSHIP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating a program</td>
<td>Planning and developing a budget. Establishing detailed actions and schedules, allocation of resources needed to achieve the required goals.</td>
<td>Establishing the direction of actions. Developing a vision for the (often distant) future and strategy of changes required to fulfil this vision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing an employment structure for the completion of the program</td>
<td>Organising and employing. Establishing the employment structure required to meet the requirements of the project, distribution of duties, competences, responsibilities and formal powers, organising the team's internal and external policies, implementing procedures and facilitating management of the undertaking.</td>
<td>Positioning of people. Presenting the direction by words and actions to all those, whose mutual cooperation might be needed. Creating teams which understand and accept the vision and strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation of plans</td>
<td>Control, problem and conflict solving. Detailed observation of results in light of the plans, identifying deviations, followed by planning and solving the problems.</td>
<td>Motivating and inspiring the team. Releasing energy in the group in order to overcome the major communication, political, bureaucratic and interpersonal barriers, Meeting the basic, but often unfulfilled needs of the team members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>Produces a scope of predictability and order, systematically generates the expected results.</td>
<td>Generates changes which often are useful or drastic.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.2. Differences between a leader and a manager [5]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEADERSHIP VERSUS MANAGEMENT</th>
<th>MANAGER</th>
<th>LEADER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plans actions</td>
<td>Has a vision</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follows an established route</td>
<td>Finds the right way</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the right things, implements</td>
<td>Does the right things, inspires</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eliminates risk</td>
<td>Takes risk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has foresight</td>
<td>Is creative, innovative, has a vision</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Views the situation from the detailed level towards the general level</td>
<td>Views the situation from the general level towards the detailed level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concentrates on the tasks</td>
<td>Concentrates on the people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The goal is organisation</td>
<td>Establishes directions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintains the status quo, restores balance</td>
<td>Disturbs the organisational balance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applies rules</td>
<td>Ignores rules and creates new rules</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinates</td>
<td>Obliges</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses formal structures</td>
<td>Uses informal structures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivates and checks results</td>
<td>Inspires to take action</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintains</td>
<td>Develops, changes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Takes care of order in an organisation</td>
<td>Introduces innovations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to function effectively, teams and organisations need management as well as leadership. Leadership is a crucial condition allowing for changes and management is a condition required to systematically obtain results. Management in connection with leadership may introduce systematic changes,
6.1.3. SELECTED CONCEPTS OF LEADERSHIP

Management style is the use of various methods and techniques to affect the team, which results in the completion of the assigned tasks. The most important element of management style is the way the leader makes decisions and his willingness to include the team in the actions taken by the organisation. To fully understand leadership, one must understand authority. Authority is the ability to influence the actions of other people. One can have authority and never make use of it. In the organisational structure, authority (and the respect which accompanies it) usually appears in five forms: formal authority, authority to reward, authority to enforce, authority to share and expert's authority [9]. Formal authority is a form of authority which is supported by the hierarchical structure. A manager may assign a task to an employee and the employee who refuses to perform this task may be punished or even lose his job. This relationship stems from a formal authority of the manager, which was defined by the organisation and assigned by it. Formal authority is therefore legitimated power. The authority to reward is the power to grant rewards. The manager may control the pay rises, bonuses, promotion motions, praises and the assignment of interesting tasks at work which support development at work. The power to enforce, allows forcing a person to obey the rules using psychological, emotional or physical threats. The reference authority (in comparison to formal authority, authority to reward and enforce, which are fairly specific and based on objective aspects of organisation life) has an abstract character. It is based on identification, imitation, loyalty and charisma. The followers may react in a satisfactory manner, to a degree, as, they consider the leader as similar to themselves, as he may be, based on personality, background or stance. In other situations, the followers of a given leader may mimic him by e.g. similar clothing, working similar hours or following the same management philosophy. The reference authority may also take the form of charisma, an intangible quality of the leader, who inspires loyalty and enthusiasm. Expert's authority stems from experience or specialist knowledge. This is a type of personal authority which is assigned to someone based on professional experience, method of managing and abilities [2], [9]. One of the types of leadership is situational leadership [5], [7], where it is assumed that the correct actions differ depending on the situation. The first situational leadership model was created by Fiedler [7], who assumed that high
effectiveness of a group depends on the adjustment of the styles of the employees and that of the leader as well as on the degree to which the situation allows a person to execute control and influence others. As part of this concept, the so called "least liked employee" questionnaire was developed, which is used to measure the degree to which a given person has his mind set on the tasks or mutual relations. Then, three main situational criteria were established: (1) relations between the leader and the group members, (2) task structure and (3) authority position. The ability to manipulate the attributes listed above was assumed, so that it was possible to adjust them to the mind-set of the leader. It is assumed, that what one thinks about other people is a reflection of that person and not of the others. Therefore, if "the least liked employee" is described in positive words, this means that the tested person wants good relations with fellow employees. If the respondent assigns positive features to the person with whom his cooperation was the most difficult, it means that he can be considered oriented on mutual relations. If "the least liked employee" was characterised in fairly negative categories it means the respondent was interested in efficiency, which makes them a task oriented person. Therefore, according to [7], a leadership style is innate and may not be changed or adapted to the situation. At further stages, based on the established model, after the initial evaluation of leadership style of the given person, the leader must be "selected" to a given situation. Fiedler describes three major situational factors: (1) relations between the leader and the group members (either good or bad), (2) task structure (established or not) and (3) authority position of the leader (strong or weak). The better the relations between the leader and the members, the clearer the structure of the task and the stronger the authority position of the leader, which grants him a greater degree of control and more influence over the team [7]. Additionally, according to [7], for any person, the leadership style is generally constant and the leaders may not change their behaviour and adapt it to a particular situation as it is associated with the features of their personality. If an incompatibility of leader's style and situation occurs, the situation must be changed so that it is adapted to the leader's style. Fiedler's situational leadership model was the first theory, which allowed viewing leadership from the situational perspective [7]. In contrast, the so called route towards the goal theory [6] in relation to leadership was based on the assumption that the main function of the leader is providing valued or demanded rewards in the workplace and explaining to the employees what behaviour will result in reaching the goal and receiving these rewards (i.e. the leader should explain the routes leading towards reaching the goal). The most developed version of this theory identifies four types of leadership behaviours: directing, supporting, participating and result oriented. According
to [6] the directing leadership shows the employees what is expected of them, presents guidelines and establishes the direction as well as creating work schedules. The supporting leadership is friendly and approachable, shows care about the wellbeing of the employees and treats the members of the group identically. Participating leadership is used by those leaders who ask for their employee's advice, requires suggestions and allows for participation in the decision making process. Finally, the result oriented leader establishes ambitious goals, requires good effects from their employees and encourages them, and has trust in their abilities. In contrast to the Fiedler's [5], [7] situational theory, the "route towards the goal theory", assumes, that depending on the requirements of the given situation, the leaders are able to change their style of behaviour. Similarly to other situational theories of leadership, the "route towards the goal theory" assumes that the correct leadership style depends on situational factors, personality traits of the leader and the team, as well as on the environmental impact of a given organisation [5]. According to [7], an effective application of situational leadership may result in benefits for the given organisation, which includes (1) improved communication between the leader and the team (thanks to regular meetings based on established rules and common language); (2) increased employee motivation and commitment (thanks to flexible and adjusting leadership style); (3) decreased rotation of employees, improved satisfaction, keeping the best employees; (4) development and increased qualifications of employees in the workplace; (5) more complete association of employees' individual goals and the organisation goals; (6) effective introduction of changes (thanks to increased trust between leaders and their teams) and (7) improved transparency of the decisions taken, resulting from developing and establishing rules of cooperation between the leaders and their teams. Therefore, selecting and assuming one’s style depends mostly on situational conditions, the leader, his knowledge, experience, capacity and the team of employees. The problems related to aspects of leadership are presented in more detail in [5], [6], [7].

THE ROLE OF THE LEADER AND HIS CHARACTERISTICS

A leader is a person who inspires, convinces, motivates and influences others and also paves the way to change. Understanding leadership requires a look from the community perspective and from the perspective of mutual relations between the leader and the team members. Forming a union depends on creating such relations. A leader should address others as they would address their own family and friends, be close to the team, maintain contact with people and maintain a positive attitude towards people who surround them and with whom they cooperate. The leaders, who usually are members
of the team, are often open to information coming from their partners. Additionally they direct the actions and inspire others [5]. The functioning of a group as a community requires the leader to meet particular conditions: (1) it is the leader who presents a vision after receiving all the information from their partners; the members of the team are allowed to express their own opinions; (2) the leader and their team share responsibility for the results of their actions both for the successes and for the failures; (3) the leader and their group are honest in their relations and hiding the truth is a violation of unwritten internal rules functioning in the group; (4) both the leader and the team are aware of the fact that differences of opinion are unavoidable in a group and the possible conflicts must be discussed and resolved in a constructive manner [5], [6].

Everyone has some characteristics of a leader, however they are not always used in a given group [5]. An important characteristic of a leader is flexibility i.e. the ability to adjust to various rules both within the organisation and on the market. Broadly understood interpersonal competences are very important as they are responsible for effective communication, giving precise instructions, gathering information and negotiating contracts as well as maintaining a good atmosphere in the team.

Good example set by the leader is also important from the point of view of effectiveness of the project. By shaping effective communication standards, a good leader controls an efficient flow of information and is able to avoid conflicts and organise the work of a team in a way which provides all team members with a sense of safety, commitment, satisfaction and effectiveness.

Craftiness is typically considered a negative characteristic, however the end might justify the means in the case of group actions and the tasks in hand. So, in order to become a competent and effective leader one must learn to inspire, listen (and hear), build and reinforce positive relations. A leader should know that there is much greater potential in his team than that which is being used, demonstrated and even exists in people's beliefs. It is his role to help the group believe in their own abilities as this is the key to obtaining good results. The primary role of the leader does not require just indicating ready solutions and answers. His role is to motivate people to find the solutions on their own. Yet, using the ability to listen (and hear) the leader will be aware what motivates his team, what is important, what ideas there are in the team and what barriers the group faces.
Table 6.3. Characteristics of a leader [1], [5]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHARACTERISTIC</th>
<th>NOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ENTHUSIASM</td>
<td>Every leader should be enthusiastic to take action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTEGRITY</td>
<td>This characteristic improves the trust of the team and is the basis for all interpersonal relations, both at work and in private life. Integrity is not only the internal composition of the leader's character but also his adherence to some internal values (e.g. truth, good, and lawfulness).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOUGHNESS</td>
<td>A leader is often a person who is demanding and has great expectations towards his group, he may be stubborn and relentless. A leader needs not be popular with his team, however the group must respect and trust him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HONESTY</td>
<td>A leader should treat all team members the same way without favouring anyone. While administering punishment or rewards he should be unbiased and fair.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WARMTH</td>
<td>A leader in their actions should use both his mind and his heart. A leader's passion for work and taking care of the team are indispensable and equally important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HUMILITY</td>
<td>It is a rare feature that is characteristic of the best leaders. Its opposite is arrogance. The ability to listen to others and refraining from dominance are also very important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELF-ASSURANCE AND SELF-CONFIDENCE</td>
<td>This is one of the most important characteristics of a leader. A team is very quick and accurate to detect this characteristic or lack thereof in the leader. Self-confidence and self-assurance are a good basis for systematic development of the leader's skills.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Additionally, the leader should develop partnership in the team as it is based on trust and stimulates independence and initiative in people. On the other hand, relations based on submission may create people who only do what they are told and are imitators. Of course it happens that a given leader, despite not being completely flexible or able to communicate properly with their team and not at all cunning is still able to complete the desired project objectives [5]. Why is this so? "(...) for a given team and its leader the proper aggregation of the aspects listed below is a unique, specific, elusive and inimitable matter" [5].

On an individual level, thinking about leadership traits, it is very practical to use the concept of competencies. Below is an example of a leadership competencies model. Having this, individual strengths and weaknesses may be identified with the help of tools like Development Centre or 360 degree feedback.

Table 6.4. The example of leadership competencies model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>DEFINITION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Success orientation</td>
<td>Orientation for gaining the best results, ambition, setting high standards, motivation for achieving professional successes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and organising of own work</td>
<td>Maintaining order in own workplace, ability of efficient organising and controlling own work, keeping deadlines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>Commitment and energy putting in work on set target. Ability of forecasting, perceiving and utilising occurring opportunities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficacy</td>
<td>Consequence in achieving targets, ability of efficient implementation of agreed decisions and controlling of their execution.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.4. The example of leadership competencies model - continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>DEFINITION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Professionalism</strong></td>
<td>Being an essential authority in own professional area, maintaining high level of professional competencies, determination for constant improvement, taking responsibility for results, ability of performing own tasks, keeping high standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Coping with stress and external pressure</strong></td>
<td>Mastering an ability of emotion control, coping with difficult conditions (time pressure, conflict, observers presence).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Flexibility</strong></td>
<td>Ability to quickly adapt to new situations and efficient performance in changing conditions, adjusting strategy to changing circumstances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivating others</strong></td>
<td>Setting high standards for team members, efficiently engaging others to answer these expectations and keeping high standards of own work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Planning and organising of teamwork</strong></td>
<td>Increasing order in own surroundings, ability of planning, organising and controlling others labour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Others development</strong></td>
<td>Active and systematic influencing other employees professional development. Ability of recognising their professional potential as well as planning and implementing training systems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Team leading</strong></td>
<td>Ability of building efficient teams and gaining leader position, ability of gaining professional authority and adequate use of formal power. Ability of solving internal (within the team) and external (with other teams) conflicts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.4. The example of leadership competencies model - continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>DEFINITION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationship development and co-operation</td>
<td>Orientation of co-operating with others, active participation of the team in decision taking process and common activities, creating positive relationships with the team.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic thinking</td>
<td>Perceiving and understanding the priorities, creating complex and long-term plans regarding functioning of the groups and teams, forecasting the risk, results and consequences of activities in long-term perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer orientation</td>
<td>Approach to client aiming at satisfying his needs, initiative and effort put into answering demands and expectations of the customer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification with the organisation</td>
<td>Ability of adjusting own activities and behaviours to needs and aims of the organisation, commitment and loyalty towards organisation. Readiness for bearing costs or taking unpopular decisions for the good of the organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship development and co-operation</td>
<td>Orientation towards co-operation with clients, building professional relations with internal and external clients, ability of creating and proper use of professional contacts on different levels of the organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness for change</td>
<td>Ability to quickly adapt to and actively implement changes within the organisation, adjusting strategy of groups' performance to changing circumstances.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.1.4. LEADER AND MANAGEMENT - SELECTED ASPECTS

Thanks to research related to the personal characteristics of a leader-manager, ten major characteristics were specified which have a negative impact on leadership. These are: (1) inability to create a team; (2) excessive, often "obsessive" ambition, willingness to organise various interpersonal "games"; (3) inability to keep the team's secret to themselves, abusing the trust of the team; (4) lack of ability or difficulties in strategic thinking; (5) selection of incompetent and ineffective team members; (6) lack of sensitivity for the team's needs and excessive roughness; (7) coldness, arrogance and aloofness in relations with the group; (8) lack of flexibility in communication with the group and interpersonal relations; (9) excessive control of actions taken by the group, lack of ability to properly distribute tasks and responsibilities in the team; (10) excessive and permanent dependence of one's mentor. In contrast the most wanted, specific characteristics of a leader which are a warrant of his effectiveness are: (1) ability to make decisions, even in crisis; (2) stability, emotional maturity and self-control of emotions; (3) ability to adapt to others, honesty, impartiality; (4) intellectual effectiveness i.e. creativity, knowledge and openness to experience; (5) ambition and strong internal motivation, which is demonstrated by e.g. persistence, self-confidence, thirst for success, initiative and consequence in action; (6) ability to mobilise the team for creative and effective work; (7) ability to notice the strong and weak points of the team members; (8) strong nervous system, resistance to stress and frustration; (9) social intelligence i.e. the ability to emotionally handle difficult, stressful and conflict situations; (10) planning, taking actions, which take into consideration the interests of the team. The characteristics listed above, of course reflect the so called "perfect state - perfect leader". Some authors [5], [6], [7], [9], [12] believe that in practice it is impossible for one person - a specific, potential leader, to meet all of these high requirements.

6.1.5. MOTIVATING BY LEADERSHIP

A modern leader is expected to have the ability to influence his team and to be accepted by the group that he is in charge of. Directing people in an organisation requires constant problem solving and conflicts in the relation between the superior and the subordinate. Human behaviour, reactions, feelings and stances very often differ from one to the other, which is a consequence
of personality differences between different people, their views, experience, expectations, aspirations and goals. Poor knowledge of one's co-workers, a false idea of their abilities, need and aspirations, and lack of respect for their dignity are the most frequent causes for making wrong decisions, conflicts, bad communication and motivation and, as a result, bad leadership. A primary condition for effective motivation is understanding, respecting the person and giving the person the possibility for self-accomplishment during the implementation of the team's goals. In the opinion of [10], [10], [12] the "not fully proper and correct" relations between the leader and the team may cause the following behaviour in some group members: (1) passivity, withdrawal, apathy, expressed by unwillingness to take any actions and limiting the professional activities to a minimum; (2) defensive stance, which manifests itself by avoiding contact, carefulness, reassurance, pretended incompetence, pretended helplessness, pretended commitment, holding information, protests and even sabotage; (3) flippance expressed in irony, mockery scoff, diminishing, using naive argumentation, tolerating abnormalities, abuse and disorganisation; (4) aggression expressed by irritability and searching for potential targets to attack (e.g. disturbing other people at work), a tendency to cause conflicts, accusing the leader of incompetence, bias and dishonesty; (5) health and psychic health problems manifesting itself in the form of neuroses, various physical dysfunctions, increased sickness rate etc. [10], [11], [12]. All of the above effects are destructive to the behaviour and professional development of employees, their stance towards teamwork, they destroy mutual relations and bonds between colleagues, distort generally accepted values, standards of conduct and behaviour in the team and are difficult to contain. Leadership is the process of democratisation of social and economic life, improved qualifications and increased aspirations of the employees, which leads to the disestablishment of the classic distinction between superiors and subordinates. Authority often and to a large degree, stems from the "properties" of the leaders (personal respect) and not only from formal organisational powers (formal authority). This way, managing becomes more of a process of interaction between the workmates in order to achieve a common goal and the managers often take the role of leaders. Leadership calls for creating emotional states in the group (organisation) members, which encourages them to perform the task with commitment, together with the leader who formulated it and who pushes them to complete it with the power of his authority. Managers often wonder how to provide feedback to an employee who does not want it or is unable of accepting it constructively. Often it turns out that the managers are unable to accept such information themselves and the employee observes during everyday communication the reaction of their superior to their suggestions, whether they are considered or if the superior
takes a defensive stance and negates his opinions. Undoubtedly, in order to effectively direct human behaviour, one must know the people well and develop a partnership with them, give up on the external symbols of status and demonstrating authority, and instead focus on leadership, argumentation, support, developing a sense of unity, mutual cooperation and responsibility in the team [10], [11], [12].

6.1.6. PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECT OF LEADERSHIP

INTRODUCTION
The psychological aspects of leadership are related with emotional intelligence. People with a very high emotional intelligence ratio are more emotionally stable and are able to control their own emotions and influence the emotions of others. This ability is very much needed in the position of a leader. A very important characteristic in the case of leadership activities is resistance to stress. This is particularly important while introducing changes, directing people and solving conflicts. Resistance to stress reflects a certain resistance threshold, specific for each person and also the ability to minimise the effects of emotional stress if such effects arise. It turns out that people who are subject to long-term stress are much more prone to occupational burnout, which leads to a feeling of pointlessness of actions and decisions. The effects of occupational burnout are felt by the one affected by them but also by the surrounding people. In such a case, it is important to distance oneself from the appearing problems and exercising greater care for harmony between professional and private life [5], [10], [11], [12].

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE
Emotional intelligence (emotional competence) is the ability to identify, control and use one's emotions and the emotions of surrounding people to achieve success in both your professional and private life. Emotional intelligence specifies how well a person can act in a social group. From the point of view of leadership actions in a commune, this is the key ability of the head of the commune and all the persons performing social roles. The fields of social intelligence include the following competences: (1) organisation of groups: primary ability of a leader, which involves initiating and coordinating the work of teams of people, negotiating solutions: mediator's capabilities, preventing conflicts; (2) establishing relations and personal relations which facilitate making new contacts and starting talks, correct identification of the problems of other people; (3) performing social analyses which allow detecting and intuitive guessing of emotions and motivations behind other people's
actions. The knowledge about how and what other people feel may result in the easy creation of close relations and an atmosphere of mutual understanding. People with high social intelligence easily establish relations with others and correctly interpret their own reactions and the reactions of other people. However, if a person has problems with understanding their own feelings, this may result in a false public profile [5], [10], [11], [12].

RESISTANCE TO STRESS AND OCCUPATIONAL BURNOUT SYNDROME

Stress is a psychophysical condition, caused by a difficult situation, which results in changes in the functioning of the body. Unfortunately, stress is a dynamically developing condition. The ability to cope with stress requires searching for the meaning of life and harmony. This allows maintaining good health, both emotional and physical. Stress appears when the mind and the body react to a real or imaginary difficult situation. It must be remembered that the intensity of the reaction and its duration depends on the subjective view of the situation i.e. how stressful or dangerous a given situation is according to the affected person. Reaction to stress, which is normally necessary as it performs a protective role, may become hazardous in two cases: (1) if a given person faces a threat too often; (2) if the mind of such person too often considers a given situation as a threat [5], [10], [11], [12]. Psychical symptoms of stress as a negative phenomenon are associated with the following reactions: apathy, suppressing one's feelings, withdrawal into oneself, forgetfulness, fear, emotional tension, excessive search for solitude, nightmares, nervous laughter, sense of discontent, edginess, irritability, poor concentration, escape or agitation and a tendency to easily get into states of affright and anxiety. Also associated with stress are various psychosomatic diseases (which have physical symptoms but occur on a psychological background).

The plan for coping with stress should include the following actions: (1) identification of sources of stress in various areas of life; (2) preparing a plan, which allows effectively coping with stress, both using active methods (e.g. anti-stress techniques) and those affecting the ways of conduct (e.g. one's stance towards reality, surrounding environment); (3) finding a way to assume a positive approach to life; (4) learning the methods which prevent the stress from developing and methods for getting rid of stress [5], [10], [11], [12].

Work is a source of happiness, it is associated with a sense of competence and satisfaction and can bolster the person's psychical and physical condition. On rare occasions, it may become a source of apathy, hopelessness, dissatisfaction of life and may even cause a sense of inadequacy and incompetence. Occupational burnout is another civilisation disease
which may affect anyone. The problem of occupational burnout is the effect of "progressing disillusionment", which is characteristic to persons who in the beginning are full of good will and hope and have an idealistic view of their professional role. They expect that success in work will bring them a sense of existential meaning (meaning of life) [5], [10], [11], [12]. Occupational burnout is most often described as a condition of physical, spiritual or emotional exhaustion. It is hard to specify the exact starting point of the process. Most often it is assumed that the process starts slowly, which is hard to notice, and then manifests itself suddenly and with great intensity. The symptoms may have a tremendous effect on one’s professional life, free time, relationships with friends and family and the functioning of the person within the family. Occupational burnout occurs as a result of a series of actions and situations which form a chain of events [5], [10], [11], [12].

PHASE 1: The need to constantly prove one’s worth. The motivation for effective work is transformed into a compulsion to work effectively in order to meet the excessive requirements a person imposes on oneself. The willingness to accept one’s own limitations and abilities is diminished. The crucial moment is seeing the thin line between effective work and an internal drive for effectiveness and setting one's own pace of work and pace of life.

PHASE 2: Increased commitment to work. A feeling develops that a person must do everything on their own in order to prove their worth. Distributing tasks is seen as burdensome, time consuming and sometimes considered a threat to one's own feeling of indispensability.

PHASE 3: Neglect of one's own needs. The will to relax and participate in pleasant social contact is pushed further into the background, a feeling develops that such needs do not exist. Often this is accompanied by excessive consumption of alcohol, nicotine as well as sleeping pills - in this phase sleep disorders occur.

PHASE 4: Distorted proportions between internal needs and external requirements, so called compulsions, which results in a loss of energy and exhaustion. Improper behaviour occurs (e.g. unpunctuality, confusing dates of meetings etc.).

PHASE 5: Revaluation. The order of priorities is changed, social contacts are seen as a burden, and important life goals are revaluated.

PHASE 6: A person begins to use the so called denial mechanism in confrontation with occurring problems, as in their own belief this is the only way to continue functioning. The symptoms of this state are: isolation from the surrounding world, cynicism, aggressive depreciation of reality, lack of patience and intolerance as well as decreased effectiveness.
in performing tasks. Contacts with other people are characterised by helplessness, lack of willingness to help and a lack of empathy.

**PHASE 7:** Final withdrawal occurs. Social contacts are seen as the enemy. This condition is characterised by lack of orientation, loss of perspectives and a hope for the future, total alienation, sense of restraint and automation of actions.

**PHASE 8:** Considerable changes of behaviour. The process of isolation and withdrawal continues. Each manifestation of interest from the surrounding world is interpreted as an attack. Paranoid reactions are also possible.

**PHASE 9:** Loss of the sense that a person has their own personality. A sense develops that one is not an autonomous unit, instead a belief develops that one functions automatically.

**PHASE 10:** Internal emptiness. A person becomes barren, dejected and empty, experiences bouts of panic, experiences fear of other people and groups of people.

**PHASE 11:** The general condition is determined by depression. Despair, exhaustion and deterioration of mood. A feeling of internal pain subsides and is replaced with apathy and suicidal thoughts develop.

**PHASE 12:** Fully developed occupational burnout. Total psychical, physical and emotional exhaustion dominates; proneness to infections and other serious diseases develop [5], [10], [11], [12].

There are numerous symptoms and signals, which together form a syndrome of occupational burnout. These include: (1) physical exhaustion, chronic tiredness without any apparent reason, often loss of weight and appetite, insomnia; (2) muscle tone - various aches and pains with no apparent reason; (3) worries, taking work to do at home, which causes gradual vanishing of differences between professional and private life; (4) inability to make decisions; (5) a feeling of guilt related to the effects of one's work and stressful character of the job; (6) excessive workload, inability to cope with accepted tasks, decreased work quality; (7) loss of enthusiasm, mechanical reaction to the assigned tasks, boredom, state of inability to take action; (8) blaming others for own setbacks - real or imaginary; (9) impatience and bouts of irritation; (10) loss of interest in other people, depersonalisation of interpersonal relations; (11) unwillingness to accept new ideas, taking a stance described as "it all has already been done and it turned out pointless"; (12) addictions; (13) cynicism [5], [10], [11], [12].

Stress may appear in various areas of the human life. Successful coping with stress starts with being able to keep detached and being able to find harmony between private and professional life as well as keeping good health.
There is no single, universal method of preventing occupational burnout. Various strategies of combating burnout may be used, which may be adapted to individual needs and the specific situation. The occupational burnout is only indirectly caused by work conditions, stress and overburdening. There is no universal recipe, which allows for coping with the workload, stress, pace of life and oneself. Each person has a different personality profile, shaped by their surroundings, upbringing, culture, experience, knowledge and their attitude towards life. In the case of occupational burnout the additional factors including unfulfilled hopes, illusory views on reality and the resulting disappointments and the specific patterns of behaviour also play an important role. As each person has different opinions and handles stress situations in a different way, individual strategies and methods are required to truly solve the problem [5], [10], [11], [12].

6.1.7. Coaching

Coaching [3], [5] is one of the most effective methods of helping people in their professional development. By coaching, leaders learn how to increase the effectiveness of their employees and associates by asking the right questions at the right time and how to help others help themselves. Coaching is a process, which helps people to analyse and evaluate, and draw conclusions and plan, so that they can make fewer mistakes and achieve greater success. Coaching has a goal of helping people learn from their experience in a simple and routine way. However, coaching does not work very well in every organisation. It requires an appropriate organisational culture where the employees are open minded and willing to share knowledge.

Coaching may be defined as a planned two-directional process, where a person develops skills and achieves competence by reliable evaluation, directed practice and regular feedback. Coaching is a process designed to help achieve better results in one’s personal and professional life. The coach’s task is searching for the method of solving problems together with the leader, in a way which allows the learner to obtain new skills, knowledge and experience while performing the task on their own [3], [5]. A coach encourages independence and at the same time offers support and help when they are needed. This is a process where during a discussion and directed actions, a manager helps their associate (colleague) solve a given problem or perform a given task in a better way. In this sense, coaching allows improving the effectiveness (quality) of work and professional development of the employee.
Proper and effective coaching involves establishing partnership relations at work and within this framework the employee takes the role of a learner. Coaching may be seen from a broader perspective, as a philosophy or a managing style, which should be visible in every function of the manager as a system for the cooperation between the superior and the subordinate. Coaching may be treated as a process which comprises of four phases: defining needs, planning, development and result evaluation.

The basic methods used by the coach in this process are: observation, presenting and defining problems, asking questions, listening, persuading, and providing feedback [3], [5]. Effective coaching requires the joint use of various tools used in education, psychology and management. It allows for the activation of the learning process and the application of the tested psychological method of introducing changes (therapy).

The task of the coach is to help the employee establish goals and then turn them into an action plan by providing the needed tools and support. Performing the function of a coach and mentor requires a certain set of skills. The key skills of a coach are: effective teaching, asking questions that make people reflect and draw conclusions, providing constructive feedback, motivating for development and making learning a natural part of the business life and providing support in crisis situations [5]. In order to improve the role of the mentor it is required to organise knowledge, search for fields of experience, which may be valuable to others, thinking about and being aware of own mistakes, difficult situations, obstacles in one's own career and taking time to consider the methods of coping with them.

A particular case is the individual managerial coaching, during which experienced coaches provide the managers with assistance in achieving their own goals using their own abilities, help in analysing difficulties and handling emotions, which allows for the development of the most beneficial working methods. It is important to adhere to the basic rules of coaching, in particular shaping a relationship of trust between the learner and the coach. While introducing coaching, the leaders often make the following mistakes: (1) meetings with employees are not organised frequently enough, usually only when a problem has already appeared, (2) picking on employees, inability to provide constructive criticism, (3) forcing own solutions.

In some organisations coaching is just a fashionable slogan. It must be remembered that without the proper understanding of its essence, creating a culture of organisation and proper preparation of coaches, this method will not bring any results. If it is applied professionally, coaching guarantees an optimum utilisation of the employees' potential and is a basis for learning within the organisation. Also the development of already possessed competences and adjusting them to changing conditions may be a subject
of coaching [5]. In the case of improving leadership skills, coaching usually focuses on skills such as: communicating, motivating oneself and others, effective decision making, developing creativity, time planning, managing emotions, coping with stress, increasing the effectiveness of learning and handling crisis situations.

One of the types of coaching is the so-called "fast coaching" i.e. ad hoc training. This may be an effective method for supporting the development of some competences and professional skills in limited time conditions (e.g. in the case of sales representatives or customer service employees). Fast coaching is pragmatic and concentrates on finding solutions for a particular problem. The advantage of fast coaching is increasing the independence of employees by developing an ability to solve problems on their own and with low time consumption [5].

Management and leadership are separate notions, however the elements in the relationship between the leader and the subordinate coexist, are interconnected and supplement each other without excluding any of them. Therefore, coaching [3] is in the first place a discussion with the employee about the ways in which they want to achieve the goals set for the team by utilising his own potential.

Coaching is also the stance of the leader who does not suggest or force solutions but allows the team to take initiative and act according to its own ideas. Coaching also involves providing feedback in a way that is not seen as a punishment for the employee, but allows them to see a different point of view and motivates to change the behaviour or approach to a problem. In the coaching process, the manager also performs the function of a coach or a tutor and such relations have a positive effect on the employee's development. This is an investment that yields long-term benefits.

A positive aspect of coaching is also the ability to distribute tasks. The main barrier in using coaching is most often the lack of time, fear of the leader of losing his position or lack of appropriate skills required to perform the function of a coach [3], [5].
Structure a Coaching Session

Summary
Support others through coaching and ongoing guidance. Coaching is all about helping people GROW.

Goal
- Agree the topic for discussion
- Agree specific objectives for the session
- Assess their competence and commitment

Reality
- Invite self-assessment
- Ask for specific examples of feedback
- Challenge misconceptions/assumptions
- Discard irrelevant history/descriptions

Options
- Keep asking the individual for more possibilities
- Invite suggestions from the other person
- Offer suggestions from the other person
- Help them identify role models

Wrap up
- Ensure the individual chooses to commit to action
- Identify possible obstacles
- Make steps specific and define timing
- Agree support

Figure 6.1. GROW Model

Use open ended questions to enable the other person to discover the answers for themselves.
6.2. PRACTICAL TOOLS

The following list is of 54 best practices that are associated with the leadership style that most people are looking for:

**TO MATCH CANDIDATES' EXPECTATIONS WITH WORK REALITIES:**

1. Conduct realistic job previews with every job candidate.
2. Hire from a pool of temp, adjunct staff, interns and part-time workers.
3. Hire candidates referred by current employees.
4. Create a realistic job description with a short list of most critical competencies.
5. Allow team members to interview candidates.
6. Hire from pool of current employees.
7. Create a way for candidates to "sample" the work experience.
8. Survey or interview new hires to find out how to minimise new-hire surprises in the future.

**TO MATCH THE PERSON TO THE JOB:**

9. Make a strong commitment to the continuous upgrading of talent.
10. See that all hiring managers perform talent forecasting and success-factor analysis.
11. Cast a wide recruiting net to expand the universe of best-fit candidates.
12. Follow a purposeful and rigorous interview process.
13. Track measures of hiring success.

**TO MATCH THE TASK TO THE PERSON:**

14. Conduct "entrance interviews" with all new hires.
15. Work to enrich the jobs of all employees.
16. Delegate tasks to challenge employees and enrich jobs.
TO PROVIDE COACHING AND FEEDBACK:

17. Provide intensive feedback and coaching to new hires.
18. Create a culture of continuous feedback and coaching.
20. Make performance management process less controlling and more of a partnership.
21. Terminate non-performers when best efforts to coach or reassign don't pay off.
22. Hold managers accountable for coaching and giving feedback.

TO PROVIDE CAREER ADVANCEMENT AND GROWTH OPPORTUNITIES:

23. Provide self-assessment tools and career self-management training for all employees.
24. Offer career coaching tools and training for all managers.
25. Provide readily accessible information on career paths and competency requirements.
26. Create alternatives to traditional career ladders.
27. Keep employees informed about the company's strategy, direction, and talent need forecasts.
28. Build and maintain a fair and efficient internal job-posting process.
29. Show clear preference for hiring from within.
30. Eliminate human resources policies and management practices that block internal movement.
31. Create a strong mentoring culture.
32. Keep career development and performance appraisal processes separate.
33. Build an effective talent review and succession management process.
34. Maintain a strong commitment to employee training.
TO MAKE EMPLOYEES FEEL VALUED AND RECOGNISED:

35. Offer competitive base pay linked to value creation.
36. Reward results with variable pay aligned with business goals.
37. Reward employees at a high enough level to motivate higher performance.
38. Use cash payouts for on-the-spot recognition.
39. Involve employees and encourage two-way communication when designing new pay systems.
40. Monitor the pay system to ensure fairness, efficiency, consistency and accuracy.
41. Create a culture of informal recognition founded on sincere appreciation.
42. Make new hires feel welcome and important.
43. Ask for employee input, then listen and respond.
44. Keep employees in the loop.
45. Provide the right tools and resources.
46. Keep the physical environment fit to work in.

TO REDUCE STRESS FROM WORK/LIFE IMBALANCE AND OVERWORK:

47. Initiate a culture of "giving before getting."
48. Tailor the culture of giving to the needs of key talent.
49. Build a culture that values spontaneous acts of caring.
50. Build social connectedness and cohesion among employees.
51. Encourage fun in the workplace.

TO INSPIRE TRUST AND CONFIDENCE IN SENIOR LEADERS:

52. Inspire confidence in a clear vision, a workable plan and the competence to achieve it.
53. Back up words with actions.
54. Place your trust and confidence in your workforce.
6.3. OBJECTIVE SETTING

The best, most motivating objectives are not imposed from above, but when the individual recognises the need for action.

OBJECTIVES SHOULD:
- Be fine tuned and agreed in individual meetings.
- Clarify and define the major tasks or areas of work expected over the next 12 months.
- Be attractive in their own right.
- Not be generalised and woolly, but very specific.
- Define measurable standards for everything.
- Be the most appropriate objectives for the individual and for the business.
- Be ranked in order of importance.
- Be the ones that the individual will feel committed to achieving.

REMEMBER TO:
- Hang on to the fact that objectives are about development as well as performance.
- Build in provision for regular feedback.
- Plan and encourage the individual to give it advanced thought.

SMART OBJECTIVES:
Make sure that the objectives you set are SMART objectives - Specific, Measurable, Achievable/Agreed, Realistic and Time Framed.
✓ Specific
- Relate to a single desired result. Do not have several objectives incorporated into one. Make sure the people who must achieve them understand them.

✓ Measurable
- Specify quantity - dates, percentages, numbers or intervals to be achieved. Or specify quality - quote or specify a standard required, or refer to customer surveys or responses.

✓ Achievable/Agreed
- Achievable with the resources available to the individual
- You and the individual must agree objectives, as being relevant to the business, the team and the individual’s current job and future development needs.

✓ Realistic
- Balancing the needs of the business and the individual
- The number of objectives will vary from person to person, but realistically a maximum of seven is sufficient.

✓ Time Framed
- Objectives need actions to be achieved by a specified date and timeframes agreed with the individual.
6.4. GIVING FEEDBACK

Good quality feedback should have the following characteristics:

- **It should be specific**
  - Broad or general comments that are positive can be helpful in creating a positive relationship - “that was a good report” - but are less helpful to a person in knowing exactly what it is that is being praised - “what I particularly liked was that it was well structured, with clear and concise recommendations for action etc”.
  - Broad or general negative comments are unhelpful in building relationships or changing behaviour.

- **It should be timely**
  - As close to the event as possible with the proviso that it should take account of the readiness of the recipient to receive it.
  - Putting your feedback off makes it much less valuable.

- **It should be behaviourally based**
  - The most helpful feedback describes what the person has done rather than what they are.
  - Positive comments about the persons “being” - “I like you, you are a really friendly person” - may serve to create a positive relationship but are less helpful in shaping behaviour.
  - Negative personal comments “You don’t seem to have the ability” - are destructive and should be avoided at all times.

- **It should be forward looking and constructive**
  - Always consider what it is that needs to be done differently (or again) both now and in the future.

- **It should be accurate and based on observable "evidence"**
  - Try to avoid simply giving an opinion.
  - Ensure that you have all the relevant facts and can give concrete examples.

- **It should be honest and supportive**
  - Honest means your real reaction.
  - You can be gentle, saying what you need to say without causing damage or defensiveness.

- **It should be given in small amounts, regularly**
  - Don’t wait for annual appraisal time and store up feedback to give in one load.
Appraisals should contain no surprises. They are merely a “stock take” of the year’s performance.

**It should be balanced**
- It should reflect both the balance of job performance and the needs of the individual.
- However feedback which concentrates solely on the positive and ignores areas for improvement, is not helpful to neither the individual nor the organisation, in the long run.
- Everyone has areas of their job performance that can be improved and it is important for the development manager to help the individual recognise these.
- Over focus on the negative will create a climate of caution, and an unwillingness to admit shortcomings and learn from them.
- Feedback should reflect the balance of performance in the role.
- Positive feedback is often under-utilised in developing a healthy climate where mistakes can be treated as learning opportunities.

**It should protect self-esteem**
- It is important to preserve or enhance a positive self-image in the individual.
- A defensive reaction is likely if self-esteem is damaged through insensitive feedback.
- Defensiveness is unlikely to result in change, improvement or willingness to act and take responsibility.

**6.5. QUESTIONING**

Ideally questions should flow within the meeting and follow a logical sequence. The Development Manager should try to link the questions with what the individual has just said to demonstrate that they have been listening and help the meeting to flow - “you seem to have achieved a number of successes recently. Tell me what you consider to be your greatest success”. When changing to a new topic the Mentor should try to summarise and use linking statements to move on to the next topic, rather than abruptly changing the line of questioning.
FUNNELLING
Questioning during development meetings should consist of open questions followed by probing questions until the Mentor has obtained enough detail about a particular area. A series of open questions with little probing, is likely to lead to a bland meeting, with little specific information on which to base decisions.

AN EXAMPLE OF FUNNELLING:
− Tell me about your main responsibilities on this project
− How did you go about organising yourself?
− How did you establish responsibilities?
− What steps did you take to ensure the project was completed on time?
− How did you deal with that situation?

6.6. USEFUL QUESTIONS FOR COACHING INDIVIDUALS THROUGH SPECIFIC TOPICS

GOALS:
− What is it you would like to discuss?
− What would you like to achieve?
− What do you need to happen for you to walk away, feeling that your time was well spent?
− How much personal control do you have over your goal?
− How will you know when you have achieved it?
− When do you want to achieve it by?
− Is that realistic?

REALITY
− What is happening at the moment?
− When does this happen?
− Who is involved (directly/indirectly)?
− What happens to you?
− What happens to the others involved?
− What is their perception of the situation?
− What have you done so far?
− What effect did that have?
− What is missing in the situation?
− What do you have that you are not using?
− What is holding you back?

OPTIONS
− What could you do to change the situation?
− What alternatives are there?
− What approaches have you used in similar situations?
− Who might be able to help?
− What would a wise old friend suggest?
− What options are of interest to you?

WHAT NEXT?
− What are the next steps?
− Will this address your goal?
− Precisely when will you take them?
− What might get in the way?
− How will you ensure that it happens?
− Who needs to know?
− What support do you need?
− How will you get that support?
− Rate on a scale of 1-10 your motivation to take this agreed action.
− What do you need to do to get it to a 10?
6.7. BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER 7

TEAM DYNAMICS

(K. KOSY, M. KSIĄŻEK)

7.1. INTRODUCTION

Research shows that teams generally outperform individuals and over the last decade they have become increasingly popular. Some of the benefits of utilising teams within an organisation are as follows:

− Enhanced competitive advantage for the organisation,
− Improved productivity,
− Improved quality and encouragement of innovation,
− Taking advantage of the opportunities provided by technological advances,
− Improved employee motivation, commitment and satisfaction,
− Improved trust and respect for individual members through synergy and shared goals.

Using teams therefore utilises employee ability more efficiently, which may reduce the costs for an organisation. Teams are more flexible and responsive to changes in the external and internal environments. Teams tend to facilitate involvement and are effective in democratising an organisation and increasing motivation.

What is a team and how does it differ from a group? Many scholars use these terms interchangeably, often without understanding that they are defined differently. Although there are similarities between groups and teams, there are also significant differences. In fact, all teams are groups – but not every group is a team. There are certain characteristics of a team that can make a real difference to organisational effectiveness. A team is a group who work interdependently in order to achieve a specified, mutually agreed goal. To become team, three important distinguishing factors must be met:

− Interdependency of members, where each relies on the others in some way,
− Shared goals that all the members agree to work towards,
− Synergy – the combined efforts of a team are considered to be better than the sum of every individual’s contribution, so the team becomes an identifiable entity in its own right.

Each member of a team has a specific role that means the mutual goal can be achieved, with each member contributing a different, but crucial part. Selection processes are necessary as members of a team need to have appropriate competences to bring to the task. For example, a project team for building a new hotel would need to select people with the skills necessary for the job (i.e. architect, quantity surveyor, consulting engineer, construction manager, mechanical and electrical engineers). When these individuals are put together and work interdependently, the whole can become a successful project. There also needs to be mutual knowledge and understanding. In the hotel project, for example, all members will know the specifications for the hotel and the clients’ needs and expectations. In such teams there may be instances of shared or rotating leadership rather than one overall leader, and this may change depending on the stage of the project.

7.1.1. TYPES OF TEAMS

In order to gain all the benefits of a team working in an organisation, different types of teams will be formed once the organisational goal has been established. The use of different groups may also depend on the context of the working environment. Teams and working groups may be differentiated according to whether they are formal or informal, which usually depend on whether they have been created by the organisation or self-selected. Informal groups may be termed as interest groups, where people voluntarily share common interests, or friendship groups, which are formed to satisfy social needs. More recently, those who have a need or desire to share knowledge or develop their learning through shared experiences have become known as communities of practice. Teams may be classified into the following types:
− Self managed work teams,
− Cross cultural teams,
− Research and development teams,
− Problem solving teams,
− Cross-functional teams,
− Task force or command groups,
− Virtual teams,
− Communities of practice.
In self-managed work teams, each team member has the authority or autonomy to achieve their specific component of the task or agreed team goal. The team is given the freedom and empowerment to undertake the task, so the team as a whole becomes mutually responsible for the outcome. Obviously, the management team and organisation has to be committed to allow the team to develop and learn through its own decision-making processes and mistakes. Management should provide the appropriate framework and structure to support the team and appoint clearly defined tasks so the teams can succeed. Many large companies now use self-managed work teams. They are argued to improve productivity and quality of performance as the team members assume the tasks collectively and so there is no need for a leader. Such teams are more likely to be cross-trained to perform any task in a project.

Cross-cultural teams have become common practice in many companies. However, some research has identified that the cultural differences in such teams may cause a number of difficulties, including conflict, misunderstanding and poor performance. Contrary to such reports, more and more companies run successful cross-cultural teams with multinational management teams, which suggests that cultural diversity does not necessarily lead to poor performance. Cultural diversity may even present an advantage by giving managers a broader range of perspectives for managing complex cultural systems.

Research and development teams are normally used where there is a need for specialist expertise and knowledge to develop innovative products or approaches. These teams are usually employee-driven and are formed on the basis of members’ creativity, knowledge and experience in a given field. R&D teams can often become overly subscribed and can be too large, in which case:

- People spend more time in communicating knowledge to others than applying their own knowledge to solving problems or being innovative,
- People’s individual performance is reduced,
- Team performance decreases.

Problem solving teams are often brought together to solve one particular problem. They might, for instance, discuss ways of improving quality and efficiency. The team may consist of individuals from the same department, or a group of people pulled together from several departments to solve a more strategic problem.
7.1.2. TEAM CREATION – SOCIALISATION THEORIES

The process through which group norms are adopted (or rejected) is known as group socialisation. It is characterised by four stages of development, plus a fifth stage after completion.

1. **Forming** is the first stage, where members are beginning to establish interpersonal relationships, conforming to standards and boundary testing in different relationships. It is the stage when they are establishing how people should behave and so norms will start to be created.

2. **Storming** is the second stage, where conflict is likely to arise because of differences in personality, learning or cultures. This is the breaking-in stage where there may be resistance to group influence and task requirements, or there may be power struggles for control or leadership of the group.

3. **Norming** is the settling-in stage, where often a single leader emerges and how they should behave towards each other.

4. **Performing** is the stage of development where members should be interacting well enough to be effectively performing their tasks together, roles should be well-established.

5. **Adjourning** applies to groups who have completed their task or fulfilled their aims; for example who have produced the new product or building. As member turnover changes, the initial group may disband to be reformed to include newcomers, and then the development process starts again.

![Figure 7.1. Team creation](image-url)

- Building initial rapport & openness
- Listening
- Setting groundrules & confidentiality agreement
- Gaining credibility
7.1.3. TEAMWORK PHENOMENONS

GROUP KNOWS MORE
Knowledge and potential of individual members of the group sums up in this way that the group can solve more problems that could be solved by a separate individual employee. In solving specific tasks the group can find new possibilities. Group knowledge is greater than the sum of the knowledge of individuals.

GROUP PROMOTES
Increases the level of performance of individual employees, the requirements posed, and the sense of the interests of the team.

GROUP ALIGNS
A single worker can be more subjective to emotional stress and a smaller range of knowledge. The group helps in relation to emotion and is therefore more objective.

GROUP THINKING
Begins to count more examples of group cohesion and solidarity between its members than the reality of work and ideas created, which might lead to suppress essential facts and making wrong decisions.

SOCIAL IDLENESS
The weakening of the results of the team due to impossibility of performance evaluation of its individual members, especially when there is a simpler task.

GROUP POLARISATION
The tendency to take more extreme decisions by the team than the initial beliefs of its individual members.

COMMUNICATION DIFFICULTIES
In their sources are usually poorly developed communication systems, excessive noise, lack of openness to the arguments of others, excessive emotions and different understanding of the terms of the whole situation.

CONFLICTS
Mainly due to the need to share limited resources, poorly defined division of labour, differences of individual approach and occupying different positions.

THE STRUGGLE FOR POWER
Concerns emerging leaders in the team itself or candidates for this position.
7.2. GROUP DYNAMICS

7.2.1. FORMING OF A GROUP

The group dynamics reflect the patterns of the functioning of the group. It includes the modes of division of influence, communication, performance and assumption of roles, loyalty and many others. A group allows its members to share experience and to receive feedback. This is where ideas are born and created, experiences are analysed, and thoughts and emotions are shared. A team can give its members support and self-confidence, and its members are able to plan successfully the activities aimed at change. A group process starts when several people meet in the same place in order to achieve common goals and assumptions – this is the stage of group-forming, and the final result is the decision, made by an individual, to participate in the group [11]. A group can be defined through social mechanisms, which are initiated when the team creates a community, for which:

- a common goal is defined,
- specific standards of action are established,
- typical roles are assigned to individual group members,
- a specific language of the group emerges (communication).
The term “group” may also be included in the description of such features as the size, role, status, goal of the group, interactions and norms. These, of course, are of key significance for the first phase of group dynamics. The smaller the group, the more smoothly it progresses through the subsequent development phases.

Every new person complicates the communication processes in the team and interferes with interactions, as well as the decision-making, problem-solving and role-defining processes. Therefore, for the so-called task groups, the optimum size is 4 to 6 members [11].

7.2.2. OBJECTIVE OF EXISTENCE OF THE GROUP

A group is usually formed to achieve a specific goal, and its development is possible thanks to the task, which is to be performed for this purpose. Newly established groups usually focus on the task to be performed. Entering a group, individual members are initially focused on themselves, their roles and their expectations towards the team; they assess others and observe their behaviours, as well as the leader. Despite the common goal, the social dimension rarely plays a significant role in the beginning. However, it is decisive for coherence of the group, for closeness of relations between its members. If a group is not coherent, it will be very difficult to persuade its members to achieve the objective defined and vice versa: a group, which is successful in its actions, becomes more coherent and relations between its members become more friendly. On the other hand, the objective of the group is a factor which integrates its members and motivates them strongly to participate in it [11].

The group objective, in other words, defines the conditions that are most desirable from the perspective of its existence – what the participants have to know, what they are to learn and what effects they are to achieve. Specific and difficult objectives are more motivating. However, the level of difficulty of the task should be adapted to the abilities of the group members. An optimum objective, taking into account the appropriate theoretical assumptions, provides the possibility of effective functioning of individuals in the group, and thus – satisfaction associated with the task performed. According to the theory of motivation [19], the basic source of motivation for group activity is the willingness to achieve the goal.
7.2.3. WHO IS WHO IN THE GROUP

During the early phase of the existence of the group, mutual interactions between the members are rather superficial, often insincere and careful. Typical early conversations pertain mainly to the social sphere – the weather, a travel route, a movie. These serve as a background for the first interactions in the team, which will influence the entire scope of its functioning. Knowledge of interaction possibilities allows for management of these, if we understand the inevitability of their emergence. [14] presents a detailed plan for analysis of group interactions, including:

- Relieving of emotional tension, joking, showing satisfaction;
- Indicating solidarity with others, elevation of position of another person, granting assistance, rewarding;
- Suggesting, giving others autonomy;
- Passive acceptance, submission, giving permission;
- Providing information, explaining, repeating;
- Asking for opinions, analysis, assessments;
- Enquiries and requests for information, repeating and explanations;
- Enquiries and asking for suggestions;
- Disagreement, rejection of suggestions made by others;
- Showing emotional tension, withdrawal from the group
- Disclosure of antagonisms, reduction of positions of others, demanding appreciation, defense [14].

The role of a group leader is based mainly on modelling of the scope and quality of interactions in a given team. Due to the fact that the first impression can only be made once, it is important to make sure that from the very beginning, the group is perceived as a friendly place for the individual. It is much easier to solve the potential conflicts in a group of people that we know a lot about, when they become closer to us, being able to talk about what is important for them, what they like or what sets of values they apply at work. Personal information serves as a basis for the newly emerging standards of action in a given group, which, in such case, are rooted in personal beliefs and not in the general rules of functioning in the society. Preliminary standards are usually followed by the group until the first objection emerges, enforcing changes. To some people, joining a group may be a source of stress. The emotional burden of the initiation process may be mitigated quite easily (the group members will treat it as something normal), for instance, if attractiveness of the group is raised according to the rule [14]: "If I have
managed .... to become a member of this group, it means it is surely attractive for me.” Additionally, attractiveness of the group may serve as a basis for construction of a specific mode of action, which, at the same time, contributes to building of its coherence and distinguishing features and strengthening of mutual loyalty between the members. The role played in the group is a set of expected behaviours, described on two levels [16]. The first level consists of expectations in terms of behaviours, considered by a given person to be appropriate for a given role, while the second level consists of social expectations associated with the role, or the behaviours assigned to this role by the community [11].

In the preliminary phase of group-forming, the people simply do not know what their roles are, since they are not entirely sure how they will be perceived by others. Group members often present the following attitude: others are more competent than me, they will assess me, they will find out how little I know. Only after the atmosphere of trust and openness is established, the group members discover that others have their weaknesses and competence gaps as well, and the disclosure of these does not diminish the value of a given person, perceived by others. In many cases, the roles assumed by individual group members, at the very beginning of its existence, are based on their earlier experience (e.g. of participation in other teams). Moreover, if a certain person has always acted as an observer, and they felt safe in this role, in a new group, they will also tend to activate behaviours, leading to assumption of this favourite role as well. Task-oriented roles are associated strictly with the task to be completed by the group and they pertain to practical functions performed by individual group members, such as the initiator, the adviser, the reviewer, the one searching for ideas, the one searching for information. Each role is assigned to a different individual. It is important to make sure that individual behaviours are complementary, and that during performance of tasks, all competences of the group members are activated. Individual roles (interfering with the group) are rooted in the assumption that a given person is focused on achievement of their own, sometimes non-conscious objectives without taking into consideration the group interest. As a result, there are conflicts and disturbances within the team. As this process is very much energy-consuming, it hinders the performance of common tasks, leading to disorganisation and a certain ‘paresis’ of the group. The most often encountered types of individual roles include: aggressor (leading to conflicts with others), non-peaceable (undermines all agreements, failing to give consent to any solution), dominant (interested only in their own solutions), searching for recognition (attracting attention by appearing wherever they can show themselves as participating in the group success) and provoking (focusing the attention on themselves only) [11]. Social roles refer mostly to building
of the atmosphere in the group. They are associated with rewards and punishments for specific behaviours (helping and praising), relieving of tension (safety valve) or compliance with principles of equality (searching for consent and harmony). These roles are also assigned to individual persons in the group. Social roles gain significant importance in the group norming phase. In a given team, all roles are specific and may change as we shift from community to community. According to [18], roles played by the individual are one of the most significant factors determining our behaviours. It means that people often behave in a way that has been learned; as a result, they tend to play similar roles in subsequent groups that they join. Thus, a role is considered to consist of repeating behaviours of the group members, which are always disclosed in the same way in the groups [4].

7.2.4. TYPICAL ROLES IN A FUNCTIONING GROUP

The most popular types of roles in literature, and the rules of their practical use for creation of effectively functioning groups and management of these have been proposed by [2]. The most often encountered types of behaviours in the group process include: the organiser, the leader, the shaper, the plant, the resource investigator, the monitor-evaluator, the team worker, the completer finisher and the specialist. The organiser (implementer) – turns concepts and plans into practice, implementing the assumptions made in a systematic and effective manner. Practical, able to cooperate, focused on action. Key traits: balance, sense of duty, practical approach. They may express doubts with regard to effectiveness of new ideas and changes. She/he got common sense. They contribute to the implementation of projects, plans and objectives of the group. The leader (coordinator) – controls the ways in which the group attempts to achieve objectives, is able to make good use of the team resources, recognises the strengths and weaknesses of the group. They are able to take advantage of individual potential of all team members. Key traits: balanced, dominant. They tend to show common sense rather than engage in intellectual debates. Not aggressive as a manager. The shaper – shapes the way in which the efforts of the group are used, focuses directly on definition of objectives and priorities, wants to influence the group discussion and the effects of team activity. Key traits: restless, dominant, impulsive, easily irritated. Very tense, dynamic, defines challenges, willing to overcome inertia, self-content and lack of activity. Eager to see the effects quickly. They compete with others, are sometimes arrogant, but able to motivate the group to move on. The plant (thinker) – suggests new concepts and strategies with particular emphasis on the key issues, attempts to 'promote' their vision in confrontation
with the group approach to the problem. Key traits: dominant, individualist, unconventional. Making good use of their knowledge, imagination and intellect; however, they sometimes lose sight of the details and make mistakes or criticise the ideas of others. The more serious the problem, the more eager they are to solve it. They believe that all good ideas are seen as 'strange' at the beginning. Acting as a genius. The resource investigator – examines, analyses and quotes information on ideas, the state of knowledge and activities outside the group, establishes external relationships, which may be useful for the team. Able to negotiate. Key traits: balanced, dominant, enthusiast, good communication skills, thirst of knowledge. They support innovations, are able to improvise. Sometimes cynical when searching for group profits. Able to communicate with others and discover the new paths, they respond well to challenges. Quickly disinterested after the phase of early fascination. They believe that the opportunity for action emerges as a result of the mistakes of others. The monitor-evaluator – analyses the problem, assesses ideas and suggestions, providing the group with a better starting point for the decision-making process. Key traits: balanced, careful, emotionally detached. Able to assess coolly, discrete, practical, not sentimental. The most objective, neutral and reserved team member; they like to have enough time to consider the problem. They may lack the skills, inspirations and abilities to motivate others and they are not enthusiasts; calmness allows them to make well thought-out decisions. The team worker – focused on the social aspects of work, gentle and sensitive. Supportive towards other group members. Able to prevent conflicts, if any faults or problems emerge. They shape the atmosphere in the group, strengthen cooperation and improve communication; loyal towards others. Key traits: balanced, little motivation to dominate and to compete with others, high level of empathy. Sometimes, in crisis situations, indecisive; does not like confrontations, they may find it difficult to express their views clearly and to make decisions. The completer/finisher – focused on a specific effect, that is, on completion of the task in a specific time, ensuring the highest possible standard of performance. They may find it difficult to communicate with others, being strongly opposed to incidental events – everything has to be planned to the slightest detail; as a result, not able to deal with things which are not of utmost importance for the completion of the task. Always aware of the objective. Key traits: restless, tense, disciplined. Able to reach the desired results, meticulous, thorough and well-organised. The specialist – deals with a narrow section of work. Focused on technical details. They show great commitment to the performance of tasks. Key traits: focused on the objective, committed, self-motivating. They have the knowledge and skills, which may be rare and very valuable for the group. They may fail to see the entire picture,
focusing on the narrow field of their own activities. According to [2], [13], each group needs balance to operate effectively, thanks to the functioning of all the roles within. Moreover, in every group, every member assumes a single, preferred role; if any role is missing, the group generates it spontaneously. Such role is taken over by the person most predisposed to assume it. Sometimes, the roles assumed protect the group members against the repeating of a difficult or painful experience of the past (such as rejection); however, these are not constructive for the team [11].

7.2.5. BEHAVIOURS IN THE GROUP

In every group of people, as a result of mutual interactions, patterns of behaviours (social norms) emerge spontaneously. A group norm can be characterised as a pattern of behaviour, approved by the team and treated as obligatory, reached as a result of mutually exerted pressure [11]. Creation of group norms may be rooted in the need to foresee the future situations, as well as to understand the so-called 'rules of the game', which allow for optimum actions to be taken (knowledge of what is allowed and what is not). In the first phase of functioning, a given group usually takes advantage of similar social and communication norms. Compliance with the shared, clearly established norms gives the group members a sense of security, allowing them to focus on the objective, which is of key significance to the group, and not on their individual fears and concerns. The preliminary group norms tend to change over time, they are modified and adapted to the needs of the group – after some time, the group establishes its own norms. Early responses and behaviours set the standards of behaviour; for instance, if several people come late to the first meeting of the group, we can expect that the lack of an adequate response will be interpreted as acceptance of the lack of timeliness, which will result in the emergence of the risk of further disorganisation of work.

7.2.6. RELATIONSHIPS IN A GROUP

During the first phase of the functioning of the team, individual members watch each other, assess others, diagnose their own level of competences in the context of those of others. In relations inside the group, two aspects are of significance: trust and team integrity which is rooted in it. Integrity can be described as the strength of positive interpersonal links, based on trust and sympathy. According to [4], a group is characterised by strong integrity,
if its members tend to remain close to one another and want to remain in the group. Unfortunately, the conviction that a group is held together by the fact that its members like each other, often proves to be wrong. There are many groups, in which the members dislike each other very strongly, and still the team is coherent. According to [21], decisive for integrity of the group is the idea on which the members are focused, or the extent to which they identify themselves with the key traits and aspirations of the concept. In practice, it means that people do not have to like other group members for their personal traits, but for the fact that they are on the same side as group members, contributing towards the performance of a given task. Undoubtedly, trust is also a factor, which influences the good functioning of the group and its effectiveness in action. Trust emerges over time, as the group members get to know each other better, their behaviours become repetitive, according to the observed coherence between their declarations and actions. Trust increases as the group develops [11].

7.2.7. DECISION OF THE INDIVIDUAL TO JOIN A GROUP

Joining a group may require redefinition of the identity of a given person, which, in turn, influences their self-perception. The process of joining the group is a stressful situation in itself. Every individual joining a new group does so with fear and hope; usually, nobody knows how to behave, what to do or say; at the same time, everyone does their best to make the impression of being relaxed and calm. Every new group member feels that they are the only one feeling unconfident. It is a very typical phenomenon, which is always associated with emergence of groups (the so-called preliminary tension). The source of this tension is rooted in the low level of trust, as well as the suspected tendency of some individuals to assume power and to become ‘autocratic rulers’. There are many other factors as well, which are responsible for the tension: expectations, amendment of the auto-definition and sometimes initiation in the group.

Individuals, who are group members, expect such membership to be associated with maximum rewards at a minimum level of cost. These results may be both emotional and material. The participants try to assess what they can receive from the group and what will be expected from them in exchange. The expectations are strongly connected with motivation to participate in the group and to make the effort to perform tasks. Willingness to participate in the group may be related to the motivation theory [8], according to which motivation to work in a group is a function of results of an activity, desired by the individual, and expectations with regard to achievement of these results.
Involvement of an individual in a group is thus due to the perception of achievement of individual success in a given group. The strength of determination for achievement of the goal, which may be referred to as “success”, is influenced by external, interactive and internal factors [19]. The external factors include the authorities, co-workers and the system of rewards and punishments. The internal factors – the expectation to succeed. Every result of an action has a certain value, assigned to it by the individual; it is an emotional response, which may be positive (the result is attractive), negative (the result is not attractive) or equal to zero (the individual remains indifferent to the result achieved). A feature associated with expectation of success is the sense of one’s own competences. The fact of expecting that a certain action will bring desirable results is of little importance, if at the same time, the individual is convinced that they are not able to carry out this action [11].

A very significant social phenomenon is also the interdependence of the group members. It means the impact of experiences, activities and results of the individual on the experiences and the activities and results of other team members. This is related both to interdependence on the fate and the task to be performed by the group [4]. Random interdependence is usually a situation in which a group is facing a task, and achievements of each person generate consequences for the achievements of others. This pertains mainly to teams, in which the sense of their existence is a common goal or task. When working together, people overcome the existing barriers and establish naturally informal relations. As a result, the team starts to function in a specific social dimension, and the initial stress associated with the fact of joining a new group gradually diminishes, and the team members reach a sense of agreement by working together and interacting with one another. If a group succeeds together, it becomes eager to continue cooperation in a positive atmosphere. Group achievements allow the group members to understand their competences for performance of other tasks in the future. The impact of success or failure of a group impacts the positive image of each member. This is because the fact of becoming a group member has serious consequences for the way we see ourselves, for instance, through the roles assumed in the group and the ways in which they are performed. As the group develops, the significance of the role played in the group increases, and the group expects the individual to behave in a way typical for the group assumed and, at the same time, respond to the individual in a manner consistent with the stereotypical response to a given role. Unfortunately, relationships in groups are determined by stereotypes by legitimisation of the existing inequalities between group members. There is also the phenomenon of the threat of stereotypisation [1], [11]. It usually refers to a negative stereotype, which the individual wants
to counteract willingly. It means that if someone is aware of a negative stereotype, associated with their social group, they should express opposing behaviours, which contradict a given stereotype. A person, who is afraid to express a given behaviour, which confirms a given stereotype, focuses on this behaviour so much that the associated fear makes it impossible for this person to function naturally in the group, which, paradoxically, confirms the stereotype. A group will be able to function and develop properly only if a positive climate is established, effective procedures for cooperation are defined, original ideas emerge and the members are able to learn from one another [11].

7.2.8. TASKS OF THE GROUP LEADER

The group leader should take into account the fact that at every stage of group forming, it is necessary to build an atmosphere of trust and acceptance, involving the members in problem-solving processes. Otherwise, the potential of individual group members will not be used, and their motivation to perform tasks and to cooperate will be low. Even in coherent groups, individual members impact the way of functioning of the leader – for instance, through their behaviours, they may shape the procedures of open communication, creative criticism and effective problem-solving. A single creative individual may introduce a new quality in the team, stimulate creation of an informal group, which will generate its own, innovative patterns and norms of behaviour. The bigger the group, the stronger will be its impact on the group leader, on the group culture and the internal procedures. Thus, the group leader should in the first place take care of: regular communication of the tasks to be performed by the group; clarification of any ambiguities (vague expressions, objectives, differences in perception of the objective, modes of solving problems leads to uncertainty and difficulties in group cooperation); mobilising individual group members to work on behalf of the group; controlling discussions which have nothing to do with the task; careful consideration of problems reported by the participants; active listening; proper management of time and organisation of performance of tasks; indication and emphasising of good ideas, ability to recognise small steps that contribute to the performance of the tasks; good information flow; elimination of unhealthy criticism of statements of individual group members; ability to foresee problems and to protect the group against risks [11].
7.3. A STORM IN THE GROUP

During the second phase of development of the group, emotional resistance against the group demands can be observed. Conflicts of interest are revealed in the team. This results in tension, which – if it is relieved constructively – will result in emergence of relationships that consist of the sense of belonging to the group [11].

7.3.1. RESISTANCE IN THE GROUP

People can be divided into those who have a high self-esteem and those who have a low self-esteem. Our social identity, or the sense of what we are worth, or, in other words, of how much we are worth, is associated strictly with group affiliation [4]. Fear of being assessed, of discovery of the “weak”, “dark”, “horrible”, “difficult” aspects of a given person may result in tension, expressed in a nonconscious manner as behaviours that provoke conflicts with other group members. The most frequently encountered problems, associated with identity of a group member, include [11]: fear of failure; concern of the level and quality of performance of the task; fear of shame; fear of lacking specific skills; embarrassment associated with being concerned about how others perceive our appearance; negative experience in other groups in the past; fear of the consequences of revealing oneself in front of a large group of people [11]. Fear of being assessed is observed most frequently among those people, whose sense of self-esteem and self-image are constructed on the basis of information and adapted opinions of others.

7.3.2. A CONFLICT IN A GROUP

Proper functioning of a group is necessary to make sure that individual group members are able to adapt and to create a positive atmosphere. However, every group process consists of the alternating phases of spontaneity and stagnation [27]. Stagnation due to resistance or fear may lead to a crisis, which, in turn, sooner or later will result in a conflict. Conflicts are rooted in the sense of injustice, although the team members do not have the courage to name it directly. The main reasons for conflict situations in a team include: individual
frustration of a group member; contradictory goals of participants; contradictory values of participants; competing for a position in the group; competing for favour of the group leader; disappointment in the way of functioning of the group; disappointment in behaviours of the group members; fear of new and difficult situations.

A conflict in a group allows for clear and open definition of the previously hidden differences and problems. It often happens that only during a storm, when negative emotions accumulate, one of the parties learns that there was a problem which could have been saved. The most frequently encountered symptoms of a storm coming to the team include:

− a decrease in motivation to act together,
− a decrease in the effectiveness of performance of the tasks,
− visible tension in relations in the group,
− visible antipathy between group members,
− allusions instead of direct communication.

In every group, there is a certain potential of conflict, which is a normal phase of development of the group. It is not possible for the group members to think in the same way and to have the same, unchanging scope of needs. It is important to make sure that the conflict contributes to development. An attempt to escape a conflict may, in fact, lead to a situation, in which the group is not performing effectively, being unable to face the problems maturely as they emerge. Unsolved problems may even lead to the destruction of the group [11].

7.3.3. TYPES OF CONFLICTS AND WAYS OF RESPONDING TO CONFLICTS

Every conflict has its source, which can be identified, if the symptoms are not disregarded. In the case of conflict of relations, indicated by a negative attitude towards others, it is necessary to search for the actual cause of the conflict through a discussion based on facts. Negative emotions lead to disfiguration of the image of the situation, as well as of interpretation of behaviours and intentions of the parties. A structural conflict, which is usually rooted in insufficiency of resources (e.g. not enough time, scarce resources, and schematically performed roles) may generate conflicts of interests. A conflict of interest is an inevitable, real conflict in the group development as the needs of the members of the group change. It is rooted in an inability to satisfy some of the needs: emotional (sense of self-worth, development, respect), material (money, job) and procedural (mode of solving
problems). On the other hand, a conflict of values cannot be solved, because it is rooted in the differences between the systems of values of individual team members. Therefore, any attempts to solve it in the group would be unreasonable. The way of responding to a conflict is very much determined by earlier experiences of the group members. One of the methods is the so-called avoidance, waiting until the conflict becomes solved spontaneously, regardless of the circumstances. On the other hand, when somebody intentionally acts in accordance with the interests of the other party and their expectations, we are dealing with the so-called adaptation. Responding to a conflict as “a game to be won with others regardless of the price” is known as competing. The most popular strategy of responding to a conflict is a compromise, which is the best form of functioning in a group. On the other hand, cooperation takes place when, as both parties to the conflict assume that their interests and needs are equally important, it is necessary to find a solution. In groups whose members are focused on cooperation, many good ideas usually emerge, analysed from the perspective of their strengths and weaknesses. This allows the group to assume responsibility for implementation of the solution, which has been considered to be the best choice in a given situation.

7.4. GROUP MANAGEMENT DURING THE STORM PHASE

Proper management of a group during the storm phase requires development of the rules of good communication between the members, which contributes towards constructive cooperation. Leadership in a group assumes that the leader attempts to exert impact in a given situation on the behaviours of the team members (who are subject to this impact) [11]. Therefore, it is very important to identify the psychosocial situation in the group, to assess the situation from the perspective of individual group members and to exert impact [28]. Emergence of conflicts is influenced, to a great extent, by certain personality types of the group members; as the number of these increases, so does the probability of conflicts in the group. According to [26], the team leader should have the following skills: ability to observe human behaviours; patience and empathy towards others; genuineness in relations with other people; an ability to think clearly and to draw proper conclusions; an ability to show
warmth and compassion; real respect for others; an ability to notice the positive traits of others and anability to relieve tensions.

7.5. NORMALISATION IN THE GROUP

Normalisation is the subsequent stage of development of the group. Thanks to constructive progress during the storm phase, the team is characterised by a high level of trust and integrity. Open communication contributes to the development of informal relations, and the group members become more self-confident in their actions. In conflict situations, the group members assume clear stances and they solve the problems that have emerged. Thus, commitment to group activity increases, and the members are convinced of their uniqueness and they feel that they provide each other with support. The so-called group thinking is dominant under these circumstances [11].

7.5.1. INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP IDENTITY

The building of individual identity in a group is possible whenever a given group member performs their role in the group. For good functioning of the group in which the roles are complementary, it is important to make sure that the styles of activity of individuals are coherent and consistent. This creates a sense of security thanks to the clarity and predictability of the structure. In such situation, it is clear what can be expected of a given person and what can be demanded of them. Every role has its strengths in terms of contribution to teamwork, as well as acceptable and unacceptable weaknesses. On the other hand, behaviours within the framework of group identity can be perceived, when the group participants are behaving in a coherent way, which means that they engage in interactions within the framework of behaviours that are typical for a given group, and not within the framework of their personal traits. However, when identification with the group becomes dominant in self-identification of the individual, this phenomenon is associated with a very serious risk of deindividuation [30]. Identity builds coherence in a group. It is important for the group to be convinced that cooperation will bring positive results. Successes always strengthen group coherence; paradoxically, failures do not have to bring the opposite effect. This is due to the fact that positive responses to negative results may be associated with developmental processes. Analysis of negative results, naming
of weaknesses and thorough examination of causes of a failure may offer an opportunity to develop new solutions, in which all group members will be involved – this will allow them to identify themselves with the group more strongly [11].

7.5.2. GROUP THINKING

Through its activity and diversity of ideas of the members, a group gathers knowledge and experience, which, naturally, should lead to a reduction in the number of faults and mistakes made. In practice, however, it turns out, that this does not have to be the case – on the contrary, exaggerated trust of the team in its knowledge and infallibility as well as above-average intelligence leads to wrong decisions and crises. A group which has gone through the phase of conflicts may be more focused on maintenance of good internal relations than on critical analysis of own ideas or different points of view. Group thinking is “a specific type of pathology, which often emerges in a group that makes decisions – a pathology, which has contributed greatly to some wrong decisions, which resulted in disastrous consequences” [11].

This way of thinking depends on the leadership style, particularly if the group leader has a strong personality. The group members do their best to satisfy the leader and to make sure that no conflict emerges. They refuse to accept any criticism, being convinced of their uniqueness; they tend to believe that the basic value and the binding agent that holds the group together is the fact that all of its members think the same. Even if anyone has any doubts with regard to the decisions being made, these are not reported; such person perceives them as unjustified, considering that smart people think otherwise and share the same views in this regard. The threat of emergence of the group thinking syndrome grows along with the level of coherence of the group (which the leader has nourished by the activities undertaken so far) and with the level of social status of individual group members. A situation, which influences the process of group thinking very strongly, is stress [25]. It is associated with the significance, complexity and time available for a decision to be made. The more significant a given decision, the stronger is the desire of the group to develop a unanimous conviction that it is right. Complexity of the decision offers an opportunity for manipulation of the meaning of facts. On the other hand, if the decision is to be made over a short period of time, the chances for emergence of inconsistent information or opinions increases. In a situation of group thinking, the decisions made are wrong and often bring serious consequences not only for the group members. In order to avoid the group
thinking syndrome, various points of view should be analyzed, isolation of the group should be prevented, “brainstorming” sessions should be organized and creativity of individual team members should be appreciated and promoted; it is also necessary to develop a safe platform for the exchange of views (without any pressure on conformism), and reaching of the final decision should be delayed (instead of acting under the pressure of time); it is also necessary to make sure that the final decision is not based on emotions. The position of the leader also plays an important role in this process.

7.5.3. ASSERTIVE COMMUNICATION IN A GROUP

Assertiveness refers to four main dimensions [3]:

1. Assertiveness as a behaviour – self-control, indicating good organisation and coherence of thinking, communication and behaviours.
2. Assertiveness that builds self-confidence and self-assessment – the process of achieving satisfaction of what we are and becoming one’s best friend.
3. Assertiveness as the way of communicating with people – simple statements supported by facts, careful listening, sharing of emotions.
4. Assertiveness as the way of self-realisation – ability to answer the questions: What is my objective? What do I want? What is important to me? etc.

Assertive behaviour consists of gentleness combined with determination, being natural, honest and open. Assertive communication is the ability to speak about what is right and good about the other person. One of the significant needs that control human behaviours is the need for recognition and acceptance. The ability to show positive feelings towards others is assertive behaviour. People can strengthen their assertiveness towards themselves through personal, natural expression and by underlining what they value about those who are important to them. Communication is an important tool in building trust towards group members. People simply need to know that others care about them, that their contribution to the group is significant and has been noticed and that what they do is important. Bilateral communication based on respect towards the interaction partner contributes to the elimination of doubts, uncertainty and disagreements, which emerge when people perform tasks together, when they share a common objective or a problem [11].
7.6. COMMUNICATION BARRIERS IN A GROUP

Communication barriers are an acquired, tested, nonconscious mode of communicating with others. Whatever is known, constant and established, emerges in the context of a group as a pattern, playing an important role in the mode of the functioning of the group. Communication barriers indicate improper responses of one party to the statements made by the other. The most frequently encountered behaviours that result in the emergence of communication barriers in a team include [6]: ordering, managing and commanding; warning, rebuking and threatening; convincing, moralising and persuading; advising and instructing; reproaching, teaching, providing logical arguments; judging, criticising, opposing, blaming; praising and approving; ridiculing, embarrassing, abusing others; interpreting, analysing, diagnosing; calming down, showing compassion, consoling, maintaining; examining, inquiring, investigating; drawing attention, amusing, entertaining.

At a certain point, every group faces a significant problem which should be solved [22]. Thanks to a discussion, controlled by the leader, the team members generate and propose activities aimed at solving the problem. A lack of communication barriers contributes to the creation of an atmosphere of cooperation in the group by providing space for acceptance and free self-expression for all team members [11].

7.7. PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECT OF DECISION-MAKING IN A GROUP

The decision-making process is an activity, and the result of it is a specific decision. Within the framework of the decision-making process, the group makes an informed choice – a decision is made on the basis of the available information [5], [15], [17], [24], [25]. According to [29] “to make a decision is to make a non-random choice of action”. Analysis of the situation that requires a decision is the first task faced by the group. According to [12], [24], [25], situations in which decisions are made, can be divided into normal
and difficult (stressful). The former reflect the perceptive, intellectual and executive human abilities. Usually, they are repeatable and match a certain standard; they can be solved on the basis of the established habits. On the other hand, in a difficult situation, there are various factors that interfere with the decision-making process, hindering it, and these include: dramatically shortened decision-making time, substantial responsibility and external threats. Difficult situations usually generate two types of responses. The former – the so-called specific responses – depend upon the type of difficulty. Non-specific responses emerge in every stressful situation. There are three basic types of non-specific responses: mobilisation, breakdown and deformation. Of course, these phases do not have to emerge in this order. Depending on the type of difficulty, the time of performance of the task and resistance to stress of the individual, the order of these may vary. In the mobilisation phase, there is a certain emotional tension in the group, which exerts positive impact on the tasks performed. Smoothness and flexibility of thinking increases, and unique and original associations are generated. The group finds it easier to identify new alternatives of action and to predict their consequences. Thus, the decision-making time is shortened. In this case, certain difficulties make it easier to take full advantage of the potential of the team. In the breakdown phase, some difficulties emerge in the decision-making process. Flexibility and smoothness of thinking is reduced. The set of solutions examined is limited, which indicates certain limitations of individual group members with regard to the ability to predict the consequences of their decision. It is also possible to observe the so-called "globality of responses", which consists in the selection of overly general, imprecisely specified variants that hinders the decision-making process. Although in the phase of emotional breakdown, the quality of decisions and the level of their implementation are somewhat reduced, the team is still able to perform the tasks. In the destruction phase, the decision-making activity of the organisation is disturbed on a global level – the group is no longer able to choose the rational variant of action, and the decisions become stereotypical and are not adequate to the conditions that have emerged. Sometimes, any variant is selected at random, without analysis of the consequences of the decision being made. During the destruction phase, the team encounters strong emotions (such as anger and irritation), which can be hardly controlled. Any rational decision-making becomes virtually impossible under these circumstances. Difficult decision-making situations include crisis situations, during which the human cognitive apparatus is overloaded, which results in lowering of the quality of performance of the task. Usually, the presented features of a stressful decision-making situation are not mutually exclusive [1], [12], [17], [24], [25]. The causes and motivations of a given group depend on many
factors, which are not easily identified [17]. All decision-making activities of a given individual (group) are always goal-oriented.

A goal is a state that the team wants to attain by solving a problem [12], [24], [25]. According to [17], decisions made by groups are influenced by such factors as:
- the perspective of a given phenomenon,
- the level of knowledge and availability of information on a given problem,
- the type of the decision-making situation,
- the level of complexity of the decision-making task,
- the environment,
- susceptibility to impact exerted by other team members,
- the emotional state and self-perception of the decision-maker.

In many cases, in every field of science and art, the quality of a given solution is not determined by the group on the basis of the real traits of the solution, but it is based on the positive (or negative) opinion of the creator of the solution. This phenomenon can be referred to as "the impact of authority", which often influences the decisions made by teams. A very significant factor that influences the behaviours of an individual in a group is the system of views related to self, which is strictly associated with subjective self-assessment. A person who views themselves in a positive manner, shows a high level of self-confidence, assertiveness, courage and ability to establish interpersonal relations. Thanks to these, they make reliable and ethical decisions, instead of submitting to the influence of the group. Low level of self-esteem results in a lack of self-confidence, which may lead to excessive dependence on interpersonal relations (conformism) [1]. If the decision-maker is convinced that they have little ability to perform the task entrusted, they are more susceptible to conformism. According to various authors [1], [12], [24], [25], there are two potential reasons for conformism. In the first case, behaviours of others may convince the decision-maker that their original opinion was wrong. The second aspect of conformism is the need of gaining acceptance of the group, which is observed frequently.

There are many situations, in which people conform to the behaviours of others, because they rely upon these as the only indicator of the appropriate way of acting. Emotions and moods also influence groups. A person, who is in a good mood, pays more attention to positive information concerning the subject of the decision; those who show a pessimistic attitude are more willing to make the choice on the basis of negative information. According to [25], when making binding decisions or conducting significant assessment, neutral state of mind is the most desirable for the group. A stressful situation also influences the structure and rationality of the actions of the team.
Additionally, according to various authors [12], [24], [25], there is a reasonable concern that strong personal links between the team members and the decision-making variant examined often limit the ability of the group members to think rationally, use their common sense or refer to moral and ethical values. Experience of the group in the performance of tasks influences the decision-making strategies and preferences. Time is also of significance for the decision-making process. If the team is facing a difficult problem, and the time to make the decision is too short, exhaustive analysis of individual solutions is often given up and the solution is picked at random. On the other hand, when the time is longer and the complexity of the task is relatively low, the group will conduct a thorough analysis and assess the problem properly [12], [24].

Although the group always follows specific rules, which generate the real behaviours, it is difficult to define the individual preferences, the system of values and motivations of individual team members, which are always dependent upon such factors, as the point of view, level of knowledge, experience, availability of information on the problem being examined, emotional state, sense of self-worth, the mood, the environment, impact of the group, perception of the phenomenon and impact of various factors that deform the accuracy and objectivity of opinions. Moreover, in the group decision-making context, a team of competent and talented experts may be willing to accept unreasonable and irrational solutions [17].
7.8. BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER 8
CASE STUDIES

8.1. WORK-LIFE-BALANCE
OF CONSTRUCTION SITE MANAGERS

(D. SCHRIMM, C. MOTZKO, V. MOTZKO)

WORK-LIFE-BALANCE INTRODUCTION
Work-life balance plays an increasing role in our society today. Organisational
work-life balance practices aim at providing an equilibrium between employees' job responsibilities and their private life and interests in order to meet their own as well as the company's needs [1]. The selection of collective work-life options such as flexitime arrangements and individual level agreements should be based on practical day-to-day business needs [1]. Flexible working which includes flexitime, part-time working, compressed work-weeks, annualised hours, job-sharing and term-time working is considered a practical solution to offering a healthy work-life balance. Leave schemes allowing for career breaks such as sabbaticals or to take time off for domestic crises, as well as child leave or study leave also fall under this category [1]. It is important, that the organisational culture encourages employees to make individual requests and to communicate the importance of such measures to line management. Worries concerning the supervisor's reaction and the possible damage to the career often compete with employees' needs [1]. A UK survey showed that the most commonly used options are part-time working, family/emergency leave and general unpaid leave [1]. The advantages of work-life balance can be [1]:

- Improved productivity and quality of work,
- Improved engagement and morale,
- Reduced labour turnover,
- Reduced absenteeism,
− Improved utilisation of new hires,
− Increased retention.

Besides the work-life balance, an important aspect is employees’ welfare. Employee welfare refers to a variety of services such as offering counselling on private problems, assistance with health-related problems, services for retired employees, child-care facilities or social and sporting activities [1]. In addition to the social argument, there is also the economic argument of employee welfare as a means of minimising decreased productivity, resulting in a better employer image which may increase commitment and the retention of key employees [1]. Traditionally, employee welfare is managed by the HR department, but it is more and more recognised that line management and supervisors are responsible for being aware of employees’ personal problems which affect their work [1]. Employee welfare can be provided via internal counselling services or so-called Employee Assistance Programmes. The latter are provided by external agencies offering counselling for example in the form of telephone services. Employees can discuss problems regarding stress, alcohol or drug abuse as well as marital, legal or financial problems or even have face-to-face arranged sessions with specialists [1]. These services are confidential and can also extend to workplace seminars or training of management and HR staff [1].

Studies show that the downtime of employees due to mental illness increased by 60% within seven years [3]. The central psychological problem areas of employees and managers are stress, work-life balance, burnout and workaholism. These extend to two dimensions: the degree of mental impairment (= intensity of mental illness) of a person and the degree of suggestibility by the company (= measures of support of the organisation). Figure 8.1 systematises the central psychological problem areas on these dimensions.
According to the common opinion of construction managers, stress in site management is self-evident. Whether from the conditions of daily work such as heavy time pressure, fierce competition in the construction industry or because of the working requirements themselves, the work-life balance can be directly affected. Therefore, it is important to create measures to minimise the stress as well as to ensure a good balance between work and life components. Two different forms of stress can be distinguished: occupational and private stress. Due to the individuality of personal only, the occupational stress is discussed in this case study. The following chapters deal, according to the purpose of this case study, exclusively with work-related stress and the work-life balance of construction site managers.

SURVEY OF SITE MANAGERS TO EVALUATE THEIR STRESS TRIGGERS AND STRESS MANAGEMENT

STRESS TRIGGERS
As part of a study carried out by the Institute of Construction Technologies and Management at the TU Darmstadt an evaluation of the various site managers’ stressors was made. Table 8.1 shows the results of the questionnaire.

Figure 8.1. Mental problem areas [3].
Table 8.1. Stressors in construction site management [2]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agree strongly</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Fully disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost pressure</td>
<td>Disruptions of work because of phone calls</td>
<td>Missing recognition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time pressure</td>
<td>Unexpected interruptions in construction</td>
<td>Lack of support by supervisors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deadlines</td>
<td>More than one construction project at the same time</td>
<td>Unavailable training programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Car work trips</td>
<td>Lack of information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Duration of work</td>
<td>Bad working atmosphere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High responsibility</td>
<td>Occupational failures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conflicts with colleagues, supervisors</td>
<td>Own mistakes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High own expectations</td>
<td>Disturbing working conditions on construction sites</td>
<td>Work expectations vs. family affairs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stressors such as cost and time pressures are fully common for the generality of the respondents and thus they belong to the usual daily work in construction projects. Further interviews with site managers have shown that the disruptions of work through phone calls and e-mails are increasing and have become a significant stressor. Unexpected disruptions in the construction processes and the high responsibility, also lead to increased stress. The consequences of stress can be regarded in Chapter 0 within this manual.

STRESS MANAGEMENT - STRESS PREVENTION

As described in Chapter 0, stress can be avoided in advance through the use of preventive stress management measures. Figure 8.2 shows different aspects of work profiles of site managers, which offer through an analysis, the stress load. For example 37% of the respondents are responsible for more than one construction project simultaneously. For this group of site managers it creates stress. On the other hand, 21% of the respondents get support from service departments, which leads to a reduction of stress.
Considering the technical equipment of site managers, the study shows that the majority of the respondents are provided with modern technical tools for their daily work. This means that obsolete technology does not lead to frustration and stress.

96% of the respondent site managers confirm the statement "I schedule my tasks". Also for 89% of the respondents, a clear distribution of responsibilities with the site foreman exists. In most cases further departments like the work preparation department or the legal department help the construction site managers, so that a proper cooperation and work organisation can be ensured accordingly.

The organisation of work and thus the possibility to effectively respond to unexpected events can be interpreted positively according to the survey. Despite positive preventive measures, stress in site management is not avoidable. This perhaps is caused by the work overload of site managers. The best preventive measures can only be effective if the workload is appropriate.

STRESS MANAGEMENT – COPING WITH STRESS

If stress situations occur, methods to cope with the stress must be applied. A list of manageable stress reducing measures was provided to the site managers in the context of the survey. It was the task of the respondents to assess these coping methods (see Figure 8.3). Coping with stress during the stress period, in contrast to stress prevention is not easy to interpret as positive or negative. It could be determined, that the site managers have no time for short breaks during their daily working period.

Because of the project-specific working conditions it is not possible for the site managers to use offers like a cafeteria or a gym provided by the company.
However it must be noticed positively, that the perspective and the life attitude is assessed very positively by the surveyed construction site managers. If problems occur, the site managers get help from the supporting departments and colleagues like the site foreman or other site managers. These circumstances help to cope with the different stressors.

Figure 8.3. Coping with stress in construction site management [2]

STRESS MANAGEMENT – STRESS REDUCTION
It is necessary to implement measures to create a balance between working time and private life as well as to reduce the proportion of stress. In the survey, a list of statements for leisure activities was created, which was evaluated by the site managers. In Figure 8.4 the results of the investigation are summarised.

Figure 8.4. Stress reduction in construction site management [2]
A clear tendency for assessing the methods of stress reduction is difficult to ascertain. Approximately 50% of the responded site managers are able to get rid of all stresses and to separate between working time and private time. Especially during the holiday period it is possible for them to focus on private matters. Accordingly, the other half of the surveyed site managers are not able to separate and therefore, they think about the occupational work during their free time. This effect is further enhanced by the constant accessibility due to cell phones and emails. At this point, organisational and individual possibilities to improve this situation are necessary. For example, arrangements can be made, that phone calls and e-mails will no longer be forwarded after work to the mobile phones, but on the next working day.

EVALUATION OF THE SATISFACTION OF THE CURRENT WORK-LIFE BALANCE OF SITE MANAGERS

In view of the described stressors and the active stress management, is the question, how satisfied are the site managers with their current work-life situation. Figure 8.5 shows the assessment of the prepared list of statements.

Figure 8.5. Evaluation of the work-life balance of construction site managers [2]

According to the survey, 80% of the respondents rated their job satisfaction positively. However, the results also show, that about half of the construction managers takes contents of work home and a clear separation of work
This fact is reinforced by the lack of regular working hours. It leads to a deficit in recreational activities. A satisfaction of the work-life balance is indicated by 50% of the construction site managers. Consequently, the other half of the respondents have not enough time available for activities with their family and friends. It can be noted positively, that the site managers know about this lack and they agree, that a change in the balance is deemed necessary. Furthermore, it can be stated to be positive, that the issue of work-life balance in practice is becoming increasingly important and will improve the sensitivity of staff. For the vast majority of respondents their daily work complies exactly with the individual expectations of this profession. This means that the people, who have chosen the profession as a site manager, know exactly what they are getting into. Consequently, construction site managers regard themselves as a special professional group, who see the stress of their daily work as a challenge and motivation.

To make a comparison between the satisfaction of the work-life balance depending on the different ages of the surveyed site managers, three authoritative statements from the catalogue statements in Figure 8.6 were investigated in a closer way. The results of this survey are age-dependent and presented in Figure 8.6 to Figure 8.9. Figure 8.6 shows the distribution of the age of the surveyed site managers.

![Age distribution of respondents](image)

Figure 8.6. Age distribution [2]
I'm satisfied with my work-life balance

Figure 8.7. Evaluation of satisfaction [2]

It exists a distinction between occupational and private life

Figure 8.8. Evaluation of distinction [2]
Figure 8.7 shows the results of the evaluation of the satisfaction of the individual work-life balance. Site managers, who are 51 or more years old are less satisfied with their work-life balance than the younger. Thus, a clearly relationship between age and satisfaction with work-life balance is detectable. This could inter alia due to the fact that younger workers view the situation as a normal one because they have not yet noticed a change in the processes and organisation of the work during their professional career.

Figure 8.8 shows the results of the evaluation of the distinction between occupational and private life. The results show, that regardless of the age of the surveyed people, it is difficult for them to do a separation between professional and private matters. Especially for the 40-50 year-old site managers, a separation is often not possible. The reason for this lies in the fact, that this age group simultaneously deals with family development and career advancement. Younger professionals focus more on their professional career and older site managers concentrate more on private interests, so that in these age groups, a separation of private and occupational matters is more feasible.

Figure 8.9 shows the results of the evaluation of the possibilities of leisure activities. The figure underlines, that there is not enough time for the mental and physical balance from work especially for younger site managers up to 39 years. Approximately 75% of the site managers older than 51 years
have not enough time for leisure activities. The majority of the group of the 40-50 year-old site managers achieve a balance and takes corresponding time for leisure activities.

It can be concluded that site managers older than 51 years are in the majority more dissatisfied with their situation, closely followed by the up-to-39-year-old site managers group. Site managers in the range of 40 up-to 50 years show up as the most balanced group, although their professional and private life cannot be clearly separated from each other.

8.2. MENTAL STRESS OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY

(S. KAISER, C. MOTZKO)

IMPORTANCE OF MENTAL STRESS OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS
The following contents are a result of a case study provided by the Institute of Construction Technologies and Management at TU Darmstadt. This case study makes a contribution to work and organisational psychology. The work psychology is concerned with the psychological analysis, evaluation and design of workplaces. The organisational psychology investigates the relationship of the working people themselves. The subject of this case study is an investigation on mental stress of blue-collar workers in the German construction industry. Statistics show an increase in illnesses and early retirements due to mental stress. Because of the non-stationary manufacturing, a variety of environmental conditions, a high proportion of physical work and increasing time pressure the importance of psychological stress has a high sensitivity in the construction industry.
Mental stress describes the sum of all detectable influences which come from the environment to the people and have a mental impact on them. Mental strains, however, are the immediate (not the long-term) effects of mental stress depending on the individual behaviours, momentary conditions and coping strategies. Thus, the relationship between mental stress and strain follows closely the Stress-Strain Concept to Rohmert and Rutenfranz [5].

REASONS FOR MENTAL STRESS OF BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS
- **Work overload**: Psychomental impacts of impairments of tasks and activities, equipment, work environment, (temporal) work organisation.
- **Lack of communication or direction of management**: Inadequate or missing of information between two or more people.
- **Workplace environment**: Uncomfortable or harmful environmental influences at work.
- **Physical or mental violence**: Violent attack on a person or the social reputation of it.
- **Mobbing**: A mental stress that can occur in places where people come together and interact with each other.

CONSEQUENCES OF MENTAL STRESS
- **Mental fatigue**: A deterioration of mental and physical functioning, which depends on a psychological bias.
- **Fatigue-like conditions**: Variety poor situations lead to a fatigue-like condition of the people. This is accompanied by: monotony conditions, decreased alertness and mental saturation.
- **Monotony condition**: By prolonged and redundant tasks they get symptoms such as fatigue, performance decline, reducing the responsiveness and variations in heart rate.
- **Decreased alertness**: Through a less variety of activities in the area of monitoring and control decreased ability to detect stimuli and signals.
- **Mental saturation**: People decline redundant tasks and activity without prospects. They react nervously and emotionally stressed.

INVESTIGATION
As part of the research project, the mental stress of blue-collar workers in the construction industry was examined. The target of this research project was to verify the above-mentioned causes and consequences. The task was to quantify the stress causes and make a statement on the current state of it.
DATA COLLECTION
The data collection was made in the form of an anonymous questionnaire. The questionnaire comprises the topics "type of stress", "effects of stress" and "coping with the stress." All questions were designed as closed questions with predetermined answers. Additionally anonymous "Personal Information" were interrogated with open answers. For the design of the questionnaire the so-called "SALSA-method" by Rimann / Udris was used [6]. The target group of the survey were blue-collar workers in the construction industry. The questionnaires were distributed to medium-sized German construction companies. During the selection-process of recipients it was considered, that the construction companies always employ their own blue-collar workers and do not only use the blue-collar workers of sub-contractors.

RESULTS
First, the response capabilities of individual questions were decoded. For each response a number from 1 to 5 was assigned in analogy to a Likert scale. Likert scaling is a bipolar scaling method, measuring either a positive or negative response to a statement. If a statement is evaluated with 1 point, this means, that the respondent completely agrees to the statement and 5 points means, that he completely disagrees. To assess the statistical reliability of the survey results, parameters such as the average value, variance, standard deviation and standard error were determined.

The average age of the respondents was approximately 45 years. The majority of respondents resided in a partnership; about half of them have at least one child. The majority of respondents are working in building in the construction industry and have an appropriate education. Nearly a third of the respondents had personal responsibilities as a ganger or foreman.

The following figures show the overall results of the survey of the topics "types of stress" (see Figure 8.108.10), "effects of stress" (see Figure 8.11) and "coping with the stresses" (see Figure 8.12). The answer to each question is given in the form of the average value. Furthermore, the standard error and the minimum and maximum values of the responses are recorded.
Figure 8.10. Types of stress [4]
Figure 8.11. Consequences of stress [4]

Figure 8.12. Coping with stress [4]
INTERPRETATION
When considering the thematic area "types of stress", two negative answered questions are particularly prominent. These relate mainly to the noise exposure at the workplace and the physical stress during the working process. In addition, the lack of feedback from supervisors was noted and a very high level of responsibility. Less stressful is the relationship with colleagues as well as problems of job security, lack of skills and dealing with problems caused by private affairs [4]. Considering the part "effects of stress" it is striking, that in general only minor impacts of stress can be specified. Only two minor rashes can be detected in the area of health and free time [4].
The topic "coping with stress" points to an abnormality in the form of communication with colleagues, friends and partners. This means, that the majority of the blue-collar workers rarely talk about their stresses in their occupational or private life [4].

CONCLUSION AND OUTLOOK
It is observed, that the surveyed blue-collar workers are impacted by the workplace conditions (noise, dust, heavy physical work). These stresses affect both the physical and the mental areas which is symptomatic for work in the construction industry. The skills in coping with different types of mental stresses like the high responsibility and the quality of feedback can be developed through professional development measures. It has to be mentioned, that there often is a very friendly relationship between employees working in the construction sector. Mobbing seems to have no major impact. The topics of their own health and work-life balance have a high priority for the blue-collar workers. Through preventive measures, these requirements can be ensured. In the area of coping with mental stress, an open communication atmosphere between blue-collar workers among each other and between the blue-collar workers and their supervisors should be enhanced. It is recommended to follow the design principles in accordance with DIN EN ISO 10075-2 to handle the mental stress as a part of the risk assessment. It is also necessary to promote communication skills through training methods. Then it can be possible to minimise the mental stress.
8.3. MOTIVATING PEOPLE TO SHARE THEIR KNOWLEDGE

(K. KOSY)

A Polish construction company after a period of crisis and downsizing regained its position on the market. However, it appeared that the company has started to struggle with meeting its clients demand. The reason was as following: it lost the crucial part of its employees during this crisis period. Certain generation gaps appeared. Most of people in their thirties and forties left the company as they were qualified and dynamic enough to find new jobs even though the labour market was tough. Those who stayed in the company were either very experienced employees who had worked in the firm for many years or unqualified youngsters. To tackle the problem the company decided to encourage more experienced employees to share their knowledge and skills with younger people. A certain bonus system was part of the scheme. However, although financially encouraged, older employees did not want to teach youngsters willingly. Part of the company’s well-established organisational culture was that new comers need some time to be treated on an equal basis and to be granted opportunity to perform more complicated tasks. It was thought to be unfair that youngsters would enter “fast-track” with a possibility to develop. Certain improvement was achieved by discussions with trade-unions, so they started to influence the crew to join the learning scheme.
8.4. BIBLIOGRAPHY


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