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## Preliminary remarks

A supervisor is measured by the success of the employees who work in his or her area of responsibility. This is true across the world. This means that he or she needs knowledge in diverse areas which have, at first sight, nothing to do with the specific tasks to be carried out. This knowledge is essential in modern personnel management in order to get the best performance from motivated workers. This textbook looks at the fundamental aspects of management. The contents have been kept brief on purpose so that the future industrial foremen can concentrate on the essentials.

# 1. THE FUNDAMENTALS OF HUMAN SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

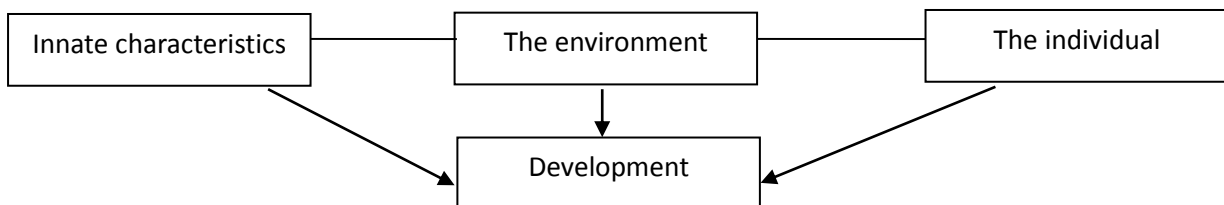
## 1.1 The connection between the progress of a person's life, their professional development and their personal development

The varied tasks of a supervisor can be roughly split into three main areas:  
Production, organization, personnel management.

Personnel management can be defined as influencing people. It often includes trying to move the behaviour, attitude, expectations or motivation of a person (or a group) in a desired direction. Knowledge of a person's development, their characteristics and the causes of their present behaviour is essential.

### 1.1.1 Development

The basic factors in a person's development are:



Innate characteristics are all the physical and psychological characteristics that are purely biological in origin.

By the environment, we mean everything which directly or indirectly influences a person from outside from their conception to their death. Some components of the biological environment are those which are responsible for maintaining and developing life itself (light, nutrition, etc.).

A person's social-cultural environment consists of:

- their upbringing (parents, teachers, friends and colleagues)
- the economic circumstances of their family
- the social circumstances of their family
- cultural influences

Important factors for development:

Growth = the irreversible increase in bodily substances during development.

Maturing = the purely biological process, at the end of which the body is capable of specific functions (walking, speaking,...)

Learning = changing behaviour

To develop positively, people need specific factors.

Factors that support development are, in particular:

- a balanced diet, suitable for the person's age
- a positive emotional attitude toward the developing person
- sufficient emotional and social support
- constant, dependable people to turn to
- a warm, loving and understanding environment
- consistency in nurturing
- varied learning stimuli and possibilities
- targeted support of interests, abilities and skills
- support for using one's own initiative and behaving independently
- provision of a sense of achievement and recognition of good performance
- help and encouragement in case of failure
- stable social connections (family, neighbours, friends, colleagues, husband/wife)

There are also factors which can have a negative influence on the development of a person. The most important are:

- prenatal: illness, alcohol, nicotine and/or medicine consumption by the mother
- physical and psychological disorders with long term hospitalisation
- sudden loss or change of important people
- indulgence and overprotection
- extreme forbearance
- lack of care (physical and/or social/emotional neglect)
- authoritarian/critical and predominantly chastising upbringing
- physical and/or psychological abuse
- long-term tension within the family
- too high/low expectations and challenges
- indiscriminate alcohol (and drugs in general) consumption.

## 1.1.2 Human development areas and phases

As an industrial foreman will work with employees in different age groups, he or she needs to know about the basic phases and their respective effects on human behaviour. The description below provides an overview.

Characteristics	<b>Puberty</b> approx. 13 -18 years old	<b>Young adult</b> approx. 18 -21 years old	<b>Adult</b> approx. 18 -21 years old
Orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– critical</li> <li>– challenging</li> <li>– regular change in overall orientation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– development of their own standards and leitmotif</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– their own standards</li> <li>– customs / experiences are lived</li> </ul>
Social behaviour	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– distancing from the parents</li> <li>– membership of new groups</li> <li>– need for recognition</li> <li>– search for acknowledgement / validation</li> <li>– commonly intolerant and changeable</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– their own behavioural role develops</li> <li>– search for friendship, love and social contacts</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– stable social connections</li> <li>– different levels of importance for career, work, family, free time</li> </ul>
Physical development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– growth</li> <li>– puberty</li> <li>– proportioning of the physical form</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– maturing of the inner organs</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– 30/40 years of development of muscular strength</li> <li>– then a decrease in strength</li> <li>– fading of the senses</li> </ul>
Emotional field	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– unstable emotions</li> <li>– drive for experiences</li> <li>– trying out differing roles</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– growing self confidence and emotional stability</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– generally emotionally stable and balanced</li> </ul>
Memory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– uncertainty and lack of permanence</li> <li>– improvement of the memory</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– completion of functional assurance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– fading of the memory</li> <li>– loss of long-term memory and experience</li> </ul>

The age groups with which the industrial foreman will have the most to do can be further categorised as:  
Adult groups:

### 1. Beginning

- Finishing education
- Testing out their own abilities, motives and value judgements in reality
- Acceptance as a fully-valued employee
- Planning of the further stages in their career (e.g. changing jobs, further education, stays abroad)

### 2. Mid-life

- Critical scrutiny of what they have achieved at work
- Potential new orientation
- New alignment of individual priorities (both professionally and in their private life)

### 3. Final working years

- Further careers
- Relaxation
- Phase of disengagement
- Reduction of professional engagement
- Preparation for retirement

Running in parallel to these phases are the socialisation phases.

Socialisation: = learning the rules of the game step by step (standards, values, behaviour) of a society.  
Socialisation can be divided into:

#### 1. Imprinting:

- intensive parent-child relationship sets the stage for later life

#### 2. Primary socialisation:

- normally lasts until the start of school
- the most important people are the parents, relations and neighbours
- learning is more unconscious and playful
- the first individual patterns of behaviour are identifiable

#### 3. Secondary socialisation:

- begins with the start of school
- strengthening influence from other people (teachers, friends)
- conscious and systematic learning
- continual expansion of the radius of movement and experience
- distancing from the parents with the beginning of puberty
- the search for their own identity

#### 4. Tertiary socialisation:

- "lifelong socialisation"
- taking up changed or new roles as an adult
- changes in society, professional life and/or the private life can change individual attitudes, values, aims throughout the course of life.

## 1.1.3 The conscious and subconscious

In psychology, subconscious means the area of the human psyche which is not directly accessible consciously. Events which have been consciously experienced can be processed and stored in the brain. Unconscious events or those not processes, are often displaced from the consciousness. They continue to affect one unconsciously and can cause both physical and psychological illnesses and behavioural disorders. Extensive measurements have shown that much everyday behaviour is triggered by unconscious reactions to stimuli.

#### Consequences:

- Human behaviour is imprinted by conscious and unconscious experiences.
- Thus one always also needs to count on subconscious behaviour and behaviour which is not actively controlled. This is true for others and for oneself.

Self-esteem = the most important regulator of human behaviour.

This feeling is difficult to influence, it develops from when one is a small child to puberty.

If a person gets predominantly negative feedback about themselves during this phase (distance, disinterest, rejection, refusal), their self-esteem is affected negatively.

If, however, a person experiences attention, loving support, affection and recognition it will have a positive effect on their self-esteem.

This may not sound relevant for an industrial foreman but it has the following consequences for personnel management:

- every person wants to strengthen his or her self-esteem which means they act in such a way as to support their self-esteem and avoid anything that could weaken it.
- to consolidate the structure of their personality, a person needs the help of their surroundings (communication, acknowledgement, support).  
No-one can develop further just by themselves.

#### The characteristics of poorly developed self-esteem:

- excessive need for security
- excessive need for recognition
- strong dependence on the opinions of others
- constant emphasis on their own success
- strong fixation on areas of life in which success can be achieved (e.g. compulsive work, extreme hobbies)

#### Defensive mechanisms

If there is a danger of the self-esteem being damaged, defensive mechanisms are often unconsciously used.

Supervisors should know and recognise these defensive mechanisms and look for the causes.

The most important defensive mechanisms are:

- **Compensation:**  
Employees feel they are not being challenged, there is no prospect of changing the situation. They limit themselves to "working to rule" and commit themselves more to a sports club instead.
- **Conversion:**  
After their ambitious idea is turned down by the management, the worker falls ill.
- **Resignation:**  
An employee is not taken into consideration for advancement despite great personal effort. He or she withdraws and displays less professional engagement.

### 1.1.4 Types of learning

Definitions of learning:

- Changes in attitude or behaviour.
- Reaction to external stimuli.

Successful learning shows up in new behaviour, attitudes and better performance. We differentiate between:

### Social learning

Adoption of the social and emotional expertise necessary in an open society.

Social learning is a life-long process which makes it possible to react to new situations flexibly and reasonably.

### Conscious learning

This is learning which is planned and requested due to a specific motivation and with intent.

### Unconscious learning

This is learning without intent. It is a very common, natural imprinting process.

In teaching psychology one differentiates between the following types of learning:

#### Learning by imitation (observation)

Workers learn particularly from their supervisors:

- when they have success with their behaviour,
- have a high social standing,
- then they are dependent on them,
- when they trust each other

This means that an industrial foreman always sets an example for their employees, either a positive one or a negative one. This is true not just during working hours. The supervisor's private life is also judged by employees according to strict criteria.

#### Stimulus-response learning:

A stimulus triggers learned behaviour. Stimuli can and must be trained in specific situations, particularly when time is to be saved.

#### Learning by affirmation (reinforcement) > praise

Praise is indispensable as an aid to leadership and motivation! Adults also want and need praise. The principle "no criticism is enough praise" is totally wrong. However, there are also basic rules to follow when giving praise, in order to avoid having the opposite effect to the desired one.

These principles are:

- To be sincere and authentic. This is the most important rule. Give praise from the heart. Do not praise without conviction or only strategically.
- Be precise, give reasons and explain. To watch and listen to someone carefully is already giving them recognition.
- Engage them at eye level: respectfully without condescension.
- Engage them individually: Notice the individual achievements and avoid giving comparable praise. Do not only consider the obvious top performers.
- Be fair: The criteria for your praise should be transparent and recognised by others. Make sure that your praise goes to the right people and does not miss out others who may have earned it.
- Be sensitive about the situation and the people
- Praise without qualification: Do not add criticism, no dot use devaluing words like "but" and "actually".



### Instrumental learning

The connection between behaviour and its consequences (trial and error) can be used for teaching psychology as well as for personnel management. For personnel management:

Only threaten consequences for improper behaviour that you can actually carry out. Otherwise you lose your credibility.

When improper behaviour is repeated, follow up on your threats

Always keep in mind the context of time. Deficiencies must be dealt with immediately otherwise improper behaviour will persist.

### Learning through insight

The best way is always for the employee to understand their behaviour. So let them know and give reasons for any action you take whenever possible.

### Learning through practise (forming habits)

See above, improper behaviour must not become a habit.

Learning in the sense of conceptualisation and knowledge acquisition:

Use all the possibilities and instruments of personal development.

### Negotiation and problem solving

The best solutions to problems are those that come from the employees themselves. Thus, employees should be incorporated into the problem solving process, wherever possible.

### Learning in teams

If learning is treated as a social process, the relationship to the team is pushed into the foreground for the individual employees.

This changes the motivation for their thoughts and desires: The well-being of the group moves to top of their list of priorities. The colleagues who have made the most positive contributions to the group experience will be most valued.

The leadership role of the supervisor is of great importance here.

## 2. THE INFLUENCE OF THE WORKING LIFE ON THE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

We differentiate here between external (outside of the company) and internal factors:

The most important external factors are the family, friends, associations, political parties, religious communities and the mass media.

The most important internal factors are the content of the work and contact with instructors, supervisors and colleagues.

The influence on the whole working life contributes to the training and development of competencies. In business management, many competencies are used which are described in job advertisements. We concentrate on the most important components here. These are:

- Technical expertise or qualifications
- Methodological competence or qualifications (interdisciplinary)
- Social skills or qualifications
- Personal skills

Qualifications in the areas of methodological competence and social skills are considered key qualifications.

These include:

- Leadership ability
- Flexibility
- Communication skills
- Skills in conflict resolution
- Concentration
- Ability to cooperate
- Creativity
- Commitment
- Problem solving ability
- Ability to work independently
- Ability to work in a team
- Tolerance
- Sense of responsibility

### 3. COOPERATION AND INTEGRATION IN BUSINESS – DEALING WITH SPECIFIC GROUPS OF WORKERS

Business leaders need to adapt to particular groups of workers such as:

- young workers
- female workers
- older workers
- foreign workers
- disabled workers

Before we deal with the groups named above, we will first deal with perception as a social process. Perception is a basic factor for how people deal with groups of people. It is the result of many different processes. Some of the most important are:

- Recording
- Selecting
- Summarising
- Completing
- Calibration
- Generalising
- Comparing
- Predicting

#### 3.1 The characteristics of perception of people

Putting different information about a person together to form a complete rounded picture is essentially a process of generalisation and inference. The most important errors in perception are:

##### 3.1.1 Emotions, needs

The influence of our feelings and needs on our perception is enormous. It has been shown that our ability to judge people is strongly influenced by our mood.

Those in a good mood tend to judge people positively and notice positive desirable characteristics more. When in a bad mood, we find it difficult to notice positive characteristics.

Transmitting one's own bad feelings, emotions to employees is unprofessional!

##### 3.1.2 The halo effect

(From Latin halos "disk of the sun or moon, ring of light around the sun or moon"). One can simply call this "the power of beauty". Attractive people are judged as better from childhood on, and are treated better than less attractive people.

Scientists explain that it is what happens when we judge someone overall positively and are tempted to glorify that person in other statements.

Thus it is important to stick to the facts and not to other factors.

### 3.1.3 Defensive mechanisms/denial

Recognising problems and accepting them puts us in the position to solve them.

Denying them, pushing them aside and suppressing them constricts ones horizons and causes miscalculations.

Example: A mother does not want to believe that her child is aggressive in school despite the fact that the teachers have evidence of it.

### 3.1.4 First impressions

The risk of miscalculation and false perceptions is greatest here. When trying to orient ourselves and become more secure with dealing with new people around us, we try to evaluate them using perceived characteristics (pronunciation, clothes, hair style...). This process of evaluation only needs a few seconds but endures a long time. Within a few seconds we categorise people.

Judging people from the first impressions they make is unprofessional. Give your employees time and the opportunity to prove themselves in different situations.

### 3.1.5 Implicit personality theory

Due to our experiences, we make a connection between characteristics we have observed in a person and other characteristics they have not shown but we have noticed before in others.

Example, Experience: As a child you were harassed by a red-haired classmate so your first thoughts of any red-haired person are negative.

### 3.1.6 Projection

One's own needs are projected onto the environment/other people instead of perceiving them for ourselves or admitting to them.

Example: Assigning one's own moods or aggression to the world around you.

### 3.1.7 Stereotyping

Stereotypes (prejudices) are ready-made pictures, opinions, judgements and impressions about particular characteristics of people or groups or their behaviour. Stereotypes can be neutral but they are generally negative (professional, religious, political stereotypes). Stereotypical opinions are easy to transfer to others, particularly those who have not yet had the chance to make a judgement themselves and for such people false opinions can be very persistent.

Stereotypes are unprofessional and must be avoided by every supervisor.

### 3.1.8 Categorisation mistakes

Some of our observations of the behaviour a particular person tempt us to draw conclusions about that person in general.

Example: A worker is careless once and one categorises him or her straight away as generally careless without working out why he or she behaved that way.

### 3.1.9 Role selection

If people feel that their behaviour is being observed, then they avoid playing a role so that they meet the requirements involved.

### 3.1.10 Mistakes of social desirability

People tend to put their own behaviour in a favourable light. In this way they are able to raise their self-worth and their importance by particular expressions and behavioural recognition.

### 3.1.11 Tendency to move to the middle

If we feel unsure about reaching a verdict, then in order to make a judgement, we choose the "golden middle". This always makes sense as if the wrong decision is reached then we can expect the minimum amount of damage. It is the supervisor's task to evaluate workers. This takes the courage to give negative evaluations (when it is justified) and to disclose them.

### 3.1.12 Mild effect

This is similar to the tendency to the middle but more pronounced. An industrial foreman as a supervisor must not be deceived by such errors in perception and must set the most objective standards for the evaluation and assessment of his or her employees.

## 3.2 Dealing with specific groups of employees

### 3.2.1 Young workers

According to the Youth Employment Protection Act, young workers in Germany are those between the ages of 15 to 18.

For many young people, making early decisions about careers, finding training positions and leaving the school environment, the parent's home, friends and the place they are at home are very difficult. On top of this, the process of personal maturing is not in any way over and this can lead to behaviour that is difficult to understand.

Further problems can be caused if the prerequisites for successful professional training are not fulfilled. Examples would be poor conditions in the family or school, language problems, lack of motivation, uncertainty about the choice of career or frustration following many unsuccessful applications.

Due to these reasons, there is a particular responsibility placed on employees and supervisors when working with young people. An industrial foreman needs to show good instincts and set an example. Young people are especially disposed to orient themselves strongly on role models.

### 3.2.2 Female workers

In German working life, the following areas can be problems for women:

- Women are found more often in lower and worse paid positions.
- Women are under represented in leadership roles.
- It is common for women to receive lower pay for the same qualifications.
- Women are more likely to have less secure jobs.
- Women are more often unemployed.
- Women are under represented in further and continuing education

This must be counteracted!

Women do however have a different constitution to men. This has the following consequences for work:

1. Shorter bodies and arms impact the design of workstations.
2. As the muscular strength of women, particularly in the hands and arms, is generally about two thirds of that of a man, heavy physical work is not suitable for women and is therefore to be avoided.
3. As women have smaller and lighter hands than men, their manual dexterity makes them particularly suitable for fine motor tasks.
4. As the consumption of oxygen takes longer to balance out (having less red blood cells) and due to smaller lungs, women tire quickly, and so need more short breaks.
5. Menstruation can cause a certain temporary impairment of performance.

#### Tips for management of female employees:

In general, a special management style for female employees is not necessary, and indeed is more likely to lead to causing or strengthening unjustified prejudice. In the end, as is the case with all groups of workers, each employee should be treated as an individual and generalisations are to be avoided.

### 3.2.3 Older employees

Every society and every country defines "older employees" differently. In general, employees from 50 years of age on are classed as older workers.

An industrial foreman must be aware of the special features of these workers, of their actual deficits and their advantages, to be able to operate effectively.

As people get older the following deteriorate:

- Muscular strength and mobility
- The efficiency of the organ system (breathing, circulation, heat and cold regulation, the senses of sight, hearing and taste)
- The ability to withstand long-term physical and psychological strains

- Speed of perception
- The speed of processing information and the ability to react, particularly to complex events
- Short-term memory
- The ability to perform under strict time allowances (time pressure)

The following remain largely constant:

- The ability to withstand normal physical and psychological challenges
- Long term performance
- Speed of normal movement
- Attention span and ability to concentrate
- The extent of acquired knowledge
- Language Skills

The following increase

- Work and professional experience
- The power of judgement
- Conversational skill
- The accuracy of assignment and construction tasks
- Ability to work independently
- Ability to think strategically
- Sense of responsibility
- Practice in physical and intellectual abilities
- Stability and ability to compensate
- Carefulness and work ethic
- Human maturity
- General willingness to perform

Activities with the following characteristics are particularly problematic:

- hot or cold conditions,
- a need for especially good fine motor skills
- a need for particularly fast reactions
- situations with extreme time pressures, e.g. piecework in noisy conditions
- a need for particularly good hearing
- a need for particularly good near-sight
- shift work and night work

Activities with the following characteristics are more favourable for older workers.

- the need for accuracy, reliability and care (e.g. measuring and testing)
- the need for an overview and cohesive thinking (e. g. planning and coordination of work processes)
- where experience is particularly important (e.g. advising and consulting)
- where practice and mastering tricks are important (old hands)
- social responsibility

If an employee changes workplace within the firm, as he or she is no longer capable of performing the duties due to their age, then it is very important not to damage the honour of the employee (so they do not lose face).

### 3.2.4 The integration of foreign employees

There are differences between nationalities in the following areas:

- Language,
- Customs,
- Cultural background, in particular religion,
- Mentality
- Attitude towards work

In principle, the management of foreign workers needs no other methods than that for native employees. However, some essential aspects must be considered especially carefully:

1. Foreign workers must be treated as individuals. Do not categorise them as "the Italians" or "the Turks" but as individual workers.
2. Just as prejudices based just on nationality should be avoided, so should such preferences.
3. As far as difficulties with the language are concerned, be aware of the possibilities for misunderstandings.
4. Practise tolerance for differing attitudes, traditions and religions. Be considerate and accept them so long as it does not have a negative effect on behaviour at work.
5. When workers have not been living and working in Germany for very long, difficulties with familiarisation with the foreign lifestyle and working conditions must be taken into account. Careful briefing, assistance and understanding are particularly important.
6. In principle, every supervisor should contribute to the integration of foreign workers in their area through their behaviour. The individual workers should be important to them, not their nationality.

### 3.2.5 Disabled workers

Degrees of disability are defined differently in different countries, just as for older workers.

In Germany, the degree of disability should reflect the extent to which the disability affects life in general and therefore also working life. It does not, however, say anything about whether the person's performance will be affected in any particular profession.

Tips for managing disabled workers:

1. The first priority is to determine what the disabled person can do instead of what they cannot do.
2. Firstly, the workstation needs to be checked to see if it can be adapted to the capabilities of the disabled person. If not, then a conversion to a suitable workstation must take place.
3. The supervisor must always be tactful and take into consideration the inner attitude of the worker to their disability: Most disabled people want to be valued equally to the able bodied and not be seen as exceptions that are unable to perform.
4. Special efforts should be made by the supervisors which remove prejudice against the disabled and aid the social integration of the disabled person into the community of employees.



5. The dedication to performance which is often noticeable with disabled workers and is important for strengthening the self-esteem of the person should be particularly respected and appreciated.
6. If a supervisor is not informed, or not informed well enough about particular disabilities and their effects, he or she should take the initiative and find out the information.

## 4. THE INFLUENCE OF COMPANIES ON SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

### 4.1 Corporate philosophy and culture

Some businesses enjoy having a reputation as "good" employers, others are categorised as "bad" firms by their employees and applicants. The **corporate philosophy** and culture are critical in determining how far members of the company identify themselves with the company's aims. Alongside this there is the reasonable design of the **work organisation** and the **working conditions**.

The **corporate philosophy** sets the aims and principles of the business for the employees, customers, suppliers and other business partners. It contains three components:

- Concept of society, the relationship of the business to the society and to policy,
- Concept of its mission, the relationship of the business to its competitors and
- Concept of people, the management philosophy used.

**The firm's culture** determines to a large extent how the firm is perceived by its employees as well as by outsiders. The **corporate identity** supports this which is the sum of corporate design, corporate communication and corporate behaviour.

### 4.2 Ten phenomena of commonality of members of organizations

The following phenomena can help to improve communal identity and cohesion when used positively.

1. **Recurrent behaviour:** Language, customs and traditions and related rituals.
2. **Group norms:** For example the norm "good money for good work".
3. **Manifested values:** Principles and values which follow up on stated values such as "product quality".
4. **An official philosophy:** the comprehensive policy and ideology which guides a group (including a business) in dealing with stockholders, members of staff, customers and other decisive people, for example the much-discussed "HP-way" from Hewlett-Packard.
5. **Rules of the game:** the tacitly accepted rules for survival in the company; the intricacies which new members of staff need to learn to become accepted members; "our way of doing things".
6. **Climate:** the mood that is brought into a group by the atmosphere and the way the members of the business deal with each other, customers and others

7. **Ingrained talents:** the special abilities which members need to deal with particular tasks: the skill of passing certain things from generation to generation without writing them down.
8. **Patterns of thought, mental models** are a shared framework for perception, thought and speech.
9. **Shared significance:** An agreed upon, shared language,...
10. **Symbols which aid integration: Architecture,** office set up, work clothes,...

Summary:

A business culture shared by all involved

- supports and strengthens the identification of the workers with their employers
- enables identification with the business's short-term, medium-term and long-term aims,
- makes discussions about basic principles superfluous,
- promotes cohesion in the inner organisation and
- improves the business's efficiency and ability to perform.

### 4.3 Working conditions and requirements

Working procedures, working methods and **working conditions** in industry are constantly changing due to commercial and technological developments and due to rationalisation, increased mechanisation and automation (for example CNC technology). This means that it is often the whole working situation that changes and thus the **challenges** faced by employees.

To work against the impoverishment of the contents of work, new forms of **work organisations** are trying to work for the humane design of working conditions and better working structures. Your personal creativity is required here and, as always:

The involvement of the employees in the appropriate decision making processes.

#### 4.3.1 Motivation in dealing with others

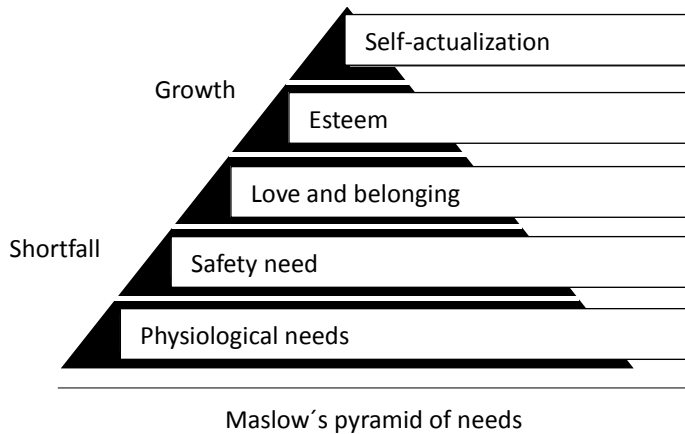
The motivation of supervisors and employees is decisive for the success of a business. Research has shown that productivity can be increased by up to 30% when employees are motivated. This means that the industrial foreman needs to learn the most important theories of motivation and use them in management.

One can discern two different groups of **motivating factors** in business:

- **extrinsic, external motives,**  
this means needs that are fulfilled by the results of work (e.g. desire for money, need for security, craving for recognition)
- **intrinsic, inner motives,**  
this means needs that are satisfied by the work itself (e.g. activity, contact, motivation to perform, desire for power, self-actualization)

### 4.3.2 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

The American psychologist Abraham Maslow developed a theory of motivating needs in 1954 which looked at the importance of the needs for the individual. In his theory, one differentiates between five types of needs which are built one on top of the other in the form of a pyramid:



1. Physiological needs (the need for oxygen, nutrition, warmth, etc.);
2. Safety needs (the need for protection, support, etc.);
3. Love and belonging (for example the need to identify with a group);
4. Esteem (prestige, success, respect, recognition, etc.);
5. Self-actualization (in particular the need to develop one's own abilities and strengths).

These needs go in the above order from the "bottom" to the "top": This means a category of needs can only be the predominant one if all the lower-level needs are fulfilled sufficiently. As an example, the need for belonging and love can only be decisive for human behaviour if the physiological needs and the safety needs are satisfied sufficiently.

An industrial foreman must take into consideration each of these levels in everyday life at work and improve them as they relate to the employees.

Examples of measures taken at Level 1: Cafeterias, drinks machines, break rooms,...

Examples of measures taken at Level 2: Fair employment contracts, labour agreements, works agreement,...

Examples of measures taken at Level 3: Corporate events, works outings, company nurseries,...

Examples of measures taken at Level 4: Company cars, individual offices, parking spaces,...

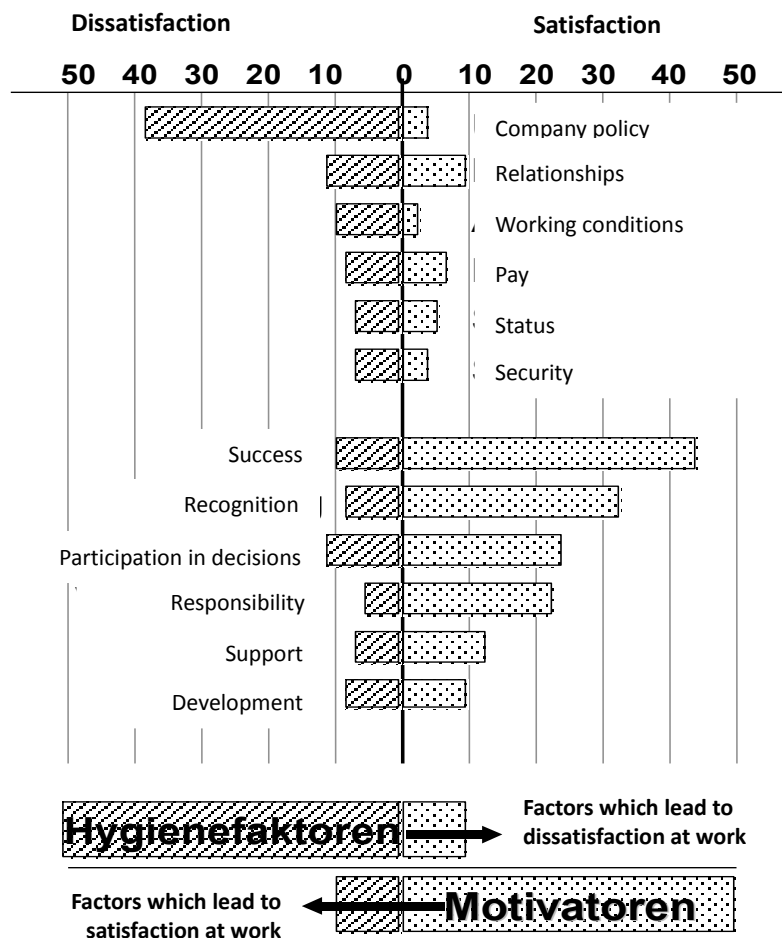
Examples of measures taken at Level 5: Granting power, teaching courses, further education,...

### 4.3.3 Herzberg's two factor theory

In the 60s, Frederick Herzberg carried out numerous studies as he was of the opinion that the conventional models of motivation were not actually concerned with motivational methods, but rather with methods of increasing drive. He asked members of various companies to recall situations in which they were very satisfied in their work, and also situations in which they were very unsatisfied. Furthermore, he asked them to give the causes of these respective attitudes to their work.

He discovered that the factors which were generally named as causing satisfaction were not the same as those which caused dissatisfaction. It was clear that significantly different factors caused satisfaction as caused dissatisfaction.

Herzberg considered the individual concepts of needs, by ascertaining both the "satisfying factors" and the "dissatisfying factors" in his research.



### Hygiene factors

It is clear that it is not possible to make employees find satisfaction at work by improving a company's fringe conditions (like better food in the cafeteria). However, it is possible to at least create a neutral impression in this way. Such factors were called hygiene factors by Herzberg.

Hygiene factors as causes of dissatisfaction as work arise principally from the concomitant circumstances:

- unclear company policy and organisation
- unsatisfying management behaviour
- inadequate working conditions
- pay
- status
- relationship to colleagues
- relationship to supervisor

### Motivating factors (**which lead to satisfaction**)

Herzberg's research also found factors causing satisfaction at work. These are directly related to the work: success, recognition, etc.. These factors correspond to social and psychological motives. These factors were named motivator factors by Herzberg.

This is, above all, the work itself, the contents of the work and a sense of achievement. After these the following factors can be given as important causes of satisfaction at work:

- Self-affirmation from success
- Challenging tasks
- Increase in responsibility
- Recognition
- Prospects for development or promotion

Summary of Herzberg's insights:

Hygiene factors only motivate employees in the short term. The dissatisfaction is removed when the problem is removed. Lasting satisfaction at work can only be secured through the contents of the work. Workers will be satisfied and willing to perform whenever the correct jobs are assigned them and they receive the right recognition for their success. This also leads to them being mainly self-motivated. Due to these insights, Herzberg formulated The Dual Structure Theory: Treat your workers well and utilize them optimally.

From this we can get tips for motivating behaviour for industrial foremen:

- **Trust workers.**  
A cooperative management style, the choice of tasks for the employee expresses that he or she is valued.
- **Design the tasks assigned to be interesting.**  
Alongside a task being varied, the responsibility for it needs to be assigned and the expertise necessary needs to be made available.
- **Impart a sense of achievement.**  
Recognition and praise are a tried and tested way of acknowledging performance. Motivation is significantly increased by building up existing strengths. This approach is not only positive for the organisation, as one requires as effective an employee as possible, but also furthers the self-esteem of the person involved.
- **Create chances to learn.**  
This includes setting high but realistic goals. People grow with their tasks, view them as challenges and learn as part of their personal development.
- **Convince the employees of the sense of their tasks.**  
One should not restrict one's self to explaining what is to be done and how it is to be done. It is much more important to understand why it must be done. This step is made easier when the aims have been compiled together and management is carried out by setting aims.

Good, willing workers are a challenge for the management. Maintaining high motivation means giving employees' esteem and the creation of new personal challenges a very high priority. Using these possibilities for development involves allowing the employee to be involved in the establishment of procedures.

#### 4.3.4 The effects of social measures on motivation and the performance of employees.

There are many motives for granting voluntary social measures. They reflect the character of a company and thus its image.

They also serve to:

- improve the working atmosphere
- bond the employees to the firm
- attract new workers
- maintain and increase performance
- improve the welfare and foresight of the members of the company
- "nurture" members of staff

##### Examples of social measures:

- **Payments:**  
Contribution to travel costs, gratuities, corporate pension scheme, additional holiday money, shares/participation certificates, severance pay
- **Granting material expenses:**  
work clothes, catering, payment in kind, gifts when there is an anniversary
- **Making material expenses cheaper:**  
Staff discount, subsidised catering, works housing
- **Use of works materials:**  
Company housing, private use of company cars, lending of tools, sports facilities
- **Services:**  
Company doctor and sanitation service, consultation (pension, insurance), granting of loans, private telephones
- **Status symbols:**  
Set up and equipping work places, memberships, company cars, company villas
- **Titles:**  
Director, head engineer, head foreman
- **Free time:**  
Attractive model for working hours, work free days

##### Cafeteria system

The term "cafeteria system" gives us the picture of a worker who has a specific budget and various extras to choose from, just like in a cafeteria.

Picking from a "menu" in this way leads to significantly higher satisfaction and this to a higher incentive to perform because some expensive services or bonuses might only be of little importance to the worker.

An example of this:

A young skilled worker who regularly keeps in contact with a supplier may find it more important to have a company car that he or she is also able to use in his or her private life than to have the provision of a direct insurance policy for retirement.

A further motivating effect is achieved with increasingly different possibilities as there is a higher degree of self determination for the employee. Allowing the employee to choose their own voluntary extras guarantees that the work of the employee is recognised with those things he or she values most. All this happens under the assumption that the company does not have higher costs for all social measures.

#### 4.3.5 Factors affecting the productivity of employees

Even when they have maximum motivation, every employee has their own individual level of productivity. This level is essentially determined by:

- Assets brought by the person themselves (body size, strength, intelligence, etc.)
- Basic qualities of the person (sex, age, state of health)
- Training (whether at school, professional or training at work)
- Practise, the mastering of special skills due to repeatedly carrying out the tasks
- Adjustment to a new job,
- Experience, this means the store of knowledge built up over the course of life about how things fit together.

Both good personnel management and targeted personnel development are responsible for the continual improvement of this.

#### 4.3.6 Factors affecting the commitment of employees

This point is an extension of the motivational theories. The commitment of members of staff is determined by:

- Interest in the work
- Satisfaction in completing tasks
- Sense of achievement
- The drive for recognition and status
- The desire for money
- Solidarity within a group and so on

The industrial foreman, as a supervisor, also plays a significant role here and must be proactive to support these factors for the employees.

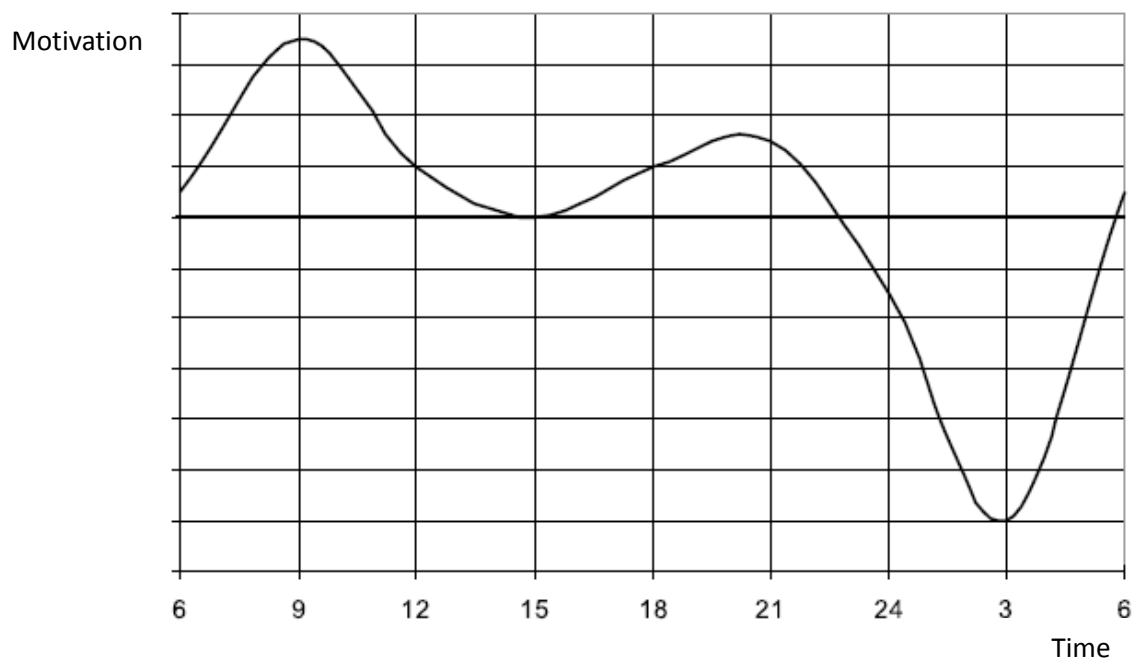
### 4.3.7 Biological daily rhythm – the circadian cycle

Definition:

A cycle of productivity during the working day not influenced by the will. The general performance of a person varies on a curve over the course of a day.

These daily rhythms (called circadian cycles in science) must be understood and considered by an industrial foreman.

Important meetings, for example, should be scheduled when performance is high. Phases of low productivity (for example night shifts) require a higher degree of attention and presence from supervisors.





## 5. GROUP STRUCTURE AND GROUP BEHAVIOUR

We generally talk about a group when

- there is more than one person,
- these people interact with each other directly (face to face) over a longer period of time and
- a differentiation of roles is exhibited,
- shared norms have been built up and
- a connection is made, identification as part of "us".

### 5.1 Group phenomena

#### ■ **Social loafing effect**

When one has shared responsibility for a group's results.

#### ■ **Free rider effect**

A conscious decision from an individual not to make an effort.

#### ■ **Social compensation effect (to sacrifice one's self for a poor group)**

As a counterpart to the free rider effect, a member of a group works extra hard despite the fact that the other members of the group make no significant contributions.

#### ■ **Sucker effect (not wanting to be the idiot)**

If other capable members of the group look like they want to be free riders, then the sucker effect can occur. This means that the other members of the group reduce their effort when they feel that the other members of the group are putting in too little for the success of the group.

#### ■ **Social facilitation effect**

When one person observes the work of another, or when other people are carrying out the same tasks simultaneously, then performance can increase. This effect is most common for simple well-practised tasks.

#### ■ **Köhler effect (contagion or comparison effect)**

This observation relates to motor-skill tasks in small groups. The members of the group, both the weaker and the stronger, spur each other on.

#### ■ **Groupthink**

The pressure within a group for conformity stops members from the critical assessment of unusual, unpopular or minority views.

#### ■ **Group shift**

Discussions within a group lead to a significant shift in the positions of members toward a more extreme position in the direction in which they were already leaning before the discussion.

## 5.2 Formal and informal groups

**Formal groups** are those which are built in a company due to the structure of the organisation and its processes, whether permanently or temporarily. In practice, such groups generally consist of a manager and a limited number of employees. They are assembled by the management.

**Informal groups** are based completely on the shared needs, interest and aims of the members, whereby the roles and norms within the group gradually develop as the people concerned mix.

### Cause of the formation of informal groups in business

- **Contact:** Employees which are regularly in contact with each other generally become closer and develop a sense of shared identity. Work places that are close to each other support this contact.
- **Similarity:** Workers who perceive similarities between themselves and colleagues, for example if they perform similar duties, have similar training or interests or are going through similar things in their lives, tend to stick together.
- **The attractiveness of the group:** The more positive consequences membership of an informal group brings, the more interesting it is for the employee.

### Some causes for the formation of informal groups in businesses are:

- the same training or duties
- workplaces close to each other
- the same ethnic heritage
- the same nationality
- the same age group
- belonging to the same company
- having the same route home
- friendships created outside work
- the same interests
- membership in clubs
- the same religion or political party etc.

### The following are examples of business conditions that lead to group formation:

- Authoritative management style from supervisors
- Unfair treatment
- Dissatisfaction with pay
- Competition between employees
- Organisational problems in the company
- Expected changes in personnel
- The fear of losing their positions etc.

### The following are indications for the build up of informal groups:

- A lot of contact during working time
- Sense of shared identity
- Spontaneous cooperation
- Seating arrangements in the cafeteria
- A lot of contact outside working hours

Working as a community is a basic human need and thus should be taken as positive at first. Informal groups can strengthen this. There can be both positive and negative effects for both the company and also for the employees.

#### The positive effects of informal groups for the employee

- The group fulfils important social needs (affection, community, respect and recognition), gives the feeling of security and offers help with personal difficulties.
- The group consciousness (sense of shared identity) strengthens the self confidence of the individual.
- The solidarity and unity of the group makes carrying out shared goals easier.

#### The positive effects for the company

- Friendships and cohesion promote the readiness to work together and help each other when there are bottlenecks or difficulties in the workplace.
- Communication and the flow of information which is relevant for the operation is improved between employees and departments.
- The general atmosphere in the department and company is improved.

#### Negative effects for employees

- Negative effects or manipulation of employees who are dependent on the group.
- Loss of concentration and performance due to an excess of informal contact during working hours and the resulting conflict with supervisors.
- Individual group members do not dare to have opinions differing from the group's opinions or to behave in a different way.

#### Negative effects for the company

- A drop in performance and accidents due to lack of concentration among the workers who distract each other during work time.
- Disruption of working relationships due to rivalries and cliques being in competition and group egoism.
- Workers groups that are very close can agree on a maximal performance they find "reasonable" or "sufficient" and force other members to adapt to these norms with peer pressure.

Organisational measures can help support informal groups in the company.  
Some examples are:

- Improving possibilities for communication, for example:
  - moving workers closer together
  - noise reduction
  - organising breaks, cafeteria and other common rooms
  - organising celebrations and events
- Putting smaller working groups together
- Creating group work places and assigning tasks to teams
- Participation of members of staff

**Important:** When there is "problem behaviour" like:

- frequent private contact during working hours which is no longer tolerable;
- a quantitative or qualitative drop in performance due to loss of concentration;
- disregarding regulations;
- breakdown of team work due to rival employees or cliques or
- danger to the industrial peace

**These issues must be dealt with!**

Measures which can be taken here include:

- separating the workplaces of members of the group;
- assigning more tasks to individuals;
- meetings with employees who are group members, in particular the leaders of the informal groups;
- transferring individual group members (e.g. taking out key individuals);
- dismissal of employees should criticism, appeals, admonishments and warnings not have effect.

### 5.3 Semi-autonomous working groups

These are small groups within the firm's system whose members have joint responsibility for connected tasks, and to complete these tasks are able to make decisions which would otherwise be taken at a higher level.

The groups can organise their own planning and monitoring in their area themselves, for example

- ordering materials and equipment on time;
- quality control

and, after agreement with the relevant supervisor, also determine

- the extent, tempo and partitioning of their activities;
- holiday planning, overtime and
- where necessary the use of supplementary workers.

The advantages for the business are:

- Production is more flexible and is thus easier to adapt
- Absence is reduced
- Productivity increases
- Quality rises
- The workers are more committed, and follow and feel responsible for what is happening to a larger extent.

The advantages for the employees are:

- The decrease of monotonous activities
- A high degree of job satisfaction
- The chance of higher or broader qualifications
- Better chances of earning more money due to diverse qualification

## 5.4 Team work

The success of team work depends on various factors:

- above all, the managers themselves
- the individual members and their social behaviour
- the group as a whole
- the success of the group which is to be strived for
- the group situation

Thus, the supervisor must always consider the following questions:

- How high do the individuals identify themselves with the business's and department's goals?
- How ready are the members of the group to help each other?
- What is the working atmosphere?
- How strong is the group cohesion?
- Do the members behave loyally to one another?
- Are they considerate to each other (for example in organising holidays)?
- How do the members communicate with one another?
- To what extent do they have solidarity (an indicator is time absent!)?

Introducing some rules of conduct can be helpful. The following rules of conduct should be standard:

### **Basic rules of conduct:**

- Entering and leaving the company premises
- Traffic on the company premises
- Duty of care for the members of staff
- Protection of property belonging to the firm or employees
- Fire prevention
- Health and safety
- Leaving the work place and
- Consumption of alcoholic drinks/Prohibition of alcohol

### **Professional rules of conduct:**

- Commercial protection (keeping the company's secrets)
- Rules on work times and duty rosters
- Overtime rules
- Holiday rules
- Safety regulations
- Escape route rules
- Rules concerning access to business premises
- Parking regulations

## 6. MANAGEMENT STYLE AND THE BASICS OF MANAGEMENT

### 6.1 Introduction

An industrial foreman is not only a specialist in his or her area, but also a supervisor and thus has management responsibility. Experience has shown that in today's world pure specialist knowledge is no longer enough to ensure success. For this reason, an industrial foreman is also used in the following areas of activity:

- Planning, organising and distributing
- The correct use of workers by giving instruction and training
- Monitoring and checking
- Informing, evaluating, and leading the employees
- Motivating and supporting the employees
- Instructing the workers on safety
- The clear management of reporting
- Leading and participating in meetings
- Negotiation keeping costs in mind
- The promotion of team work and the creation of a good working atmosphere
- Setting clear goals for his or her area of responsibility.

### 6.2 The "sandwich" position of an industrial foreman

Industrial foremen are, unlike almost all other members of staff in an **area of tension** between the employer's and worker's interests.

Poor relations with the workers have negative effects on the foreman himself, the workers and the commercial results.

Problems in management style can result in:

- Problems in carrying out the duties of an industrial foreman
- Decline in production and/or loss of quality
- Excessive demands and disappointments
- Decreasing productivity
- Increasing costs
- Increasing worker turnover
- Increase in absence and illness
- Lower worker motivation
- Dissatisfaction of individual workers and teams
- Damaged team work and frequent conflict
- An increase in complaints
- A lowering of the members of staff's readiness to cooperate
- Employees with "inner resignation"
- Increasing consumption of alcohol
- A poor working atmosphere
- A lack of identification with the company
- Loss of reputation in the company right up to the danger of losing his or her own position

The industrial foreman is confronted with both technical and leadership tasks.

The technical tasks might be:

- Securing the production process
- Supervising the production concerning quantity and quality
- Making equipment available
- Maintaining equipment
- Working alongside other locations
- Quality assurance
- Safeguarding the economical efficiency
- Helping to introduce new technology
- Helping to design the work in a rational way which is suitable for people
- Carrying out measures to improve safety at work

The leadership tasks of an industrial foreman can include:

- Helping to choose personnel
- Helping new workers settle in
- Delegation of tasks to the employees suitable
- Giving correct instructions
- Securing team work between the employees
- Informing the employees about the aims of the company
- Motivating the employees
- Giving recognition and criticism
- Supporting employees
- Helping employees to complete their tasks
- Evaluating employees
- Training employees
- Representing the concerns and requests of the employees
- Furtherance of group cohesion

**Note:** Leadership duties have the same status as technical duties.

### 6.3 The character and authority of an industrial foreman

The following are elements of a supervisor's personality and thus are **prerequisites** for efficient leadership:

- **Self-confidence** in one's own knowledge and values and the ability to convince others of these while being practical and collegiate
- **Self-assurance** in technical and social concerns without letting this become arrogance or playing on the role as supervisor
- **Authenticity** in words and deeds in order to respond correctly as a role model
- **Leadership** and the readiness to carry this out as much as possible with cooperative behaviour
- **the same behaviour** towards superiors and employees, i.e. not "crawling to those above" and "kicking those below"
- **Fairness to and readiness to take on responsibility** for employees
- **Sociability and readiness to communicate** which shows itself in openness to the employees

- **Open-mindedness** (also when dealing with employees' personal questions)
- Willingness **to believe** in the employees' effectiveness and desire to perform and to **delegate tasks**
- **Personal maturity**, displayed in the ability to make decisions and evaluations and to defend them; even against superiors
- The ability to give **recognition** and **criticism** clearly and objectively
- The ability to recognise **conflicts**, to deal with them and to actively search for **solutions**.
- **The ability to persuade** people without resorting to using one's position

**A clear and predictable management style is indispensable!**

The personality of a leader and their management style stamp the authority of a supervisor. By the term "**authority**" we mean the not only the respect and esteem held for him or her but also the ability to carry out what is necessary. A frequent differentiation between **types of authority** is: occupational (functional) authority, technical authority and personal authority.

In this context, the competence of the foreman plays a large role.

We differentiate between:

- **Personal competence**
- **Technical competence**
- **Methodological competence**
- **Social competence**

Personal competence includes, for example:

- One's own norms and values
- Critical faculties
- Creativity
- Open mindedness
- Willingness to learn
- Ability to cope with pressure
- Motivation
- Responsibility
- Initiative

Technical competence includes, for example:

- Technical skills
- Technical knowledge
- Technical engagement

Methodological competence includes, for example:

- Ability to plan effectively
- Ability to transfer
- Problem solving
- Ability to make decisions
- Ability to acquire information



Social competence includes, for example:

- Ability to work in a team
- Social responsibility
- Helpfulness
- Fairness/willingness to cooperate
- Awareness of the working environment
- Ability to work independently
- Communication skills
- Ability to delegate

All supervisors should consider their own behaviour, their system of values and their personal characteristics.

The following questions should be asked when doing this sort of self analysis:

- Do I understand my own behaviour?
- Do I understand my personality profile?
- Do I understand the effect of my personality on the employees under my command?

## 6.4 Management style

By management style, we mean the supervisor's behaviour with the employees, specifically the long-term stable pattern of observable behaviour including his or her basic attitude.

We generally differentiate between three main styles of management:

- autocratic,
- laissez-faire: "the non-decider",
- cooperative/democratic

The **autocratic management style** is based solely on the power associated with the relevant position in the company, i.e. just on the properties of being a supervisor.

**All the important decisions are taken by the supervisor.**

**The problem with this management style** is that the employees are led to be less independent, have less initiative, be less active and to be resigned, uncritical and to behave like a bystanders.

On the other hand, the **cooperative management style tries** to involve the employees in the decision making process as much as possible, and to make the decisions made as transparent and clearly reasoned as possible. The management comes from the knowledge that smooth business processes depend on the **team work of all the members of staff, groups and departments**. Reasoning and decision making is carried out by the leadership.

The advantages of this cooperative management style are the strong sense of initiative and the high level of identification of the employees with the aims of the department/company. Such a management style is the only way to ensure:

- intellectual independence,
- the rewards of decision making and responsibility,
- motivation,
- open mindedness,
- the ability to think critically,
- critical faculties and the ability to make decisions.

When considering the laissez-faire **management style** or **indifferent style** we are not really talking about a management style because actually it is about not managing (everyone is left to manage themselves). The supervisor only reacts when it is required or someone asks for their opinion. It is a management style which has no chance of survival in everyday business unless it is accepted by the employees and taken on by them.

Summary: Advantages of the different management styles

Autocratic	Laissez-faire	Cooperative
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- fast decisions</li> <li>- effective for routines</li> <li>- necessary in crises</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- self-determination</li> <li>- self-checking</li> <li>- it depends on the employee concerned</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- good employee motivation</li> <li>- pushing the employees</li> <li>- discharging the management team</li> </ul>

Summary: Disadvantages of the different management styles

Autocratic	Laissez-faire	Cooperative
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- poor employee motivation</li> <li>- lack of employee independence</li> <li>- risk of "lonely" decisions</li> <li>- danger of bad decisions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- exploitation by immature workers</li> <li>- incorrect performance due to lack of monitoring</li> <li>- problems in the system or synergy</li> <li>- no checking of aims</li> <li>- danger of the development of informal leaders</li> <li>- the expertise of the supervisor is not used</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- slow decision making</li> <li>- not advisable when the employees are not fully mature</li> </ul>

Alongside the management styles normally displayed, one can also identify some **special types**:

■ **Patriarchal management style** (leading with experience and age)

The supervisor fulfils his or her roll using the advantage of larger experience or age. In this way, he or she builds their management style using the "father figure" image. The employees are fixed on his or her ideas and attitudes but also want his or her goodwill. The basic structure is like that of the autocratic management style.

■ **Charismatic management style** (leading with enthusiasm)

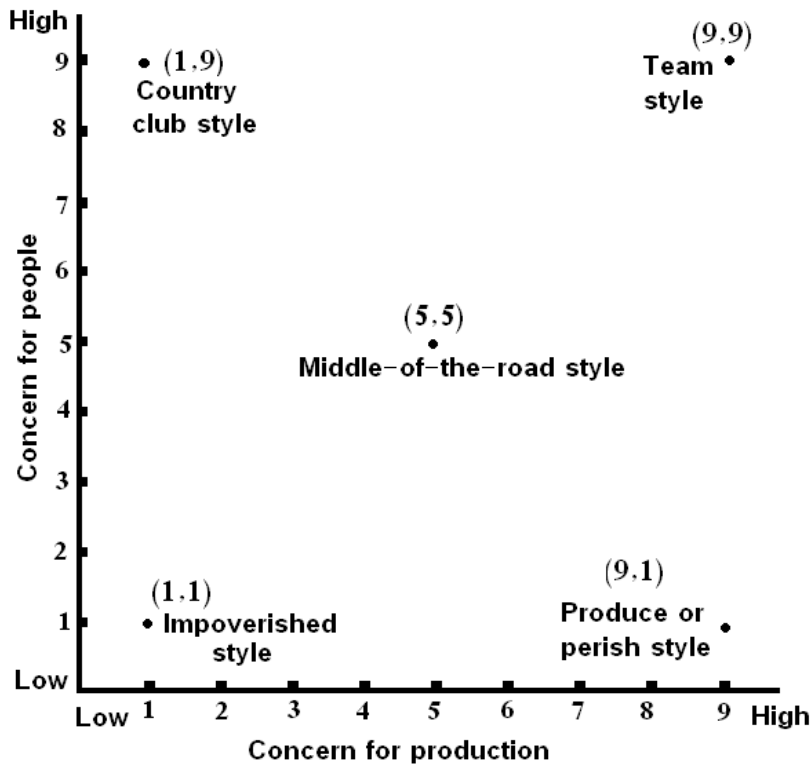
The supervisor leads alone and only due to his or her exciting style, with which he or she manages to enthuse the employees about the aims. Critical objections are not even considered by the employees due to the extremely elevated example of the supervisor's personality.

■ **Friendly style** (leading as a misconceived collegiality)

This management style uses collegiality as the leadership principle. The role of the supervisor does not appear as a task, and is sometimes even denied. Decisions are made as "friends". This form of management often leads to conflict by missing out clarity in instructions and decisions.

## 6.4.1 The managerial grid according to Blake/Mouton

Blake and Mouton developed this one-dimensional model of management into a two dimensional one. They introduced two axes: "concern for people" and "concern for production".



**1.1 Behaviour:** In this management style, there is no pressure to perform, and the supervisor also does not care about the satisfaction of his or her employees.

(⇒ Laissez faire management style)

**1.9 Behaviour:** The interests of the employees dominate the supervisor's behaviour. There is no pressure to perform and this calls into question whether the aims of the company can be secured in the long term. (⇒ Friendly style)

**9.1 Behaviour:** The results of the activities are focussed on exclusively and the aims of the company are achieved purely with pressure to perform. The concerns of the employees are simply ignored. (⇒ Autocratic management style)

**9.9 Behaviour:** Here, the supervisor tries equally hard to satisfy the needs of the employees and to achieve the aims of the company. (⇒ Cooperative management style). Managers and supervisors should aim for this style.

### 6.4.1.1 Adapting management to the situation

The management styles described above reflect general patterns of behaviour.

A supervisor may use one type of management style more than the others due to his or her personal inclination, convictions or abilities. However, you should always make sure that the management style used fits the situation you are in. The individuality of the employees is another factor which should also be considered.

### 6.4.1.2 Cooperative and participative management

This should be a basic setting for an industrial foreman. It is characterised by

- openness and honesty from the supervisor;
- mutual trust between the supervisor and employees;
- making sure that all employees are treated fairly;
- impartiality when dealing with employees;
- tact and courtesy when dealing with employees;
- the creation and maintenance of a balanced relationship with the employees, which should not degenerate into being distant or approachable;
- treatment of the employees which fits both the situations and the persons involved;
- encouraging the employees to suggest improvements and the use of an employee suggestion system;
- the careful introduction of innovation into the business and making arrangements with the employees;
- using the management tools the supervisor has available in the correct situations;
- strict adherence to the rights of participation and of co-determination set in law.

### 6.4.2 Guiding principles for management

The following guiding principles can be used to orient one's self:

1. Managers and supervisors need to recognise the particular responsibility they have due to their roles. They need to behave as a role model and be constantly up to date in technical matters. Their commitment and attitude to tasks are decisive for the motivation of the employees.
2. Managers and supervisors should develop initiative, creativity and assertiveness, and base their actions on both production and social aims. Risks must be considered with responsibility in mind.
3. The pace of technological, commercial and business changes means that managers and supervisors must be constantly trained.
4. Managers and supervisors should keep abreast of socio-political developments.
5. Managers and supervisors should deal with the responsible employees in their area of responsibility and let them make decisions in order to develop their sense of responsibility and support their identification with the tasks.
6. A prerequisite for successful work is informing the employees fully and in good time. The opportunity to debate should be given. Suggestions and criticism should be heeded and forwarded.

7. The supervisor should notice the personal motivation of each employee and try to understand it. He or she should make an effort to bring the individual motivations of the employees into unison with the shared objectives.
8. The supervisor has to speak to his or her employees, make the correlations with the overriding goals clear and explain the reasons for his or her decisions.
9. The supervisor makes decisions after consulting his or her employees. He or she takes account of their technical knowledge and concepts when making the decision.
10. Instructions are to be given by the direct superior. If a careful decision is essential, instructions can be given by higher up managers in special cases. In this case, the direct superior is to be informed immediately.
11. The supervisor must monitor the fulfilment of the work objectives and support the employees with tips and other measures.
12. The supervisor has to set up the workplace, equipment and the holiday times with both the care of the employees and the fulfilment of the work objectives in mind.
13. The supervisor should determine the positive possibilities of people and situations and then promote them. He or she should also recognise good performance, practise constructive criticism and combat grievances in a determined way.
14. Every supervisor is responsible for meeting the wishes of the employees after personally evaluating and discussing these wishes. In case of a conflict, he or she must offer the possibility of a discussion with the next highest superior.

## 7. COMMUNICATION SKILLS

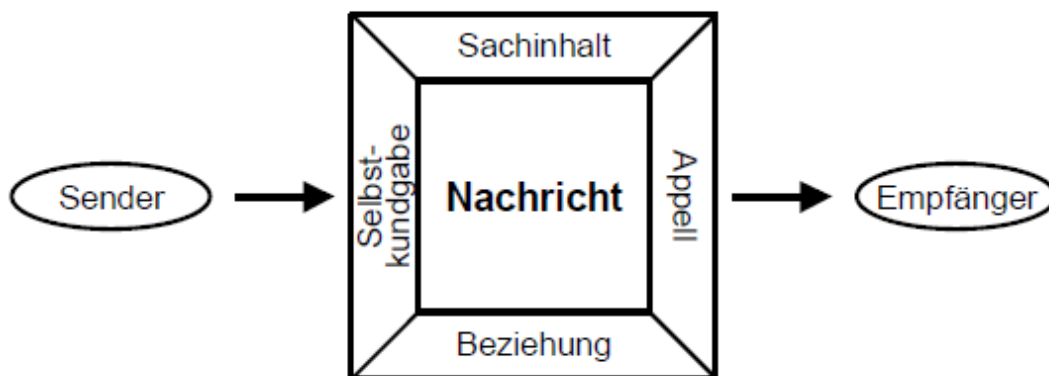
Communication skills can be seen as key skills in the commercial and administrative areas for every supervisor as part of their social skills. The approaches given should put the industrial foreman in a position to recognise general communication situations, to analyse them and draw conclusions from them.

### Definition:

In linguistics, communication is understood to be the exchange of messages via some system. Verbal communication requires a sender and receiver which communicate with each other using this system and a shared code.

This process may seem simple, but there are a multitude of possible problems which can always lead to problems in communication between two people.

### 7.1 Schulz von Thun's four-sides model



On the first side the sender fills the message with information.

The factual information is in the forefront here: data, facts, numbers and problems.

All information includes a signal which is meant to influence the receiver to get him or her to do something or not do something.

In addition, the sender discloses some information about him or herself. In every message a certain amount about the self is revealed.

This occurs on two levels:

- a conscious intentional presentation of one's self
- unintentional, unconscious self-revelation.

What is decisive here is the way that the sender expresses certain things, the choice of words, the stress and the accompanying gestures. Although during self-revelation the sender only reveals information about him or herself, information is also given out in each message about the relationship to the receiver and how he or she is viewed by the sender. The self-revelation and the relationship sides are closely related and are strongly connected to non-verbal signals.

If we look at the message's square from the point of view of the receiver, we see this even more. The receiver listens to exactly the same four sides (almost as though he or she has four ears) which are being sent by the sender.

He or she tries to understand the factual information. By listening to the self-revelation side, the receiver attempts to find out what is opposite him or her and how they are feeling.

The receiver is particularly sensitive to the relationship side.

This is the side which contains the most misunderstandings, as the receiver understands (or thinks that he or she understands) the way the sender feels about him or her, what this person wants from him or her or how this person feels about the interaction.

The message is evaluated by the receiver to that effect, so that he or she tries to judge what is expected of him or her.

What makes communication between people so difficult is that the receiver generally has the free choice of which side of the message to react to. We think of the receiver having an ear for each side of the message square. The conversation can take many courses, depending on which ear has priority as the "receiver" at the time.

Often, the receiver is not conscious of the fact that the message is being received through one of his or her ears setting the stage for communication problems.

## 7.2 Paul Watzlawick's axioms

An axiom is a basic principle which needs no proof.

Paul Watzlawick drew up 5 axioms to explain human communication:

1. **One Cannot Not Communicate**

If a woman in a doctor's waiting room is staring at the floor the whole time, one could think that she is not communicating. However, she does. She is able to communicate non-verbally to the other patients that she wants to have no contact.

2. **Communication = Content + Relationship**

There are always relationships between people, though they are often registered subliminally. Gestures, facial expression and tone of voice strengthen reactions and perceptions.

3. **Communication is always cause and effect.**

In communication, there is always action and reaction. A whole range of factors plays a role here too (current condition, relations, situation, etc.).

4. **Human communication has analogue and digital modalities**

Communication is ambiguous. The same gesture can have many different meanings. There are, for example, happy and sardonic smiles.

5. **All Communication is Symmetrical or Complementary**

This means that there are also hierarchies in communication. There are those above and those below.

### 7.3 Communication summary

- There is language and there is body language (verbal and non-verbal communication). Both must work in unison otherwise you will not be believed!
- Speak clearly! When you are sometimes asked to repeat yourself you have problems here!
- Be polite and friendly. Additional words like "please" or "gladly" work!
- Do not use abbreviations, talk everything through fully, particularly when dealing with guests or customers.
- Do not use technical terms!
- Avoid foreign words!
- Be responsive to the person you are speaking to!
- Say what you mean, no-one can read your mind!
- Take heed of the other's mood!
- Do not be over-sensitive!

And smile! 😊

### 7.4 Meetings with employees:

The times for meeting employees:

Regular meetings	Special occasions
Performance appraisal interview Personnel development review (support meeting) Goal-setting interview Goal monitoring	Introductory meeting at a new workplace Instruction meeting Motivational meeting Feedback meeting (recognition and criticism) Meeting to resolve grievances Disciplinary meeting Meeting after an absence Termination interview

The benefits of meetings with employees:

#### For the employee:

- Communicating one's own beliefs, aims and desires
- Understanding the possibilities for personal development
- Agreeing upon concrete support measures



**For the supervisor:**

- Debating of the performance and behaviour of the employee
- Getting information to improve ones own leadership skills
- Improving the motivation and cooperation within the company

**For the company:**

- Optimising the use of employees
- Putting the right worker at the right time in the right place
- Improving the quality of the work
- Increasing customer satisfaction
- Increasing operational productivity
- Increasing the sense of responsibility for the whole company and its future development
- Targeted mediation and putting the company's basic principles and aims into practice.
- The satisfaction of the employees

## 7.5 Guidelines for meetings with employees

**Introduction**

- Politeness and friendliness are basic requirements of every meeting, it does not matter what the occasion is.
- Go up to your employees, greet them and thank them for coming.
- Sit down with them at a suitable table and make the meaning of the meeting clear.
- Check whether the employee is "intellectually present".
- Make personal contact and contribute to a positive and open meeting.

**Outlining the meeting**

- Outline the reason for the meeting and the aims.
- Make it clear what will happen in the meeting.
- Say how long the meeting will last.

**The employee's point of view**

- Ideally, you will have asked the employee to prepare for the meeting when you arranged the time.
- At this point, give the employee the chance to make their point of view clear.
- Do not interrupt the employee during this section but rather make notes of points you would like to discuss later.

**Your own point of view**

- However, you should ask for clarification if there is something you do not understand.
- Now express your own point of view by agreeing with, correcting or implementing your employee's point of view.

**Relieving frustration**

- Give the employee the chance to air his or her feelings frankly.
- At this point, do not consider the facts but accept the emotional content of his or her statements.
- Do not comment on what is said in this way.
- Lead the conversation back to the central theme.

**The central theme**

- Together with the employee, work through your differences in opinions.
- Try to find the causes for these different ways of looking at things together.
- Search for solutions which are acceptable to both people involved.
- Be open to the point of view of the employee and try to understand it.

- Do not beat about the bush, but rather express your point of view clearly and adopt a position.
- Be flexible enough to change your opinion if relevant considerations come up in the conversation.
- Make summaries and make sure of partial agreements.
- Keep your eye on the aims of the meeting.

### Finishing a meeting

- Summarise all the important points.
- Agree on the results and put this in writing. (Who is doing what, when?)
- Indicate the differences and the compromises reached once more.

### Evaluating a meeting

- Which measures must be taken?
- Which aims were reached?
- What new information do you have about the employee and what do you need to think about in future meetings?
- What impression did the employee get of you during the meeting?
- Did you behave properly during the meeting? What would you do differently next time?

The following principles and forms of behaviour can help the supervisor to get closer to the ideal for meetings with employees which are oriented towards goals and the people themselves.

#### 1. **Patience, acceptance, helpfulness**

- listen patiently
- take your time
- do not interrupt
- help the other person to express themselves
- leave pauses and time to think
- listen and examine criticism
- find the positives
- do not take contradiction badly

#### 2. **"Personal" tone when dealing with people, loosening up**

Practise "informal" communication as well as "formal" communication: relaxed, not excitable or punctilious; casual (say exactly what comes into your head without being disrespectful).

#### 3. **Authenticity and comprehensibility**

- openness, honesty, authenticity
- no facade, without showing off
- express yourself understandably and clearly, do not hedge
- speak concretely and graphically
- talk the other person's language (orient your conversation on the receiver without trying to curry favour)

#### 4. **Sovereignty, self-assurance**

- do not take problems or criticism personally
- be above pettiness
- do not immediately fend off remarks about you personally
- carry out the conversation in a self confident, cool and self-assured manner

#### 5. **Communicativeness**

- find every possibility for dialogue
- do not avoid one each other

## **6. Independence, readiness for responsibility**

- do not duck responsibility
- admit mistakes and take responsibility for them

## **7. Expressing feelings, working through feelings**

- express your feelings openly
- tolerate it when others temporarily do not want to communicate
- do not push it
- think about how you are feeling yourself
- ask yourself how the other is feeling (do not just interpret their behaviour)

## **8. Using "I"**

- get behind your own statements
- use the "I" form in messages
- do not hide behind forms like "one" or "we"
- speak directly to people

## **9. Directness**

- respond to problems immediately
- do not "bottle it up"

## **10. Being prepared for confrontation and conflict, and being tolerant**

- do not sweep conflicts under the carpet, but deal with them openly and frankly
- announce your own desires and requests
- make it clear if you are shocked, angry or troubled
- do not aim for harmony at all costs

## 8. CONFLICTS

Every supervisor has to get the best possible results for his or her company within his or her area of responsibility and at the same time approach the employees as much as possible. When people have differing interests, conflicts can occur. These must be recognised and dealt with appropriately.

Due to the differing technical or personal interests, it is completely normal for conflicts to arise. "By the word conflict (from the Latin 'confligere' meaning 'to strike together'), we mean the coming together of differing contrasting interests, ambitions or motives."

Conflicts often lead to disagreements, tension and arguments. This reduces the performance influencing the extent to which the aims of the company are reached and can waste valuable materials. These experiences leave the mark of conflict on both individuals and also the social interaction in the company.

On the other hand, conflicts can set new energy free and stimulate people positively. Due to the strife between differing opinions, new ways are found, creative methods introduced and further development is supported (Heraclitus: war is the father of all things).

Conflicts lead to self-knowledge, consideration of ones own position or situation and thus raising ones own level of competence.

Handling conflicts correctly decreases tension and is a prerequisite for a change in organisation in order to create satisfaction. The positive effects of a conflict are often not seen as coming from the conflict, but are registered as a result of motivation. Regulating conflicts is also an essential prerequisite for mutual trust between supervisors and employees.

A one-sided, negative way of looking at a conflict often clouds our judgement so we do not see these positive sides. If one accepts thinking in opposites, and puts it into practice, one can see two sides to everything. The subjective experience is crucial, not the "objective" issue of contention.

It is clear here that generally in conflicts there is only "relative" truth. Every participant is in the right in their own subjective view. In many cases, one understands more of the truth when one listens to the other side or one has the ability to put themselves in the situation the other person finds themselves in.

### 8.1 Evidence of conflict

Conflicts are natural but are, nevertheless, important factors in a supervisor/employee relationship. Identifying them and handling them is therefore an important leadership task. Conflicts are normally accompanied by emotion. The varied reactions to conflicts are an attempt to lower the tension and regain balance. Humans develop similar defence mechanisms when the desire to follow one's needs is hindered.

These are some of the signals (defence mechanisms):

- **Aggression:** quick-tempered manner, insulting speech, mobbing, interrupting, disparaging non-verbal manner, making intentional mistakes.
- **Unreasonableness:** self-opinionated manner, working to rule, no willingness to do overtime.
- **Disinterest:** dropping out, sitting back, avoiding constructive criticism, inner resignation, changing priorities to private life, not contributing ones own ideas, shirking, careless handling of materials, poor work results.
- **Escape:** avoiding contact, refusing contact, taciturnity, calling in sick and time off.
- **Resistance:** sulky manner, fault finding in the supervisor or peers, constant argument or protests, refusing the supervisor, poor work results and more complaints.

These signals can rarely be interpreted in only one way. If they only occur for a short time, they do not necessarily indicate a conflict. The supervisor must beware of reacting too quickly but should keep the situation in mind.

## 8.2 The causes and progression of conflicts

### Causes / Types

Evaluating the type of conflict and its causes is indispensable for dealing with a conflict. There are many different ways of classifying types of conflict which are generally incomplete and contradictory.

The most useful way of differentiating conflicts is to divide them into those which occur within a person (intrapersonal) and between people (interpersonal) as well as those which occur within or between groups.

The most common causes of conflict are:

#### 1. Personal friction

An antipathy and personal tension exists between persons, or stems from differing personal characteristics.

#### 2. Organisational problems

This includes when individual positions in a hierarchy are unclear within the structure of the company (e.g. who is responsible to whom) or the lack of opportunity for promotion.

#### 3. Technical development

Bringing in new working methods or carrying out rationalisation.

#### 4. The principle of rationality

All resources including the employees are subordinate to the aims of the business and maximise profit.

#### 5. Restricting the employee's room for manoeuvre

When an employee's room for manoeuvre is restricted due to tight regulations, there is resistance. The employee involved come up against the regulations, overriding their expertise which in turn takes the sense out of the regulations. This can cause conflicts between people and in the company.

#### 6. Unclear power relationships

In many companies, it is not completely clear who has the last word when it comes to cooperation. Sometimes, setting this out in the organisation of the process has been forgotten. The work conflict is then interpreted as a struggle for power. Sometimes it has been intentionally left unclear because one wants the two decision makers to have acute conflicts leading to a solution created in a new, constructive way.

This should, however, be an exception. In general, tasks, areas of expertise and responsibility should be clearly expressed and defined.

### The progression of conflicts

Conflicts have their own dynamics. At the start of the process, there are desired states, intentions or plans whose realisation leads to one or more of the persons involved feeling compromised.

This means that two people or groups notice that that which they really want miscarries because the other party does not go along with it. There is a latent conflict if the conflict is not yet observable or perceivable. Whether a conflict then actually breaks out depends on further conditions. Firstly, talks on the subject do not lead to agreement. This leads to resentment.

The transition from being a potential conflict to an actual conflict is determined by latent tension (threat potential), individual personal characteristics, the effects expected and the power available. The relationship level is affected and communication with the others is therefore significantly reduced or made more aggressive in tone. Those within the groups come together more and accept more authoritative leadership.

### **The end of conflicts**

If the conflict is ended, for example by the intervention of a powerful person like a superior, one can notice differing interpersonal processes within the "winning" and "losing" groups.

The winning group is stabilised; one celebrates the victory and feels that one's opinions and sentiments have been validated.

The losing group has a tendency to disintegrate.

The interpersonal relationships loosen. Scapegoats are looked for within the group. In positive cases, if there is an ability for self-criticism and lessons are learned.

The job of the supervisor is to take reasonable measures against unproductive conflicts and deal with existing conflicts with tact.

As with many processes, conflicts have advantages and disadvantages.

#### **Advantages of conflicts:**

- Conflicts are a prerequisite for change.
- Conflicts release energy and activity.
- Conflicts create interest and the thirst for knowledge and ideas.
- Conflicts between groups encourage cohesion.
- Conflicts can lead to a reduction in tension.

#### **Then disadvantages of conflicts:**

- Extreme conflicts can lead to instability and chaos.
- Conflicts disrupt the flow and change the organisation.
- Extreme conflicts reduce trust and cause emotional behaviour.

## 8.3 How a supervisor can influence conflicts

### 8.3.1 Prevention

If conflicts are to be avoided, then the possible causes should be avoided or overcome. All those involved should therefore keep to certain rules to stop a conflict from developing. In particular, it is important to heed and take into account people's scopes of authority, the chain of command and to make sure that information and explanations are given at the right time to all involved concerning all important facts. Regularly held meetings will usually make sure that enough information flows to prevent ill feelings.

What employees...		
must know	should know	want to know
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>– the execution of their work</li><li>– the results of their work</li><li>– legal, negotiated, and operationally agreed rules</li><li>– questions about payment</li><li>– holiday rules</li><li>– important dates</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>– important operational data</li><li>– operational connections with reference to their work</li><li>– important business questions</li><li>– the trends in the development of the company</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>– knowledge about business changes in good time</li><li>– the introduction of new production techniques</li><li>– personnel news</li></ul>

### 8.3.2 Intervention

When conflicts cannot be avoided, they must be resolved. They can, however, only be overcome if those involved are able and willing to change their behaviour and accept compromises. Otherwise, the conflict will have to be decided from a higher position in favour of one of the parties.

A conflict meeting which is done positively helps the parties to understand each other and come closer together. It clears up misunderstandings, remove provisos, make the parties' own requirements known, and helps them understand the partner's expectations.

Without the willingness to communicate, conflicts cannot be settled. The chances for success increase when those involved follow some basic rules. The supervisor is particularly important here!

### 8.3.3 Basic rules for resolving conflicts

These are:

#### **Mutual respect**

The people involved must feel that they are equally respected and taken seriously.

#### **Mutual trust**

A positive basic attitude to the partner makes finding fault in one's self as well as checking one's own manner and learning from one's mistakes easier.

#### **Understanding the situation**

Developing solutions together requires the people involved to show understanding and to be able to empathise.

#### **Attentive listening**

It is not enough to speak one's own mind; one must also listen to the other person and let them speak theirs.

### Politeness and fairness

Difficulties in interpersonal relationships can only be overcome if those involved keep their self-possession, stay polite and fair and argue calmly and objectively.

### Readiness to compromise

Before agreement can be reached, there must be the readiness to make compromises and meet each other in the middle. Those involved must be willing to accommodate each other and give way.

## 8.3.4 Some further principles for managing conflicts

- Try to solve conflicts with your heart and understanding, not by force.
- Do not make a mountain out of a molehill, by which we mean do not exaggerate; do not bear grudges and bring up the past; do not poison the atmosphere at work with inappropriate reproach and avoid making generalisations and impersonal expressions.
- Do not beat around the bush, but rather get to the heart of what you want to say.
- Do without hidden allusions and negative intimations.
- Do not just see the bad side of your opposite numbers, but also the good sides.
- Do not make negative comparisons with other people; do not talk behind people's backs or speak ill of them.
- Do not be self-opinionated or obstinate, but rather show empathy and make concessions.
- Praise others in their presence, and also reproach people in their presence.
- Always take care to be sincere and tactful.
- Learn from your own mistakes and experience.
- Be able to forgive and be ready to reconcile.

## 8.3.5 Summary - conflicts

Whether a conflict is seen in retrospect as positive, neutral or negative depends to a large extent on how it is handled. Handling a conflict correctly and successfully is the best way to set up relationships positively and strengthen trust (compare with the section on motivation).

Despite all one's efforts, conflicts will remain an everyday experience. Even after an "optimal" resolution of a conflict, traces of the conflict will remain in the minds of those involved. However, the trust between them will be solidified if it is clear that it is not about complaining about the **past**, but rather to improve the **future**.