Chapter-1
Introduction

“In the struggle for survival, the fittest win out at the expense of their rivals, because they succeed in adapting themselves best to their environment.” – Charles Darwin

This rule is applicable for any “person”, be it a business entity or an individual. The companies, to prove their competency in the highly competitive market, have to come up with innovative ways of resource management. At the same time, ‘Globalization’ has become a catchword, and has given birth to tremendous challenges in today’s business world. So, HR managers can no longer simply adopt past processes for the future, which resulted in the number of changes from recruitment and team selection to performance measurement and training. Globalization comprises two major developments: first, production and services are produced for a global market and they compete world-wide; second, companies’ work-forces become increasingly global, i.e., ‘culturally diverse’.

With respect to the delivery of global products and services, the consequences of globalization are most obvious within direct employee-customer interactions. What is regarded as good individual performance in these interactions varies largely between different cultures. When companies ignore these differences and implement globally the identical selection, training, and performance evaluation procedures, they might miss those features and behaviours which are perceived as the most appropriate in a specific culture, i.e., those which constitute high individual performance. For example, individuals in culturally diverse teams and expatriates are faced with very specific requirements. Individual performance in these settings is predicted by a complex set of specific variables (Ones and Viswesvaran, 1997). This specific set of variables, however, might be less predictive for individual performance in mono-cultural settings. Moreover, performance appraisal issues differ largely across cultures (Cox and Tung, 1997). Thus, globally operating companies are faced with great challenges when trying to implement an identical performance appraisal system world-wide.

Apart from Globalization, due to the increased competition level, which had never been in the past, the employers are focusing more attention on increasing productivity to reduce the cost of production. Cost reduction can be attained by procuring and maintaining efficient and effective work-forces, so performance management has become very confronting task for the HR managers. Performance measurement is now considered
as the heart and soul of the performance-based management. Performance measurement is
the ongoing monitoring and reporting of programme accomplishments, particularly
progress towards pre-established goals. It is typically conducted by programme or agency
management. Performance measures may address the type or level of programme
activities conducted (process), the direct products and services delivered by programme
(outputs) and the results of those products and services delivered by programme
(outcomes). Performance measurement systems succeed when the organization’s strategy
and performance measures are in alignment and when senior managers convey the
organization’s mission, vision, values and strategic direction to employees and external
stakeholders.

In the current era, the performance measures need to be changed to some extent so as to
cope up with the current competitive environment. The companies should focus not only
on training the employees to improve their performance but study the psychology of people
at work. Apart from measuring the employee performance on the bases of the products and
services delivered, the entire spectrum of humans should be studied to determine their
performance. The organizations should not only focus on improving the technical
knowledge, skills and attitudes but also the behavioural aspects of the individuals. So, the
concepts of industrial psychology can be a useful aid to the efficient management of people
at work. Understanding the behavioural aspects at managerial levels can outline a better
organizational climate for each and every employee of the organization. Presently, the
companies have to focus not only on technical parameters for measuring performance but
to study the behavioural aspects that tend to affect performance such as emotional maturity,
self-confidence, leadership skills, etc.

1.1 Performance Management
The evolution of the concept of performance management as a Human Resource
Management model reflects a change of emphasis in organizations away from command-
and-control toward a facilitation model of leadership (Flippo, 1995). This change has been
accompanied by recognition of the importance to the employee and the institution of
relating work performance to the strategic or long-term and overarching mission of the
organization as a whole. The performance management process provides an opportunity
for the employee and performance manager to discuss development goals and jointly
create a plan for achieving those goals. Development plans should contribute to
organizational goals and the professional growth of the work-force. Critical to the success
of this new model, a flexible attitude in the face of continuous and rigid change is most essential. For performance managers, this changing environment offers many new challenges and opportunities.

The position of a manager in the present day involves a lot of responsibility and stress (Nickols, 2008). Managers, today, are expected to produce results irrespective of the fact whether the situation is in favour of them or not. Managers need to think of solutions for the various challenges that crop up every now and then. Challenges like limited budget, reassignment of staff, reorganization of units, withdrawal of finance, lack of availability of resources, government policies, etc. keep cropping up every now and then. According to Cawood (1992) the importance of people who have the ability to lead masses has increased all the more in order to survive the impact of current challenges and future changes. Kanter (1997) agrees with Cawood (1992) and asserts that for companies to survive, they should pay attention to human factors. The present market situation is very different from what it was earlier. Not just the company’s layout, machinery, tools, etc. need to be updated and modified but very importantly the human resource of an organization also has to be assessed and trained at regular intervals. All the concepts and tools such as power, structure, hierarchy, ownership, and incentives that have dominated and shaped our thinking will have to be re-examined (Cawood and Gibbon, 1985). Thereby, denoting how necessary it is to have the right kind of managers who will lead the company towards growth.

The concept of a high performing manager differs among the organizations. An ideal Japanese manager is defined in terms of both performance and maintenance orientations, namely, a manager who not only leads the group towards goal attainment but also preserves its social stability (Misumi and Peterson, 1985).

An important view observed as that a good manager is one who is a good leader, a motivator and one who manages time and money efficiently. Effective managers are ones who are pragmatic, dynamic, warm-hearted, attentive, easy-going, persevering, emotionally mature and stable (Chakrabarti and Kundu, 1984; Howell et al., 1997).

In the following discussion, certain essential traits required for a good manager have been identified (Thomas and Pandey, 2009).

**People-oriented:** It is extremely important that a manager be “People-oriented”, i.e., he/she should focus on building, guiding and motivating the team that he/she is going to lead. McShane and Von Glinow (2000) revealed good leadership as the process of
influencing people and providing an environment for them to achieve team and organizational objectives. It is also important that they spend sufficient time in building relations and developing bonds. Very often managers are so caught up in attending meetings, putting together reports that they miss out on spending quality time with their teams. Viewing the team as humans rather than source of getting work done would be an indicator of a good manager.

**Thinking out of the Box:** This quality refers to the ability of coming up with original and novel ideas to solve a problem. Originality of thought as defined by Couger (1995) is the capacity to produce unusual ideas, solve problems in unusual ways, and use things and situations in an unusual manner. Thinking of alternate approaches to help develop work processes is important. Creatively handling a problem is essential. Guilford (1957) argues that creative steps are necessary in solving new problems.

**Performance Driven:** It is extremely important that a manager understand the Key Performance Indicators of his job. Apart from knowing “What” the different key performance indicators are, it is important that he/she understands “Why” these indicators have been framed and what their importance is. Once this understanding set in, the “How’s” of implementing these indicators is the next most important requirement. Bass and Avolio, (1997) and Avolio (1988) further argue that Transformational Leaders stimulate their followers’ efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing organizational problems, and approaching old situations in new ways, thereby indicating that another essential requirement of a good manager is to motivate the employees to move towards high performance.

Managerial talent is a very important requirement and a major challenge in many organizations. Das (1987) states that an efficient manager is one who sets an example by personal qualities, job knowledge, business acumen, and management ability. A manager with all the above traits can greatly boost employee performance and help in the development of the organization. Organizations nowadays are willing to spend huge amounts on Manager Development course and seminars. A good manager, therefore, is a real asset to the company.

### 1.1.1 Individual Behaviour and Job Performance

Campbell, in 1990, described the literature on the structure and content of performance “a virtual desert.” However, during the past 10 to 15 years, one can witness an increasing
interest in developing a definition of performance and specifying the performance concept. Thinkers have agreed upon that when conceptualizing performance one has to differentiate between an action (i.e., behavioural) aspect and an outcome aspect of performance (Campbell, 1990; Campbell et al., 1993; Kanfer, 1990; Roe, 1999). The behavioural aspect refers to what an individual does in the work situation. It encompasses behaviours such as assembling parts of a car engine, selling personal computers, teaching basic reading skills to elementary school children, or performing heart surgery. Not every behaviour is subsumed under the performance concept, but only behaviour which is relevant for the organizational goals: “Performance is what the organization hires one to do, and do well” (Campbell et al., 1993). Thus, performance is not defined by the action itself but by judgemental and evaluative processes (Ilgen and Schneider, 1991; Motowidlo et al., 1997). Moreover, only actions which can be scaled, i.e., measured, are considered to constitute performance (Campbell et al., 1993).

The outcome aspect refers to the consequence or result of the individual’s behaviour. The employee behaviours may result in outcomes such as numbers of engines assembled, pupils’ reading proficiency, sales figures, or number of successful heart operations. In many situations, the behavioural and outcome aspects are related empirically, but they do not overlap completely. Outcome aspects of performance depend also on factors other than the individual’s behaviour. For example, imagine a teacher who delivers a perfect reading lesson (behavioural aspect of performance), but one or two of his pupils nevertheless do not improve their reading skills because of their intellectual deficits (outcome aspect of performance). Or, imagine a sales employee in the telecommunication business who shows only mediocre performance in the direct interaction with potential clients (behavioural aspect of performance), but nevertheless achieves high sales figure for mobile phones (outcome aspect of performance) because of a general high demand for mobile phone equipment (Sonnentag and Frese, 2001).

In practice, it might be difficult to describe the action aspect of performance without any reference to the outcome aspect. Because not any action but only actions relevant for organizational goals constitute performance, one needs criteria for evaluating the degree to which an individual’s performance meets the organizational goals. It is difficult to imagine how to conceptualize such criteria without simultaneously considering the outcome aspect of performance at the same time. Thus, the emphasis on performance being an action does not really solve all the problems. Moreover, despite the general
agreement that the behavioural and the outcome aspect of performance have to be differentiated, authors do not completely agree about which of these two aspects should be labelled ‘performance.’

1.1.2 Performance: A Multi-dimensional Concept
Performance is a multi-dimensional concept. On the most basic level, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) distinguish between task and contextual performance. Task performance refers to an individual’s proficiency with which he or she performs activities which contribute to the organization’s ‘technical core’. This contribution can be both direct (e.g., in the case of production workers), or indirect (e.g., in the case of managers or staff personnel). Contextual performance refers to activities which do not contribute to the technical core but which support the organizational, social, and psychological environment in which organizational goals are pursued. Contextual performance includes not only behaviours such as helping co-workers or being a reliable member of the organization, but also making suggestions about how to improve work procedures.

Borman and Motowidlo (1997), and Motowidlo and Schmit (1999) have highlighted that there are three basic assumptions associated with the differentiation between task and contextual performance:

(1) Activities relevant for task performance vary between jobs whereas contextual performance activities are relatively similar across jobs.
(2) Task performance is related to ability, whereas contextual performance is related to personality and motivation.
(3) Task performance is more prescribed and constitutes in-role behaviour, whereas contextual performance is more discretionary and extra-role.

Task performance in itself is multi-dimensional. For example, among the eight performance components proposed by Campbell (1990), there are five factors which refer to task performance (Campbell et al., 1996; Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999): (1) job-specific task proficiency, (2) non-job-specific task proficiency, (3) written and oral communication proficiency, (4) supervision—in the case of a supervisory or leadership position—and partly (5) management/administration. Each of these factors comprises a number of sub factors which may vary between different jobs. For example, the management/administration factor comprises sub dimensions such as (a) planning and organizing, (b) guiding, directing, and motivating subordinates and providing feedback,
(c) training, coaching, and developing subordinates, (d) communicating effectively and keeping others informed (Borman and Brush, 1993).

In recent past years, researchers paid attention to specific aspects of task performance, such as innovation and customer-oriented behaviour became increasingly important as organizations put greater emphasis on customer service (Anderson and King, 1993; Bowen and Waldman, 1999).

Researchers have developed a number of contextual performance concepts. On a very general level, one can differentiate between two types of contextual performance: behaviours which aim primarily at the smooth functioning of the organization as it is at the present moment, and proactive behaviours which aim at changing and improving work procedures and organizational processes. The ‘stabilizing’ contextual performance behaviours include organizational citizenship behaviour with its five components altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, courtesy, and sportsmanship (Organ, 1988); some aspects of organizational spontaneity, e.g., helping co-workers, protecting the organization (George and Brief, 1992); and of pro-social organizational behaviour (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). The more pro-active behaviours include personal initiative (Frese et al., 1997; Frese et al., 2000); Frese et al., 1996), voice (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998), taking charge (Morrison and Phelps, 1999). Thus, contextual performance is not a single set of uniform behaviours, but is in itself a multi-dimensional concept (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998).

**Relationship between Task and Contextual Performance**

Task and contextual performance can be easily distinguished at the conceptual level. There is also increasing evidence that these two concepts can also be separated empirically (Morrison and Phelps, 1999; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996; Williams and Anderson, 1991). Task performance can be predicted by factors such as job dedication and interpersonal facilitation which contribute uniquely to overall performance in managerial jobs (Conway, 1999). Moreover, contextual performance is predicted by other individual variables, not only task performance. Abilities and skills tend to predict task performance, while personality and related factors tend to predict contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Hattrup et al., 1998; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994). However, specific aspects of contextual performance such as personal initiative have been shown to be predicted both by ability and motivational factors (Fay and Frese, 2000).
1.1.3 Performance: A Dynamic Concept

Individual performance is not stable over time. Variability in an individual’s performance over time reflects (1) learning processes and other long-term changes, and (2) temporary changes in performance.

Individual performance changes as a result of learning as various studies have shown that performance initially increases with increasing time spent in a specific job and later reaches a plateau (Avolio, Waldman et al., 1990; McDaniel et al., 1988; Quinones et al., 1995). Moreover, the processes underlying performance change over time. During early phases of skill acquisition, performance largely relies on ‘controlled processing’, the availability of declarative knowledge and the optimal allocation of limited attentional resources, whereas later in the skill acquisition process, performance largely relies on automatic processing, procedural knowledge, and psychomotor abilities (Ackerman, 1988; Kanfer and Ackerman, 1989). To identify the processes underlying changes of job performance, Murphy (1989) differentiated between a transition and a maintenance stage. The transition stage occurs when individuals are new in a job and when the tasks are novel. The maintenance stage occurs when the knowledge and skills needed to perform the job are learned and when task accomplishment becomes automatic. For performing during the transition phase, cognitive ability is highly relevant. During the maintenance stage, cognitive ability becomes less important and dispositional factors (motivation, interests, values) increase in relevance. Performance changes over time are not invariable across individuals. There is increasing empirical evidence that individuals differ with respect to patterns of intra-individual change (Hofmann et al., 1992; Ployhard and Hakel, 1998; Zickar and Slaughter, 1999). These findings indicate that there is no uniform pattern of performance development over time.

Additionally, there is short-term variability in performance which is due to changes in an individual’s psycho-physiological state, including processing capacity across time (Kahneman, 1973). These changes may be caused by long working hours, disturbances of the circadian rhythm, or exposure to stress and may result in fatigue or in a decrease in activity. However, these states do not necessarily result in a performance decrease. Individuals are, for example, able to compensate for fatigue, be it by switching to different strategies or by increasing effort (Hockey, 1997; Sperandio, 1971).
1.1.4 Different Perspectives on Performance: Individual, Situational and Performance Regulation

Researchers have adopted various perspectives for studying performance. On the most general level one can differentiate between three different perspectives: (1) an individual differences perspective which searches for individual characteristics (e.g., general mental ability, personality) as sources for variation in performance, (2) a situational perspective which focuses on situational aspects as facilitators and impediments for performance, and (3) a performance regulation perspective which describes the performance process. These perspectives are not mutually exclusive but approach the performance phenomenon from different angles which complement one another.

**Individual Differences Perspective**

The individual differences perspective focuses on performance differences between individuals and seeks to identify the underlying factors. The core question to be answered by this perspective is: Which individuals perform best? The basic idea is that differences in performance between individuals can be explained by individual differences in abilities, personality and/or motivation.

**Table 1.1: Overview of Perspectives on Performance**

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<th>Core question</th>
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<td>Core assumptions and findings</td>
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<td>Job characteristics Role stressors Situational constraints</td>
<td>Action process factors Adequate hierarchical level</td>
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<td>Practical implications for performance improvement</td>
<td>Training Personnel selection Exposure to specific Experiences</td>
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*Source: Frese and Sonnentag, 2000*
Campbell (1990) proposed a general model of individual differences in performance which became very influential (Campbell et al., 1993). In his model, Campbell differentiates performance components (such as, job specific task proficiency), determinants of job performance components and predictors of these determinants. Campbell describes the performance components as a function of three determinants (a) declarative knowledge, (b) procedural knowledge and skills, and (c) motivation. Declarative knowledge includes knowledge about facts, principles, goals, and the self. It is assumed to be a function of a person’s abilities, personality, interests, education, training, experience, and aptitude-treatment interactions. Procedural knowledge and skills include cognitive and psychomotor skills, physical skill, self-management skill, and interpersonal skill. Predictors of procedural knowledge and skills are again abilities, personality, interests, and education, training, experience, and aptitude-treatment interactions—and additionally practice. Motivation comprises choice to perform, level of effort, and persistence of effort. Campbell does not make specific assumption about the predictors of motivation. He assumes that there are interactions between the three types of performance determinants, but does not specify them in detail (Campbell et al., 1996). In his model, Campbell (1990) largely neglects situational variables as predictors of performance (Hesketh and Neal, 1999). Campbell et al. (1996) summarized studies that identified job knowledge and job skills—as measured by work sample tests—as predictors of individual performance. Moreover, ability and experience were predictors of job knowledge and job skills, but had no direct effect on job performance. Campbell et al. (1996) interpret these findings as support for their model with declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and motivation acting as the only direct determinants of performance. Motowidlo et al. (1997) built on the work of Campbell and others. They agree that cognitive ability variables have an effect on task knowledge, task skills, and task habits. However, personality variables are assumed to have an effect on contextual knowledge, contextual skill, contextual habits and, additionally, task habits. Task knowledge, task skills, and task habits, in turn, are seen as predictors of task performance; contextual knowledge, contextual skill, and contextual habits are regarded as predictors of contextual performance.

On the basis of discussion made above, it can be said that task performance is predominantly a function of cognitive ability; and contextual performance is predominantly a function of personality. However, according to this model, cognitive
ability has a minor effect on contextual performance—mediated by contextual knowledge—and personality has a minor effect on task performance—mediated by task habits. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) largely supported this model. There is a large body of research which addresses individual performance within the individual differences perspective. Empirical studies in this area are not always explicitly linked to the models proposed by Campbell (1990) and Motowidlo et al. (1997). Nevertheless, virtually all studies on individual predictors of job performance can be subsumed under the individual differences perspective. More specifically, this research addresses cognitive ability, personality, motivational factors, and experience as predictors of job performance. Meta-analytic evidence speaks for a strong relationship between cognitive ability and job performance. Individuals with high cognitive abilities perform better than individuals with low cognitive abilities across a broad range of different jobs (Bobko et al., 1999; Hunter and Hunter, 1984; Schmidt and Hunter, 1998). Most authors assume an underlying mechanism of cognitive ability helping to acquire job knowledge and job skills which in turn have a positive impact on job performance (Schmidt et al., 1988; Schmidt et al. 1986).

Time to time researchers also addressed the question whether personality accounts for performance differences across individuals. Meta-analyses showed that the general relationships between personality factors and job performance are relatively insignificant, but a strong relationship emerged for neuroticism/emotional stability and conscientiousness (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Tett et al., 1991). However, the relevance of specific personality factors for performance varies between different jobs (Vinchur et al., 1998).

Individual differences in motivation may be caused by differences in motivational traits and differences in motivational skills (Kanfer and Heggestad, 1997). Motivational traits are closely related to personality constructs, but they are narrower and more relevant for motivational processes, i.e., the intensity and persistence of an action. Kanfer and Heggestad (1997) revealed achievement and anxiety as two basic work-relevant motivational traits. Vinchur et al.’s (1998) meta-analysis provides evidence for the need for achievement to be related to job performance. Motivational skills refer to self-regulatory strategies pursued during goal striving. In contrast to motivational traits, motivational skills are assumed to be more domain-specific and influenced by situational
factors as well as learning and training experiences. Motivational skills comprise emotional control and motivation control (Kanfer and Heggstedt, 1997; Kuhl, 1985). Self-efficacy—the belief that one can execute an action well—is another construct in the motivational domain which is highly relevant for performance (Bandura, 1997; Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). More specifically, self-efficacy has been shown to be related both to task performance, such as business success in small business owners (Baum et al., 2001), as well as to contextual performance, such as personal initiative (Speier and Frese, 1997) and developing ideas and suggestions within an organizational suggestion system (Frese et al., 1999). Additionally, self-efficacy has been of particular importance in the learning process. For example, in a careful process analysis, Mitchell et al., (1994) have looked at the effects of self-efficacy on learning. In the beginning of the learning process, self-efficacy is a better predictor of performance than goals, while this relationship is reversed at a later stage.

Moreover, professional experience shows a positive, although small relationship with job performance (Quinones et al., 1995). Additionally, there are interactions between predictors from several areas. It was identified that high achievement motivation was found to enhance the effects of high cognitive ability (O’Reilly and Chatman, 1994). The practical implications follow from this individual differences perspective. Above all, the individual differences perspective suggests a focus on personnel selection. For ensuring high individual performance, organizations need to select individuals on the basis of their abilities, experiences, and personality. The individual differences perspective also suggests that training programmes should be implemented which aim at improving individual prerequisites for high performance. More specifically, training should address knowledge and skills relevant for task accomplishment. Furthermore, exposing individuals to specific experiences such as traineeships and mentoring programmes are assumed to have a beneficial effect on individuals’ job performance.

Situational Perspective

The situational perspective refers to factors in the individuals’ environment which stimulate and support or hinder performance. The core question to be answered is: In which situations do individuals perform best? The situational perspective encompasses approaches which focus on workplace factors but also specific motivational approaches which follow from expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) or approaches which aim at improving performance by reward systems or by establishing perceptions of equity and
fairness (Adams, 1963; Greenberg, 1990). Most of the existing leadership research can be subsumed under this perspective. Because of space constraints, we will concentrate on workplace factors as major situational predictors of individual performance.

With respect to workplace factors and their relationship to individual performance two major approaches can be differentiated: (1) those that focus on situational factors enhance and facilitate performance, and (2) those that attend to situational factors which impede performance. A prominent approach within the first category is the job characteristics model (Hackman and Oldham, 1976). In this model, Hackman and Oldham assumed that job characteristics (i.e., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback) have an effect on critical psychological states (i.e., experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for work outcomes, knowledge of the results of the work activities) which in turn have an effect on personal and work outcomes, including job performance. Additionally, they expected an interaction effect with employee growth need strength. In essence, the job characteristics model is a motivational model on job performance (for an alternative interpretation, Wall and Jackson, 1995). Meta-analytic findings suggest that there is a small, but positive relationship between job characteristics and job performance (Fried, 1991; Fried and Ferris, 1987). Guzzo et al., (1985) also reported positive effects of work redesign interventions on performance. The cross-sectional nature of many studies does not allow for a causal interpretation. For example, it might be that individuals who show high performance get the better jobs. However, intervention studies showed that job design suggested by a job characteristics model has a positive effect on performance (Griffin, 1991; Wall and Clegg, 1981).

Socio-technical systems theory (Trist and Bamforth, 1951) also falls in this first category of job design approaches which specify workplace factors that enhance performance. Basically, socio-technical systems theory describes work systems as composed of social and technical subsystems and suggests that performance improvement can only follow from the joint optimization of both subsystems. In more detail, socio-technical systems theory suggests a number of job design principles such as the compatibility between the design process and its objectives, a minimal specification of tasks, methods, and task allocations, and the control of problems and unforeseen events as near as to their origins as possible (Cherns, 1976; Clegg, 2000). As Parker pointed out, socio-technical systems theory is more concerned with group performance than with individual performance.
However, one can assume that work situations designed on the basis of this approach have also positive effects on individual performance.

Approaches in the second category focus on factors that have a detrimental effect on performance. Within role theory (Kahn et al., 1964), role ambiguity and role conflict are conceptualized as stressors that impede performance. However, empirical support for the assumed negative effects of role ambiguity and role conflict is weak (Jackson and Schuler, 1985). In a recent meta-analysis, Tubbs and Collins (2000) found a negative relationship between role ambiguity and performance in professional, technical, and managerial jobs. Additionally, they found a negative relationship between role ambiguity and self-ratings of performance. However, the 90% credibility interval of all other effect sizes included zero. Similarly, neither Jackson and Schuler (1985) nor Tubbs and Collins (2000) found a significant relationship between role conflict and job performance.

Situational constraints include stressors such as lack of necessary information, problems with machines and supplies as well as stressors within the work environment. Situational constraints are assumed to impair job performance directly. For example, when a machine breaks down one cannot continue to accomplish the task, and therefore, performance will suffer immediately. Moreover, situational constraints, as other stressors, can have an indirect effect on performance by requiring additional regulation capacity (Greiner and Leitner, 1989). Additional regulation capacity over and above the one needed for accomplishing the task is required for dealing with the constraints. Because human regulatory capacity is limited, less capacity is available for accomplishing the task and, as a consequence, performance decreases. However, empirical support for the assumed detrimental effect of situational constraints and other stressors on performance is mixed (Jex, 1998). Fay and Sonnentag (2002) have shown that stressors can even have a positive effect on personal initiative, i.e., one aspect of contextual performance. These findings suggest that within a situational perspective, the performance enhancing factors (e.g., control at work, meaningful tasks) play a more important role than stressors. Framed differently, the lack of positive features in the work situation such as control at work threatens performance more than the presence of some stressors (Karasek and Theorell, 1990, for a related argument). In terms of practical implications, the task and situational perspective suggests that individual performance can be improved by job design interventions. For example, empirical job design studies have shown that performance
increases when employees are given more control over the work process (Wall et al., 1990; Wall, et al., 1992).

**Performance Regulation Perspective**

The performance regulation perspective takes a different look at individual performance and is less interested in person or situational predictors of performance. Rather, this perspective focuses on the performance process itself and conceptualizes it as an action process. It addresses as its core questions: “How does the performance process look like?” and “What is happening when someone is ‘performing’?” Typical examples for the performance regulation perspective include the expert research approach within cognitive psychology (Ericsson and Lehmann, 1996) and the action theory approach of performance (Frese and Sonnentag, 2000; Frese and Zapf, 1994; Hacker, 1973; Hacker, 1998). Most of these approaches focus on regulatory forces within the individual.

Research on expertise and excellence has a long tradition within cognitive psychology (Ericsson and Smith, 1991) and is increasingly referred to within work and organizational psychology (Sonnentag, 2000). It is one of the main goals of expertise research to identify what distinguishes individuals at different performance levels (Ericsson and Smith, 1991). More specifically, expertise research focuses on process characteristics of the task accomplishment process. It aims at a description of the differences between high and moderate performers while working on a task. Crucial findings within this field are that high performers differ from moderate performers in the way they approach their tasks and how they arrive at solutions (for an overview, cf. Sonnentag, 2000). For example, during problem comprehension, high performers focus on abstract and general information, they proceed from general to specific information, and apply a ‘relational strategy’ in which they combine and integrate various aspects of the task and the solution process (Isenberg, 1986; Koubek and Salvendy, 1991; Shaft and Vessey, 1998). Moreover, high performers focus more on long-range goals and show more planning in complex and ill-structured tasks, but not in well-structured tasks (Leithwood and Steinbach, 1995; Sujan et al., 1994). The action theory approach (Frese and Zapf, 1994) describes the performance process—as any other action—from both a process and a structural point of view. The process point of view focuses on the sequential aspects of an action, while the structural point of view refers to its hierarchical organization. From the process point of view, goal development, information search, planning, execution of the action and its monitoring, and feedback processing can be distinguished (Frese and Zapf, 1994; Hacker, 1998). Performance
depends on high goals, a good mental model, detailed planning, and good feedback processes. Frese and Sonnentag (2000) derived propositions about the relationship between these various action process phases and performance. For example, with respect to information search they hypothesized that processing of action-relevant, important—but parsimonious—and realistic information is crucial for high performance. A study in the domain of software design showed that excellent and moderate performers differed with respect to problem comprehension, planning, feedback processing, and task focus (Sonnentag, 1998). Roe (1999) suggested a very broad approach to performance regulation, in which he incorporated the action theory approach as one of five perspectives. The other four components of performance regulation are: energetic regulation, emotional regulation, vitality regulation, and self-image regulation. Roe assumes that all these five types of regulation are involved in performance regulation. The process regulation perspective is closely linked to specific performance improvement interventions. The most prominent interventions are goal-setting (Locke and Latham, 1990) and feedback interventions (Ilgen et al., 1979). The basic idea of goal setting as a performance improvement intervention is that setting specific and difficult goals result in better performance than no or ‘do-your-best’ goals (Locke and Latham, 1990). Goal-setting theory assumes that goals affect performance via four mediating mechanisms: effort, persistence, direction, and task strategies. The benefits of goal setting on performance have been shown in virtually hundreds of empirical studies (Locke and Latham, 1990). Meta-analyses showed that goal-setting belongs to one of the most powerful work-related intervention programmes (Guzzo et al., 1985). The performance regulation perspective suggests that an improvement of the action process itself improves performance. For example, individual should be encouraged to set long-range goals and to engage in appropriate planning, feedback seeking, and feedback processing. This perspective assumes that training interventions can be useful in achieving such changes. Additionally, job design interventions can help to improve the action process (Wall and Jackson, 1995). There is a long tradition within psychology which assumes that feedback has a positive effect on performance (for a critical evaluation, cf. Kluger and DeNisi, 1996). Indeed, there is broad evidence that feedback enhances performance if the feedback is task related. Feedback which refers primarily to self-related processes, however, has no or at least a detrimental effect on performance—even if it is ‘positive’ feedback (Kluger and DeNisi, 1996). Moreover, a combination of a goal-setting
intervention with a feedback intervention results in better performance than a goal-setting intervention alone (Neubert, 1998). A specific intervention approach which draws on the benefits of goal-setting and feedback is the Productivity Measurement and Enhancement System (ProMES) (Pritchard et al., 1989). ProMES suggests a procedure of how organizational units can improve their productivity by identifying their products, developing indicators, establishing contingencies, and finally putting the system together as a feedback system (Van et al., 1994).

A rather different approach to performance regulation is the behaviour modification perspective. Based on reinforcement theory (Luthans and Kreitner, 1975) this approach is not primarily interested in the processes within the individual which regulate performance but in regulative interventions from outside the individual, particularly positive reinforcement. Such reinforcements can comprise financial interventions, non-financial interventions such as performance feedback, social rewards such as attention and recognition, or a combination of all these types of reinforcements. Meta-analytic findings suggest that such behaviour modification interventions have a positive effect on task performance, both in the manufacturing and in the service sector (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1997).

**Relationships among the Various Perspectives**

The three perspectives represent different approaches to the performance phenomenon and our description stresses the differences between these perspectives. However, researchers often combine two or more approaches when explaining performance. For example, there are combinations between the individual differences and the situational perspective (e.g., Barrick and Mount, 1993; Colarelli et al., 1987). In essence, the job characteristic model assumes that a combination of situational factors (i.e., job characteristics) and individual differences factors (i.e., growth need strength) is crucial for individual performance (Hackman and Oldham, 1976). Similarly, Waldman (1994) suggested a model of performance in which he integrated the individual differences perspective with the situational perspective. He assumes that both person factors (i.e., individual difference variables) and system factors (i.e., situational variables) have an effect on job performance. In addition, he assumes that system factors moderate the effects of the person factors.

Mitchell (1997) proposed a model on job performance in which he explicitly combined the individual differences and situational perspective. He postulated that both 'individual
inputs’ (i.e., individual difference variables) and ‘job context’ (i.e., situational variables) have a direct effect on motivated behaviour by providing necessary skills in the case of individual inputs, and by enabling vs. limiting behaviour in the case of job context. Motivated behaviour, in turn, affects performance. Mitchell assumes that individual differences and job context additionally affect motivated behaviour via motivational processes such as arousal, attention, direction, intensity, and persistence. Despite these efforts, a comprehensive model which integrates all the various performance perspectives is still missing. Particularly, it is largely unclear how individual and situational variables come into play within the performance process. So, there is a need to identify a model which combines the individual differences and situational perspective with the performance regulation perspective. Such a model should specify how cognitive ability and motivational factors—probably in interaction with situational variables—translate into the performance process, i.e., how they affect the setting of goals, problem comprehension, planning and feedback processing, as well as the ‘choice’ of the appropriate hierarchic+al level of action regulation.

1.1.5 Causes of Failure of Performance Management
Earlier researchers have made certain attempts to identify various causes that lead to poor performance management. The ten common causes of failure of performance management, adapted from the doctoral research work of Saravanja, (2011) are as follows:

1. Lack of Integration
Performance management has to be approached from an integrated perspective. Synergy has to be created between the performance management system and strategic planning, human resource management processes, organisational culture, structure and all other major organisational systems and processes. Individual, team and organisational strategic objectives must be harmonised. Without integration, no performance management system can succeed on its own, no matter how good the performance management system may be.

2. Design Challenges
The performance management system and tools must be designed to address the particular needs of organisations. The design process should involve thorough consultation with major stakeholders and especially with future users of the system.
Consultation and interaction are necessary to build trust and relationships with employees and relevant stakeholders. Trust is an absolute requirement for the success of the performance management system. The new performance management system should be piloted and thoroughly tested before it is applied in the organisation. Applying an incomplete system leads to loss of credibility, time, financial and human resources, and increases resistance to change and low acceptance of the new performance management system.

People involved in the design of the system must have expertise in performance management and an understanding of the institution’s context. Over reliance on external consultants might be an expensive way of developing the system, which often has additional negative consequences of dependency and lack of ownership of the new performance management system.

3. Lack of Leadership Support

The implementation of the performance management system has to be supported and driven by top leadership and management. Leadership has to be committed to implementing the performance management system. Leaders should be encouraged to develop the capacity to create a shared vision, inspire staff and build a performance management system that drives the entire organisation towards a common purpose. Organisations with the best performance management results have strong value and vision-driven leaders at the top who inspire people, communicate the vision, take risks, and provide support and rewards.

4. Implementation Failure

The change management aspect of performance management should be managed strategically. The organisation’s top leadership must drive the change process. Resistance to change should be managed proactively. A communication process should be put in place which will explain the benefits of the performance management system, communicate progress with the implementation and reduce uncertainties, fears and anxieties. Managers must be encouraged to engage in careful, systematic and professional planning and implementation of the performance management system. Implementation time frames must be respected. All documentation and forms must be completed properly and professionally, especially performance agreements and personal development plans. Mechanisms must be put in place to ensure the objectivity of performance ratings and judgements, and to reduce favouritism and bias. Performance management should be a
continuous process and not an activity conducted once or twice a year. Performance feedback should be timely and continuous. A reward system, comprising both monetary and non-monetary rewards, should be developed to reward high performers. Mechanisms must be put in place to deal with non-performers.

5. Incompetence
All those involved in the performance management system must possess appropriate knowledge, attitudes and skills to utilise the system. The following are the major skills required:

(i) Development of performance indicators, key results areas, core management competencies and performance agreements.
(iii) Communication of results and feedback.
(iv) Monitoring and evaluation of the performance management system.

Proactive training and development interventions should be implemented to ensure that the users of the performance management system are continuously developed. Special emphasis should be laid on soft skills and the behavioural aspects of performance.

6. Lack of Rewards
A reward system that rewards high performance and discourages low and mediocre performance must be put in place. A comprehensive and holistic reward system, which includes various rewards such as financial rewards, public acknowledgments, merit awards, promotions, greater work responsibilities, learning and study opportunities should be developed and communicated to staff. Non-monetary rewards can be of greater significance. Mechanisms must be put in place to take corrective action against low performers.

7. Communication Challenges
A proactive communication strategy and process must be followed throughout the implementation of the performance management system. In the planning and design phases, good communication will enable buy-in from the major stakeholders. In the implementation phase, good communication will assist with managing resistance to change and building positive momentum. In the monitoring and evaluation phase, good communication will assist with learning and reinforcing achievements gained. Users of the system must be trained to communicate professionally and developmentally during the process of conducting performance appraisals and when communicating outcomes.
and feedback. Communication is one of the most critical success factors of the entire performance management system. Effective communication requires the provision of relevant information, ensures buy-in from the users of the system, reduces fears and anxieties, reduces resistance to change, and generates commitment to the system.

8. Inspiration Challenges

The organisations must ensure high levels of staff inspiration. This requires a systematic approach to addressing the challenges of staff inspiration. It requires continuous investment in human resources. Staff motivation should not be left unmanaged. If it is left unmanaged, staff motivation naturally deteriorates. Programmes are required to ensure high levels of staff motivation and commitment to the organisational vision, which may include a variety of activities such as team building, strategic planning, family picnics, internal competitions and awards, learning and development opportunities, behavioural change exercises, attitude change activities, sport activities, and similar. These programmes must be proactive, continuous and have a long-term focus on ensuring sustainable levels of staff motivation.

In addition to direct staff motivation programmes, organisations must build an enabling organisational environment for staff motivation. Organisational development interventions must be implemented continuously in order to ensure high levels of staff motivation in a sustainable manner. Special emphasis must be given to culture change programmes to ensure that the organisational culture is progressive and developmental. Issues of the objectivity of performance ratings, fairness and equity should be addressed – otherwise staff motivation is compromised.

The organisational structure should be reviewed; and issues of power, layers of bureaucracy, organograms, accountabilities, reporting and communication channels should be analysed. Obstacles should be removed in order to ensure that structure is not an obstacle to staff motivation.

Organisational processes should be streamlined, simplified and made user-friendly to motivate staff and not to demotivate them with red tape and bureaucratic procedures. Proactive communication processes must be put in place to ensure that information is continuously communicated to the right people. Effective communication reduces fear and uncertainties, and prevents wrong assumptions, gossip, and politics. Performance feedback should be given timorously and continuously and not once or twice a year following the performance appraisal process.
Human resource management and development policies, strategies and activities should be proactive and developmental. They should be designed and implemented to attract, nurture, develop and retain the best staff. In addition to the development of intellectual capabilities and technical skills, training and development interventions should emphasize the development of emotional and spiritual intelligence. A comprehensive reward system should be implemented, comprising monetary and non-monetary rewards, to ensure high levels of staff motivation on a sustainable basis. A reward system should be designed in such a way that it encourages excellence, discourages mediocrity and addresses non-performance.

Leadership plays a crucial role with regard to staff motivation. It is the main responsibility of a leader to inspire staff, to ensure that obstacles to staff motivation are removed, and to generate their passion and commitment to the organisational mission. High motivation generally leads to high performance. Without motivated staff, no performance management system can be successful, irrespective of how well the system is developed and how sophisticated performance documents, forms and agreements are.

9. Lack of Monitoring
Performance management system implementation must be continuously monitored. Problems must be detected at an early stage to enable prompt corrective action. Monitoring systems must be developed to systematically collect information, analyse and interpret it, and use it for decision-making.

10. Lack of Evaluation
The evaluation process must be conducted at regular intervals to enable the detection of problems at an early stage. The problems identified should feedback the design phase. This will ensure that prompt corrective action is taken to address the identified problems. In order to ensure the integrity of the evaluation process, it is advisable that an independent party conducts the evaluation process. In order to be successful, the performance management system must be continuously evaluated and improved. The system below on Integrated Performance Management has been developed based on the identification of major performance management problems, weaknesses and challenges. The system addresses these problems in an integrated manner and provides long-term solutions. The solutions are based on practical recommendations from performance management practitioners. They are underpinned by strong theoretical
foundations informed by leading local and international performance management scholars, experts and consultants.

Based on the above, an integrated performance management system is presented in the Figure 1.1.

![Image of Integrated Performance Management System]

**Figure 1.1: Integrated Performance Management System**

The above list of factors ensures that the lack of any one of them leads to failure in performance. In order to study performance in relation to behavioural context, an attempt
has been made to study few behavioural parameters that might affect performance to some extent. One of the parameters that needs to be explored is emotional maturity. Performance in any endeavour is largely contingent upon mental preparation, psychological strength and emotional maturity. Just as one prepares for competition by practicing physical skill as well as increasing one’s strength and endurance, one must also prepare oneself mentally as well as emotionally.

1.2 Emotions and Emotional Maturity

Emotions are great motivating forces throughout the span of human life; affecting aspirations, actions and thoughts of an individual. Emotion denotes a state of being moved, motivated or aroused in some way. An emotion involves feelings, impulses and physiological reactions.

Etymologically, the word ‘Emotion’ is derived from the Latin word ‘Emovere’ which means to stir up, to excite or to agitate.

Emotions are aroused by happenings or circumstances that enhance the gratification of a person’s need or the realization of high goal. Harold (1954) speaks of three basic dimensions of emotions: (a) Pleasantness - unpleasantness, (b) Attention - Rejection, and (c) Level of activation (Sleep - Tension). Others add a fourth dimension to the above three – degree of complexity. When these four bipolar dimensions are imposed upon the possible emotional states, we get several categories of emotions –

(a) Primary goal-oriented emotions (anger, joy, fear and grief are also called PRIMARY or basic emotions).
(b) Emotions triggered by sensory stimulation (pain, disgust and delight).
(c) Emotions related to others (love, envy and pity).
(d) Appreciative emotions (wonder and awe).
(e) Emotions pertaining to self- appraisal and related to one’s level of aspiration (pride, shame and guilt).

All these increasingly varied and differentiated patterns of emotional expressions are gradually evolved in the course of development and learning from the initial single generalized emotional response of excitement of the new-born infant.

Feelings and emotions are strictly subjective, individual, personal, intimate experiences. Feelings are always present in conscious liking and denote states of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, liking or disliking anything. Emotions are more complex than feelings and
involve feelings, impulses to action and adjustment, and bodily changes and excitement. In order to understand the educational significance of emotions and their development, it is essential to lay down criteria for distinguishing between emotional and non-emotional experiences. 
(a) Emotion is stirred-up condition involving disturbance, excitement, conflict or tension in behaviour. In an emotional situation, some stimulus arouses or stirs emotions into action. 
(b) An emotion is brought into action by the perception of some stimulus. Psychologically, it is a complex experience involving perception and widespread characteristic bodily changes in the action of muscles, glands and the automatic nervous system. 
(c) Every emotional state involves an impulse to action. There is a drive toward some kind of adjustment, to obtain satisfaction, to effect destruction or escape or to gratify a desire. The emotion subsides to the extent to which adjustments are achieved. 

Emotions tend to have the following effects on the individual’s behaviour and influence individual performance.

(a) Emotions provide energy to an individual to face a particular situation.

(b) Emotions work as motivators of our behaviour.

(c) Emotions influence our adjustment in the society.

(d) High emotional conditions disturb the mental equilibrium of an individual.

(e) High emotional conditions disturb the reasoning and thinking of an individual.

It has been said that a person’s emotional reaction to a happening depends both upon the nature of the happening itself and upon his own inner state. The same thing or happening may create joy in one and grief in another, all depending on the inner state of the individual. A mature person views life experience as learning experiences and, when they are positive, he enjoys and revels in life. When they are negative, he accepts personal responsibility and is confident and can learn from them to improve his life. When things do not go well, he looks for an opportunity to succeed. The immature person curses the rain, while a mature person sells umbrellas. When things do not go as anticipated, the immature person stamps his feet, holds his breath and bemoans his fate. The mature person considers using another approach or going another direction and moves on with life. Rathee and Salh (2010) found that international players are significantly better in emotional maturity as compared to state players. When frustrated, an immature person looks for someone to blame. The mature person looks for solution. Immature people
attack people; mature people attack problems. The mature person uses his anger as an energy source and, when frustrated, redoubles his efforts to find solutions to his problems. Emotional maturity seems to be elusive to most people. Physical, intellectual, and mental maturity are often developed through study and life experience – not necessarily so with emotional maturity.

Emotional maturity is the key to a happy fulfilled life, without which the individual falls an easy prey to the dependencies and insecurities. In the present circumstances, youth as well as children are facing difficulties in life. These difficulties are giving rise to many psychosomatic problems such as anxiety, tensions, frustrations and emotional upsets in the day-to-day life. Emotional maturity actually is, “a process of readjustment, the infant learns under parental supervision what situations after permissible opportunities for emotional reactions and to what extent, so that primitive elemental psychological response that we call ‘emotion’ becomes patterned in accordance with approved from the expression and repression favoured by culture” Frank (1963). Hiremani et al. (1994) indicated that the destitute girls were emotionally unstable due to socio-cultural and parental deprivation. Mankad (1999) indicated that the personality of emotionally matured and unmatured adolescents differs significantly. Emotional maturity was a major factor especially as a predictor of success in essay tests among medical students.

Emotional maturity is a measure of one’s capacity to create in a positive mental attitude. Emotional maturity is the process of impulse control through the agency of self. Morgan (1924) stated the view that an adequate theory of emotional maturity must take an account of the full scope of the individual powers and his ability to enjoy the use of his powers. Menninger (1999) revealed that emotional maturity includes the ability to deal constructively with reality. Emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intra-physically and intra-personally. Emotional maturity can be understood in terms of ability of self-control which in turn is a result of thinking and learning. Chamberlain (1960) highlighted that an ‘emotionally matured’ person is one whose emotional life is well under control.

Emotional maturity is a personality trait, the result of emotional development and the display of emotion appropriate to one’s chronological age. It usually reflects increased emotional adjustment and emotional stability and the attainment of emotional self-regulation.
Emotional maturity is the ability to understand reality and facts, and the quality of response to a situation by detaching from the pulls and pushes of pleasant and unpleasant feelings. Emotional maturity implies controlling your emotions more willingly than letting your emotions to give you the orders. Emotional intelligence makes an important part of life, together with intellectual intelligence and relationship intelligence. Such intelligence can help one to assess emotional maturity and emotional freedom.

1.2.1 Characteristics of Emotional Maturity
Emotionally matured people tend to possess the following characteristics (Joseph, 2010)

(a) Ability to Learn from Experience
The ability to face reality and to relate positively to life experiences, derive from the ability to learn from experience. Immature people do not learn from experience, whether the experience is positive or negative. They act as if there is no relationship between how they act and consequences that occur to them. They view good or bad experiences as being caused by luck, or fate. They do not accept personal responsibility.

(b) Relative Freedom from Tension Symptoms
Immature people feel unloved, avoid reality, are pessimistic about life, get angry easily and attack the people closer to them out of frustration. No wonder they are constantly anxious. The mature person’s mature approach marks him with a relaxed confidence in his ability to get what he wants from life.

(c) Ability to Give and Receive Love
Emotional maturity fosters a sense of security which permits vulnerability. A mature person can show his vulnerability by expressing love and accepting expressions of love from those who love him. An immature person is unduly concerned with signs of ‘weakness’ and has difficulty showing and accepting love. The egocentricity of immaturity accepts the love, but fails to recognize the needs of others to receive love.

(d) Ability Subject to Displacement
The anger aroused on account of one stimulus gets transferred to other situations. The anger caused by the rebuking of the officer to his subordinate may be transferred to beating the children at home.
(e) **Ability to Accept Frustration**
When things don’t go as anticipated, the immature person stamps his feet, holds his breath, and bemoans his fate. The mature person considers using another approach or going in another direction and moves on with his life.

(f) **Capacity to Relate Positively to Life Experiences**
A mature person views life experiences as learning experiences and when they are positive, he enjoys and revels in life. When they are negative, he accepts personal responsibility and is confident he can learn from them to improve his life. When things do not go right he looks for other opportunities to succeed. The immature person curses the rain, while a mature person sells umbrellas.

According to Merriam-Webster, mature is defined as having completed natural growth and development. That is, being fully grown, complete and ready.

Following is the list (underlined) of Criteria of Emotional Maturity provided by William C. Menninger, psychiatrist and co-founder of the Menninger Clinic:

1. **Ability to Deal Constructively with Reality**
   To deal with reality in a constructive manner, we must face truth, the facts, rather than deny them. Running from problems or hoping they do not exist does not make them go away. Regardless of how unpleasant they may be at times, facing the facts is the first step to dealing with any situation. When people have difficulty facing reality, they resort to all sorts of unhealthy ways to deal with the unpleasant feelings and pain. They try to soothe themselves with alcohol, drugs, or any other way that temporarily masks their reality and pain. There are healthy and constructive ways to cope that lead to greater emotional maturity and growth. It may not be the easiest path to take, but it leads to healing, lasting comfort and hope.

2. **Capacity to Adapt to Change**
   Change is not always easy. It can turn our world upside down at times and cause a great deal of stress. Whether the change is minor, like having to change our plans for the day, or more significant, such as moving to a new home, changing jobs, getting married or divorced, adapting to change is to make necessary adjustments. Sometimes the most important adjustment is in our attitude. Change can annoy us as it disrupts our routine and expectations, but we can choose to accept it and allow ourselves time to get comfortable with change.
3. A Relative Freedom from Symptoms that are Produced by Tensions and Anxieties

The symptoms produced from tensions and anxieties can include physical distress (headaches, stomach problems, rapid heart rate) and emotional distress (worry, restlessness, panic). Anxiety is a major mental health problem affecting millions of people every day. It negatively affects all levels of people's lives—their mental and physical health, relationships, work. To live free of its destructive symptoms and consequences is to cope with life stress in a healthy manner, learn to relax, release worries, and develop inner peace.

4. Capacity to Find More Satisfaction in Giving than Receiving

People who give of themselves—their time, attention, help, finances, or what they are able—are generally more fulfilled and happy than those who do not. People who are primarily takers are more likely to use others for their own personal gain and are often considered selfish, stingy, and/or greedy. Like the old scrooge, they end up miserable. Givers, on the other hand, want to contribute and make a positive difference in this world. It is healthy to give cheerfully and willingly as it contributes to our sense of purpose and helps us connect with others and our society.

5. Capacity to Relate to Other People in a Consistent Manner with Mutual Satisfaction and Helpfulness

Like I always say, life is all about relationships. We relate to others every single day—whether it is a relative, co-worker, neighbour, or stranger, our lives are intertwined with others. Love and respect are two key factors to relating successfully to others. Unlike dysfunctional relationships, healthy relationships are stable and provide deep satisfaction and joy.

6. Capacity to Sublimate, to Direct One's Instinctive Hostile Energy into Creative and Constructive Outlets

If we were to release all our frustrations and anger on the world, we would have a hostile existence. Instead, we can take that energy and direct it into something good and productive. It has long been said that sports is a great outlet of extra energy. Anything that is positive, constructive and creative can redirect our energies and put them to good use. A basketball player once told me that the court is where all his angry energy was released. He redirected his hostile energy in an acceptable way within specific guidelines and limits. It gave him a constructive outlet and helped him to really enjoy what he was doing without hurting others and/or himself.
7. Capacity to Love
Love is the greatest power in the world. As humans, we are born with the capacity to love. The greatest differences between us are how we communicate our love.
In a nutshell, maturity has more to do with what types of experiences you've had, and what you've learned from them, and less to do with how many birthdays you've celebrated. In the last decade or so, science has discovered a tremendous amount about the role emotions play in our lives. Researchers have found that even more than IQ, our emotional awareness and abilities to handle feelings will determine our success and happiness in all walks of life, including family relationships. —John Gottman (from *Raising an Emotionally Intelligent Child*).

1.2.2 Factors affecting Emotional Maturity (Joseph, 2010):
(a) Health and Physical Development of an Individual
There is a positive correlation between health and physical and emotional development. Children who are physically weak or who suffer from occasional illness are more emotionally upset. Any abnormal increase or decrease in the functioning of glands creates obstacles in the proper emotional development.

(b) Family Environment and Emotional Development
A cordial healthy relationship between the parents is very conducive for the emotional development of the child. The order of birth, size of the family, discipline in the family, the parental attitude towards the child (pampered, overprotected or neglected) are all important factors in the emotional development of the child.

(c) School Environment
The attitude of the teachers, school discipline, academic facilities available, physical facilities, methods of teaching, co-curricular activities, etc.—all play a pivotal role in developing emotional maturity.

(d) Peer Group Relationship and Emotional Development
The influence of the classmates and other members of the group affect emotional maturity.

(e) Intelligence and Emotional Development
H. Meltzer (1937) has observed, “There is less emotional control on an average, among the children of lower intellectual level, than among children of the same group who are
bright. An intelligent person, with his thinking and reasoning powers, is in a better position to exercise control over his emotions.”

(f) Neighbourhood, Community and Society’s Environmental Influence and Emotional Development

The child lives in the society and inherits so many traits of his emotional behaviour from the surrounding.

Apart from identifying various factors that affect emotional maturity, the interrelationship of Physical and Emotional factors was also identified which has been discussed as below:

(a) Facial Expressions

Various muscles of the face including the eye, the lips, the nose and the forehead undergo changes by way of twisting and taking different poses. Most of the emotions have their characteristic facial expressions; but it may not always be easy to judge the emotion from these expressions.

(b) Muscular Adjustments

Sometimes the entire muscular system of the body undergoes contraction and adjustments. The best example of this is perhaps the bodily changes that take place in the ‘startle reaction’. Startle response consists of a sudden movement of the head, blinking of eyes, a characteristic facial expression.

(c) Gestures and Movements of the Hands

Gestures may sometimes involve the movement of the whole body.

(d) Voice Gets Affected

When excited, the voice becomes loud and high pitched. Under fear, the voice takes a sinking and low tone.

(e) Breathing and Heart Beat also Get Affected under Emotions

Sometimes they may be retarded and at other times they are accelerated.

1.2.3 Development of Emotional Maturity through Life Stages (Srilatha, B. 2013):

Emotional development is one of the major aspects of human growth and development. Emotions like anger, fear, love, etc. play a great role in the development of a child’s personality. Not only his physical growth and development is linked with his emotional make up, but his intellectual, social, moral and aesthetic development are also controlled by his emotional behaviour and experiences. The overall importance of emotional
experiences in the life of a human being makes it quite essential to know about the emotions.

1. **Emotional Development during Infancy**
From his very birth, the infant cries and his bodily movements seem to give evidence of the presence of emotional element in him.

2. **Emotional Development during Childhood**
In the infancy, the child is only concerned with his own well-being. Therefore, the emotions are generally aroused by the conditions which are related with his immediate well-being. But as he grows, his world grows large and he has to respond to a variety of stimuli. During childhood, peer group relationship and school atmosphere and other environmental factors influence his emotional behaviour. His emotions get linked with the new experiences and interest, and his emotional behaviour gets linked with the new stimuli. At the same time, he does not react to old stimuli. For example, he does not show anger at being dressed or bathed, neither does he show any fear of a stranger.

3. **Emotional Development during Adolescence**
The emotional balance is once again disturbed in adolescence. The individual once again experiences the violent and intensive current of emotional experiences with regard to emotional experiences. This is the period of intensive storm and stress. At no stage this emotional energy is as strong and dangerous as in adolescence. It is very difficult for a adolescent to exercise control over his emotions. The sudden functioning of sexual glands and tremendous increase in physical energy makes him restless. Moreover, adolescents are not consistent in their emotions. Emotions during this stage fluctuate very frequently and quickly. It makes them moody. Sometimes they are very happy and at another time they are extremely sad, and all this happens in a very short time. So, there is too much uncertainty in the nature of their emotional states.

4. **Emotional Development in Adulthood**
Emotional development reaches its maximum in adulthood. During this stage, generally, all individuals attain emotional maturity. During this period an emotionally matured person:

   (a) Is able to control his emotions; sudden inappropriate, outbursts are rarely found.
   (b) Almost all emotions can be distinctly seen in him and their pattern of expressions can be easily recognized.
   (c) He expresses his emotions in a socially desirable way.
(d) He is guided more by his intellect than his emotions.

(e) He never tries to justify himself for his undesirable or improper conduct.

(f) He thinks about others and is keen to maintain a social relationship.

(g) He expresses his emotions at the proper time in the proper place.

(h) A person having emotional maturity shows no sudden shift from one emotion to another.

(i) Emotionally mature person has a positive self-concept and does not indulge in feelings of self-pity.

Emotionally matured person sees the world as it is without distortion of perception. What really vitiates our perception to see the facts are our anxiety, insecurity, concern and fear.

A non-performer is not problem of organizations. The problem is how a manager deals with him. If he looks at the fact and tackles the "performance" part there could be a solution. If he looks at the person who is the cousin of a director, the objective fact is veiled and emotions push towards a subjective choice. How many of us can say "So what?" and deal with the fact of non-performance in the interest of bigger canvass of organization. Emotional maturity is about understanding facts. No one can consciously try to get emotional. It happens. It takes us in its folds, if we neglect to take over it.

Emotional maturity is a discipline of the mind ruled by intellect. Experience teaches us to face situations, influence to change some situations and to drop certain things.

Emotional maturity is the quality of our response to a situation. In a problem situation, a matured leader looks for facts. Once the facts are found whether we accept them or not depends on the maturity or immaturity of the mind.

For an emotionally matured person, there is always a way out in any circumstances. A person, who is stuck with a conclusion that there is no way out, enslaves to external forces. Such people are prone to blowing up things and to commit suicide. Management life always has pleasant and unpleasant situations like any other arena. Most of our responses to unpleasant situations are reactive since we do not accept.

The sign of emotional immaturity is when a few words can trigger an extreme and unwanted reaction. An emotionally immature person will react defensively to any negative feedback. Individual will not even pay full attention to such feedback. Secondly, such people always blame others for their problems. There is another aspect of this, which is that such people are egotistic and believe that they know it all. They react in a volatile
manner when faced with adversity, they are not thoughtful, they can’t see the total picture, and react too quickly (Shetty and Vibe, 2014).

1.2.4 General Characteristics of Emotional Immaturity

Some of the general characteristics of emotional immature people are

1. Being moody and depressed too much of the time.
2. Staying in bed and calling in sick when you feel a little tired or down, rather than disciplining yourself and putting your responsibilities first.
3. Getting mad if you aren’t the centre of attention and the most popular girl around.
   Or, getting irritated and insolent when you don’t get your way.
4. Failing to say "NO" to yourself — giving in to your desires and wants without restraint — disregarding the consequences.
5. Feeling inadequate and easily discouraged — particularly when associating with peers who are self-assured, multitalented and successful.
6. Failing to reason out a situation or problem from beginning to end before making a decision — acting first and thinking later.
7. Crying, pouting, losing temper and screaming over trivial matters.
8. Finding fault with everything and everybody, instead of trying to get along with people. In other words, being generally negative and critical toward life.
9. Being easily influenced by others, instead of using your mind and making your own decisions.
10. Other general manifestations such as Shyness — loner-type, Fearful of taking new steps, Impetuous, Self-indulgent, Insensitive and inconsiderate, Whines, complains and cries easily, Overly concerned with your health, Moody, changeable, unstable, Easily offended, Accusing, Competitive — win or else — always have to be first, Argumentative and intolerant, Impatient — everything must be "now" — never later, Sarcastic and cynical, Unable to be serious and level-headed, Disorganized, Unable to concentrate and Irresponsible— and undependable

1.2.5 Emotional Maturity and Healthy Relationships (www.eharmony.co.uk)

Emotional maturity often doesn’t develop in line with the years you have been alive, many people say they feel much younger inside than they look on the outside. While it is
People who are emotionally mature tend to be able to:

1. **Stand back from a situation:** This is an important skill that stops you from being swept along with emotions and allows you to see the whole picture rather than just the small part of it which affects you. In relationships this is really important because it enables people to make decisions based on what is best for the relationship as a whole rather than just what they want.

2. **See someone else’s point of view:** Empathy is different from sympathy and involves being able to imagine what it feels like to be in someone else’s shoes. It stops us from doing things that are cruel or hurtful because we can imagine what it would feel like if we were treated in that way. In any relationship there will be arguments and the ability to see your partner’s point of view could make the difference between rows being useful and constructive or hurtful and destructive.

3. **Take an interest in other people:** Some people are self-obsessed and you can spend a whole date with them without them ever asking you a question about your interests or life. Emotionally mature people are interested in other people, not just dates, they know everyone is unique and may have something interesting or valuable to offer them. In a relationship it is a great quality because it means they are more likely to get on with your family and friends and are happy and comfortable in social situations.

4. **Base decisions on facts rather than feelings:** Emotions are often irrational and it is important that we develop the ability to make decisions that are based on a real evaluation of a situation rather than our feelings about it. A lot of people don’t go on dates, make commitments or say what they want because they are overwhelmed by FEAR – False Evidence Appearing Real. It can also work the other way where people are so overwhelmed by feelings of elation when they meet someone that they take huge risks which they may later regret. Passion is wonderful but the ability to still see the facts in any given situation is essential for a balanced relationship.

5. **Take criticism without becoming defensive – no tantrums:** Whenever we are in relationships with other people it is essential we learn to take criticism otherwise everyone will be walking on eggshells around us, afraid to tell us the truth. It isn’t an easy skill to learn as often when people hear criticism it taps into all their insecurity about themselves. When someone acts violently or defensively whenever a problem is raised in
a relationship, or they are told something they said or did wasn’t acceptable, it doesn’t stop the problems from arising, it stops the relationship from developing.

6. Let go of the past: We have all been hurt at some point in our lives and a sure sign of emotional maturity is the ability to let go and move on with our lives. Sometimes people become so attached to whatever happened to them in the past that it destroys any happiness they could have in the future. One way emotionally mature people manage to release the past is by taking a philosophical approach and seeing how everything that happened to them up to this point in their lives brought them to where they are today and the only thing they can change about it is their perception of it. They can, for example, see it as a difficult lesson they had to learn; a gift that helped them grow; a test of their ability to survive; or as a curse which will haunt them forever and which must be resurrected at every given opportunity making it almost impossible for them to move on and find happiness with someone new – a different choice will yield a different future.

7. Be honest with ourselves and change: None of us is perfect, and we all have habits and behaviours that we would like to change. A key factor of emotional maturity is knowing when the time has come to let go of things we are doing which damage our life, health, careers or relationships and do what is necessary to make changes even if this involves seeking professional help.

1.2.6 An Attempt to Become Emotionally Mature (library.adoption.com)

1. Eliminate Magical Thinking
Magical thinking is believing that something will happen without any real effort on your part. This is normal thinking in children, but self-defeating in adults. People often can get stuck in magical thinking if a significant event happened to reinforce it in childhood. For a dramatic but not uncommon example, consider the child whose parent has a heart attack. If that child had been angry with the parent that day and thought angry thoughts about them, they would probably magically think that they themselves had caused the heart attack. That child as an adult may find it extremely difficult to confront others, especially others who are perceived as frail.

2. Learn to Tolerate Your Anxiety
Suppressing your anxiety causes it to continue—"what you resist, persists". Then you start fearing the anxiety, a state referred to as anticipatory anxiety. It's sort of like working out with weights - when it is heavy and your arm gets tired, your natural impulse
is to put down the weight, but you know to strengthen your muscles, you continue. It is the same with anxiety. Your tendency is to avoid it and seek immediate relief. But to become stronger emotionally, take the time to look at your anxiety, learn about it, and work with it.

3. Learn to Recognize and Appropriately Express Your Anger
People who do not express their anger are usually afraid of what will happen if they do. They have distorted fantasies-fearing the floodgates opening and then being out of control. They may have lacked family role models of appropriate anger expression. Discharging of anger by screaming or hitting pillows used to be recommended, even by therapists. But now most professionals believe this just keeps the nervous system on alert and does nothing to address a constructive plan of action. Instead, learn to put your anger into words. If you're unsure how to do this, consider an assertiveness training course. It will teach you the difference between passive, assertive, and aggressive expression of anger.

4. Learn to Cope with Pain and Hurt
Pain and hurt are natural consequences of life because of the simple fact that life involves change and loss. To never feel hurt is to be deadened. Overprotecting yourself leaves you vulnerable because you fail to develop strength and resiliency. Moderate exposure to pain and loss is often what creates opportunities for developing coping skills.

5. Facing Your Guilty Feelings
We all make mistakes and we all behave selfishly and meanly at times. Some guilt is based on reality and facing it helps us become better people. Rationalizing away this guilt is harmful, and leads you to make the same mistakes again. Take responsibility for mistakes, verbally express your regrets and take action to make amends.

6. Learn to Live with Your Failures
You can’t avoid doing wrong, because perfection does not exist in humans! But forgiving yourself does not have to be limited to mental attitude. Action is what helps us live with our failures. Be of service to others, and have a positive attitude. Being useful to others and being part of the solution to problems around us is extremely therapeutic.

7. Put Your Feelings in Perspective
Strive to see that life is gray, not black and white. Tolerate ambiguity. Avoid words like never and always. Realize that the world is a vast place that we cannot completely
understand and certainly cannot "master", whatever that means. Feelings are messy, mistakes are made, relationships are complex, and life is ever-changing. Any one feeling or event is but a piece of the big picture. And there's surely nothing you will ever experience and no pain you will ever feel, that has not been felt and survived by others. If you doubt this, take a look around you and reach out.

Apart from emotional maturity, another parameter that is expected to affect performance is Self-confidence. Self-confidence is the starting place for any manager. Genuine self-confidence is the forerunner of achievements. Self-confidence integrates the powers of mind and body and focuses them towards the goal. Only such a concentrated energy can reach the goal.

1.3 Self-confidence

Self-confidence is the confidence one has in oneself, one’s knowledge, and one’s abilities. It is the confidence of the type: "I can do this". "I have the ability to do this". Self-confidence is the one thing that is much more important than many other abilities and traits. If we do not have self-confidence, what we do will never become fruitful at all. The fruits of what you do without self-confidence are lost.

Self-confidence is the first step to progress, development, achievement and success. Even if we have a lot of abilities and a lot of knowledge, but do not have self-confidence you cannot succeed. But, on the contrary, even if we have only average abilities and knowledge, if we have an unfailingly true self-confidence, chances are that we achieve what we want to.

The successes and achievements, in turn, will strengthen our self-confidence further. People like, respect, believe and trust persons who are self-confident. It is natural that persons with good confidence are offered leadership and other office responsibilities of groups. More and more opportunities automatically come the way of the person with a good self-confidence. In short, success flows to those who have a genuine self-confidence.

Self-confidence is commonly defined as the sureness of feeling that we are equal to the task at hand (Orlick, 2001). This sureness is characterized by absolute belief in ability. We may well know someone whose self-belief has this unshakeable quality, whose ego resists even the biggest setbacks. In such people, confidence is as resilient as a squash ball: the harder the blow, the quicker they bounce back. Nonetheless, although confidence
is a desirable characteristic, arrogance—or a sureness of feeling not well founded in one's ability—is undesirable.

Confidence is learned, it is not inherited. If we lack confidence, it probably means that, as a child, we were criticized, undermined, or suffered an explicable tragic loss, for which you either blamed ourself or were blamed by others. A lack of confidence isn’t necessarily permanent but it can be if it isn’t addressed. Our religion, the influence of the culture which formed our perspectives, our gender, social class and our parents, in particular, are all factors which influence and contribute to our level of confidence. Confident people have deep faith in their future and can accurately assess their capabilities. They also have a general sense of control in their lives and believe that, within reason, they will be able to do what they desire, plan and expect, no matter what the foreseeable obstacle. But this faith is guided by more realistic expectation so that, even when some of their goals are not met, those with confidence continue to be positive, to believe in themselves and to accept their current limitations with renewed energy. However, having high self-confidence does not mean they will be able to do everything they want. That view is unrealistic, one for the perfectionist. A desire to be good at everything we do, in order to impress others, stems from a competitive instinct and lack of personal reinforcement. Any truly successful life as both rewards and the ability to learn from any setbacks, which increase our resilience, self-belief and determination. Real confidence requires that we face the possibility of failure constantly and deal with it. However, if we consistently lose out on both achievement and validation, even our identity is called into question. Self-Confidence is essentially an attitude which allows us to have a positive and realistic perception of ourselves and our abilities. It is characterized by personal attributes such as assertiveness, optimism, enthusiasm, affection, pride, independence, trust, the ability to handle criticism and emotional maturity. Basavanna (1975) self-confidence refers to an individual’s perceived ability to act effectively in a situation to overcome obstacles and to get things go all right. Having self-confidence does not mean that individuals will be able to do everything. Self-confident people may have expectations that are not realistic. However, even when some of their expectations are not met, they continue to be positive and to accept themselves.

People who are not self-confident tend to depend excessively on the approval of others in order to feel good about them. As a result, they tend to avoid taking risk because they fear failure. They generally do not expect to be successful. They often put themselves down.
and tend to discount or ignore complements paid to them. By contrast, Self- confident people are willing to risk the disapproval of others because they generally trust their own abilities. They tend to accept themselves; they don’t feel they have to confirm in order to be accepted. Self-confidence is not necessarily a general characteristic which pervades all aspects of a person’s life. Typically, individuals will have some areas of their lives where they feel quite confident, e.g. academics, athletics, while at the same time they do not feel at all confident in other areas, e.g. personal appearance and social relationships. Many factors affect the development of self-confidence. Parents’ attitudes are crucial to children’s feelings about themselves, particularly in children’s early years. When parents provide acceptance, children receive a solid foundation for good feelings about themselves. If one or both parents are excessively critical or demanding, or if they are overprotective and discourage moves toward independence, children may come to believe they are incapable, inadequate or inferior. However, if parents encourage children’s move toward self-reliance, and accept and love their children when they make mistakes, children will learn to accept themselves and will be on their way to developing self-confidence. Surprisingly, lack of self-confidence is not necessarily related to lack of ability. Instead it is often the result of focusing too much on the unrealistic expectations or standards of others, especially parents and society. Friends’ influences can be as powerful as of parents and society in shaping feelings about one’s self. Students in their teens re-examine values and develop their own identities, and thus are particularly vulnerable to the influence of their peer group.

Confidence is related to personality and those who exude self-confidence across a range of contexts, say at work, socially and, are said to be high in trait confidence. However, confidence can also be very specific—to a particular situation or with reference to a set of circumstances—in which case it is known as state of confidence or self-efficacy.

For example, a professional may give off vibes suggesting they are high in trait confidence; however, when they are faced with the prospect of saving their team in a crucial situation, their state of confidence can plummet and this has the potential to wreak havoc on their performance. This is precisely what does happen in team performance in competition. The confidence, an individual feels during a particular activity or situation is generally derived from one or more of the following six elements:

**1. Performance accomplishments** are the strongest contributor to confidence. When you perform any skill successfully, you will generate confidence and be willing to attempt
something slightly more difficult. Skill learning should be organized into a series of tasks that progress gradually and allow you to master each step before progressing on to the next. Personal success breeds confidence, while repeated personal failure diminishes it.

2. **Being involved with the success of others** can also significantly bolster your confidence, especially if you believe that the performer you are involved with (e.g. a team-mate) closely matches your own qualities or abilities.

3. **Verbal persuasion** is a means of attempting to change the attitudes and behaviour of those around us, and this includes changing their self-confidence.

4. **Imagery experiences** have to do with those recreating multi-sensory images of successful performance in their mind. Through creating such mental representations, mastery of a particular task or set of circumstances is far more likely. What you see is what you get.

5. **Physiological states** can reduce feelings of confidence through phenomena such as muscular tension, palpitations and butterflies in the stomach. The bodily sensations associated with competition need to be perceived as being facilitative to performance and this can be achieved through the application of appropriate stress management interventions such as the "five breath technique" and "thought-stopping".

6. **Emotional states** is the final source of self-confidence and relates to how you control the emotions associated with competition, such as excitement and anxiety. Very often, the importance of the occasion creates self-doubt, which is why it is essential to control your thoughts and emotions.

It is patent to the vast majority of professionals that self-confidence enhances performance. Higher levels of self-confidence are associated with superior performance. The average correlation reported between self-confidence and performance across 24 studies was 0.54, which indicates a moderately strong relationship. Even under strict laboratory conditions, it has been demonstrated many times over that when confidence is manipulated either up or down, there is a significant effect on sports performance.

Very recently, research has shown that social support, such as that which comes from a team leader or team-mates, can buffer the effects of competitive stress on self-confidence (*Journal of Sports Science, 2004*). Social support also has a direct effect in enhancing professional's self-confidence. Further, exposing professionals to mental training programmes from an early age is likely to have a very positive effect on their levels of self-
confidence, which may carry into their careers (Journal of Applied Sports Psychology, 2004).

In terms of specific self-confidence interventions, it appears that motivational self-talk has a more positive effect on self-confidence than instructional self-talk. That is, self-talk related to inspiring the professional such as 'Come on, you can do it!' or 'I am just so up for this one' rather than self-talk relating to key foci such as 'keep your eye on the target'. (Hellenic Journal of Psychology, 2006).

In certain studies, it was shown that high self-confidence could reduce the intensity or strength of anxiety symptoms, and influence whether they were interpreted as facilitative or debilitative to performance. Essentially, self-confident athletes interpreted their anxiety symptoms as being part and parcel of the competitive experience.

Confidence is a key success factor for modern managers and leaders and yet many lack confidence in the following areas:

1. **Managing downwards** when subordinates have higher qualifications or are qualified in a different discipline.
2. **Influencing peers** or external stakeholder when there is no direct authority.
3. **Managing upwards** even in a matrix organization.

With all three scenarios the key to confidence is personal power. Personal Power is like self-leadership, it comes from knowing who you are and what’s important and exercising the right to choose.

When managing downwards, managers need to remember Henry Ford who said, “The generalist will always employ the specialist.” The manager doesn’t need to know everything about everyone’s discipline they need to know how to engage smart people to get the job done. Highly specialized people often miss the big picture and don’t connect outside of their discipline. The good leader knows a bit about a lot of different things and can therefore use the best skills or combination of skills within the team to get the job done.

Confidence to influence laterally comes from believing that your idea is a good one and knowing how to communicate the benefits of this idea or action to the other parties. In an age of social networking we should feel confident to socialize our ideas, after all, it is not the best ideas that get adopted but the best supported ideas.

To confidently and successfully manage upwards requires the manager or emerging leader to perceive their superior as a colleague rather than a boss. I don’t mean do away
with respect or be over-familiar, but to realize that they are both subservient to the vision of the business/company. Just like influencing laterally, ideas that are framed as beneficial to the business will be well received.

When we succeed at something it builds confidence but we must have the confidence to attempt before we can succeed. If you require confidence to attempt something for the first time, remember Prior Planning Prevents Poor Performance – so prepare and then as Nike says, “Just Do It!”

This doesn’t guarantee success every time but with confidence we know we can receive feedback, learn from our mistakes and do better next time.

The socio-psychological concept of self-confidence relates to self-assuredness in one's personal judgment, ability, power, etc., sometimes manifested excessively. Being confident in yourself is infectious if you present yourself well, others will want to follow in your footsteps towards success.

### 1.3.1 Factors Affecting Self-Confidence

Self-esteem has been directly connected to an individual's social network, the activities they participate in, and what they hear about themselves from others. Positive self-esteem has been linked to factors such as psychological health, mattering to others, and both body image and physical health. On the contrary, low self-esteem has been associated with the outcomes of depression, health problems, and anti-social behaviour. Usually, adolescents of poor health will display low self-esteem. Globally, self-confidence in boys and girls will decline during adolescence, and in contrast to boys, girls' self-confidence won't shoot back up again until early adulthood.

During adolescence, self-esteem is affected by age, race, ethnicity, puberty, health, body height, body weight, body image, involvement in physical activities, gender presentation, gender identity, and awakening or discovery of sexuality. Self-confidence can vary and be observed in a variety of dimensions. Components of one's social and academic life affect self-esteem. An individual's self-confidence can vary in different environments, such as at home or in school. (Myers et al., 2011)

### 1.3.2 The Wheel of Wellness

The Wheel of wellness was the first theoretical model of Wellness based in counselling theory. It is a model based on Adler's individual psychology and cross-disciplinary research on characteristics of healthy people who live longer and with a higher quality of
life. The Wheel of Wellness includes five life tasks that relate to each other: spirituality, self-direction, work and leisure, friendship, and love. There are 12 subtasks of self-direction areas: sense of worth, sense of control, realistic beliefs, emotional awareness and coping, problem solving and creativity, sense of humour, nutrition, exercise, self-care, stress management, gender identity, and cultural identity. There are also five second-order factors, the Creative Self, Coping Self, Social Self, Essential Self, and Physical Self, which allow exploration of the meaning of wellness within the total self. In order to achieve a high self-esteem, it is essential to focus on identifying strengths, positive assets, and resources related to each component of the Wellness model and using these strengths to cope with life challenges. (Myers et al., 2011)

1.3.3 Implicit Vs. Explicit Self-confidence

Many regard heightened self-esteem as a worthy aim, but others worry that its significance and value are overrated, reports the June 2007 issue of the Harvard Mental Health Letter.

There is convincing evidence that people with high self-esteem are happier, as well as more likely to undertake difficult tasks and persevere in the face of failure. Other studies have failed to confirm the virtues of high self-esteem. One way to understand the divergent views is to distinguish various kinds of self-esteem. Researchers are beginning to examine differences between explicit and implicit self-esteem. The explicit form is judged by what we say about ourselves, while implicit self-esteem is measured by automatic responses, such as how we associate words that have favourable or unfavourable connotations with ourselves.

When is it sensible to treat high self-esteem as a goal in itself? Critics suggest that even when self-esteem is associated with something desirable — for instance, happiness — there is no proof of a causal link. A genetic predisposition to feeling good might be the source of both happiness and high self-esteem. Making self-esteem the primary goal could remove an incentive for genuine self-improvement and encourage self-centredness. However, other clinicians say that long-term studies provide sufficient evidence that self-esteem is a source of good things and not just a by-product.

It can hardly be harmful for therapists to encourage patients to take credit for their accomplishments. But constant attention to self-validation is not a road to good mental health. Dr. Michael Miller, editor-in-chief of the Harvard Mental Health Letter, says,
“It’s more likely that self-esteem will come as a result of accurate self-understanding, appreciation of one’s genuine skills, and the satisfaction of helping others.”

1.3.4 Strategies for Developing Confidence

The strategies laid down by John (2007) for developing Confidence are detailed below:

**Emphasize Strengths**

Give yourself credit for everything you try. By focusing on what you can do, you applaud yourself for efforts rather than emphasizing end products. Starting from a base of what you should do helps you live within the bounds of your inevitable limitations.

**Take Risks**

Approach new experiences as opportunities to learn rather than occasions to win or lose. Doing so opens you up to new possibilities and can increase your sense of self-acceptance. Not doing so turns every possibility into an opportunity for failure, and inhibits personal growth.

**Use Self-talk**

Use self-talk as an opportunity to counter harmful assumptions. For example, when you catch yourself expecting perfection, remind yourself that you can’t do everything perfectly, that it’s only possible to try to do things and to try to do them well. This allows you to accept yourself while still striving to improve.

**Self-evaluate**

Learn to evaluate yourself independently. Doing so allows you to avoid the constant sense of turmoil that comes from relying exclusively on the opinions of others. Focusing internally on how you feel about your own behaviour, work, etc. will give you a stronger sense of self and will prevent you from giving your personal power away to others.

**Dress Sharp**

Although clothes don’t make the man, they certainly affect the way he feels about himself. No one is more conscious of your physical appearance than you are. When you don’t look good, it changes the way you carry yourself and interact with other people. Use this to your advantage by taking care of your personal appearance. In most cases, significant improvements can be made by bathing and shaving frequently, wearing clean clothes, and being cognizant of the latest styles. This doesn’t mean you need to spend a lot on clothes. One great rule to follow is “spend twice as much, buy half as much”. Rather than buying a bunch of cheap clothes, buy half
as many select, high quality items. In long run this decreases spending because expensive
clothes wear out less easily and stay in style longer than cheap clothes. Buying less also
helps reduce the clutter in your closet.

**Walk Faster**
One of the easiest ways to tell how a person feels about herself is to examine her walk. Is
it slow? tired? painful? Or, is it energetic and purposeful? People with confidence walk
quickly. They have places to go, people to see, and important work to do. Even if you
aren’t in a hurry, you can increase your self-confidence by putting some pep in your step.
Walking 25% faster will make you look and feel more important.

**Good Posture**
Similarly, the way a person carries herself tells a story. People with slumped shoulders
and lethargic movements display a lack of self-confidence. They aren’t enthusiastic about
what they’re doing and they don’t consider themselves important. By practicing good
posture, you’ll automatically feel more confident. Stand up straight, keep your head up,
and make eye contact. You’ll make a positive impression on others and instantly feel
more alert and empowered.

**Personal Commercial**
One of the best ways to build confidence is listening to a motivational speech.
Unfortunately, opportunities to listen to a great speaker are few and far between. You can
fill this need by creating a personal commercial. Write a 30-60 second speech that
highlights your strengths and goals. Then recite it in front of the mirror aloud (or inside
your head if you prefer) whenever you need a confidence boost.

**Gratitude**
When you focus too much on what you want, the mind creates reasons why you can’t
have it. This leads you to dwell on your weaknesses. The best way to avoid this is
consciously focusing on gratitude. Set aside time each day to mentally list everything you
have to be grateful for. Recall your past successes, unique skills, loving relationships, and
positive momentum. You’ll be amazed how much you have going for you and motivated
to take that next step towards success.

**Compliment other people**
When we think negatively about ourselves, we often project that feeling on to others in
the form of insults and gossip. To break this cycle of negativity, get in the habit of
praising other people. Refuse to engage in backstabbing gossip and make an effort to
compliment those around you. In the process, you’ll become well liked and build self-confidence. By looking for the best in others, you indirectly bring out the best in yourself.

**Sit in the front row**

In schools, offices, and public assemblies around the world, people constantly strive to sit at the back of the room. Most people prefer the back because they’re afraid of being noticed. This reflects a lack of self confidence. By deciding to sit in the front row, you can get over this irrational fear and build your self-confidence. You’ll also be more visible to the important people talking from the front of the room.

**Speak up**

During group discussions many people never speak up because they’re afraid that people will judge them for saying something stupid. This fear isn’t really justified. Generally, people are much more accepting than we imagine. In fact, most people are dealing with the exact same fears. By making an effort to speak up at least once in every group discussion, you’ll become a better public speaker, more confident in your own thoughts, and recognized as a leader by your peers.

**Work out**

Along the same lines as personal appearance, physical fitness has a huge effect on self-confidence. If you’re out of shape, you’ll feel insecure, unattractive, and less energetic. By working out, you improve your physical appearance, energize yourself, and accomplish something positive. Having the discipline to work out not only makes you feel better, it creates positive momentum that you can build on the rest of the day.

**Focus on contribution**

Too often we get caught up in our own desires. We focus too much on ourselves and not enough on the needs of other people. If you stop thinking about yourself and concentrate on the contribution you’re making to the rest of the world, you won’t worry as much about your own flaws. This will increase self-confidence and allow you to contribute with maximum efficiency. The more you contribute to the world the more you’ll be rewarded with personal success and recognition.

**1.3.5 Managerial Self-confidence**

An important factor in effective management is gaining a high level of self-confidence. We must realize that we not only can (but also will) tackle the tasks at hand and have
reasonable expectations of achieving success. There are three things we must develop to gain the level of our self-confidence: **competence, commitment, and control.**

Build **competence** by starting from a success base. Mentally rehearse success. See, feel, and hear the desired end result. Put pressure on the nervous system to create the performance outcome you desire.

Recognize that there are certain necessary feelings that accompany the state of readiness to perform. Increased heart rate, dry mouth, hollow feeling in the pit of the stomach, and muscle tightness are normal feelings providing notice that the body and mind are ready to meet the challenge. These responses are not indicators of impending failure if they are controlled. Nothing can be accomplished without some amount of tension.

Work hard. This simple premise is no guarantee for success, but it’s the only way performance will be maximized. With hard work, there’s always a chance to succeed. Without it, failure is guaranteed. Self-confidence demands a sincere commitment to the task.

Work on taking control over your emotions, thoughts, and goals. Understand that there are factors that are beyond your control. Time should not be wasted worrying about these factors. Concentrate only on the factors over which you can exercise some degree of influence. Don’t stare at the approaching train, look where you’re putting your feet!

As a manager, you have the opportunity to help others gain greater self-confidence. Keep track of the positive accomplishments of your employees and remind them of their growth. The purpose of these reminders is to continually orient employees as to how far they’ve grown and developed, and what they can reasonably expect of themselves in the future. Help them visualize what they’re capable of. Remind them of what it feels like to perform well, and explain realistically where they stand in terms of what they’re capable of today. This kind of attention will foster the self-confidence necessary for individuals to demonstrate again and again what they’re capable of. Be careful not to raise expectations to a level they cannot possibly achieve. Reflect for a moment on the following points:

Personal excellence is largely a matter of believing in one’s capabilities and performing with a sense of pride, perseverance and commitment to identified objectives.

Self-esteem is the strength of one’s convictions that he or she can successfully execute a behavior required to produce a certain outcome.

Expectations and potential rewards determine how much effort individuals expend and how long they will persist in the face of adversity.
Actual performance is directly related to the individual’s feeling of competence and expectations of personal effectiveness.

1.3.6 Managing Managerial Self-confidence
Dr. Tingstad (1994), Professor of Pharmacy, University of California, San Francisco, in his book titled, “Improving Your Staff Self-confidence” suggested some of the important ways to manage managerial self-confidence. These are detailed as follows:

One of a manager's most important responsibilities is increasing subordinates' self-confidence; employees then have a more optimistic—but realistic—view of their skills and talents.

Increasing self-confidence offers more than psychic rewards. If employees feel good about themselves, chances are you will notice that productivity and morale both improve. Why? First, self-confident people are decisive rather than tentative. They can focus on their work responsibilities instead of worrying about the reactions of others, and they are optimistic about reaching their objectives.

Second, self-confident people are risk-takers, and taking risks is crucial in technical organizations. These people are expressive; they forge ahead instead of waiting for someone else to show the way. People who lack self-confidence, on the other hand, tend to play "catch up" rather than focus on progress.

Third, people who feel good about themselves are likely to increase the self-confidence of those around them. Self-confident people are respected by colleagues and management, and they return that respect.

The author is not talking about over-confidence. People must accurately perceive their abilities so they will accept tasks that are appropriate to their skills. Managers play an important role in working with researchers, to assign tasks so individuals can determine for themselves which challenges they can handle.

Once we decide that improving self-confidence among the staff is a vital responsibility for a manager, how do we go about it? By accepting, praising, appreciating, encouraging, and reassuring. Let's examine these actions.

Accepting
Accept your employees for who they are, not just for what they do. People who feel valued, rather than feeling constantly scrutinized, will be more secure. And since secure people are less threatened by mistakes, security fosters innovation. (By "mistakes," I'm
excluding life- or corporate-threatening errors, which clearly require drastic measures.) Secure employees develop a realistic form of self-confidence, since they are more likely to recognize their deficiencies and admit them to others.

How do we translate this accepting attitude into action? When you see something you don't like, you may need to stifle the urge to say, "Do it my way." Instead, both parties may benefit if you let the person continue and learn. Don't rule out the possibility that you may also learn something—many chiefs' ideas have been proven wrong by curious, intelligent, and secure subordinates.

It's difficult to maintain an accepting attitude in the midst of others' mistakes, but it will make you a better manager.

**Praising**

Good managers take the time to listen to their employees, and are concerned about employees' self-esteem. Although we all know how good it feels to be praised, many managers are too insensitive, too busy, or too concerned with their own egos to praise subordinates.

Here are some guidelines:

- Praise must be deserved, otherwise, it will be counterproductive (or scorned).
- A spontaneous comment is the most genuine form of praise.
- Never suppress the urge to praise.
- Comments should be specific, so the recipient knows exactly what is being praised.
- You can praise people by recognizing them as individuals or members of a group. There are many options here. For example, sponsor dinners, give out plaques, allow trips to represent the company, or send a formal letter detailing what the employee has done so well.

Usually, the problem is not an inability to find the proper reward vehicle, but rather the manager's reluctance to praise.

**Appreciating**

Appreciation is akin to praise, but while praise acknowledges that the employee has excelled at some skill or task, appreciation explains what the employee's effort has done for an individual, team or company.

To appreciate, show your staff how their accomplishments have benefited you (as well as the company), and make it clear that you appreciate their efforts. (If you really have
trouble appreciating your subordinates, ask yourself whether you can meet your career objectives without them).

While the value of praise is determined by whether the recipient feels it's deserved, the value of appreciation is largely determined by the giver. Managers should show appreciation when it's due. This is the right way to treat people; otherwise, managing becomes manipulating.

Show appreciation through personal comments and notes. You will also find that appreciation will be reciprocated, resulting in a far more pleasant and productive work environment. Among the most rewarding events for a manager is receiving a note of thanks from a subordinate.

**Encouraging**

When does an employee most need encouraging? After a mistake. This is when you can help the employee admit errors and learn from them: One word of encouragement during a failure is worth a whole book of praise after a success.

It’s important to appreciate that the greatest threat to self-confidence is criticism—even a single remark. Although some believe "constructive” criticism improves performance and fosters personal growth, criticism is almost always destructive. Regression, not growth, is the most likely consequence of criticism.

Self-criticism, the only kind you should encourage among subordinates and yourself, is the exception in most work environments.

Secure and self-confident group members, who see each other as friends, are more likely to self-criticize. Almost paradoxically, external criticism tends to stifle self-criticism by threatening morale and status.

If the manager frequently finds fault, then group members will become defensive and lose self-esteem. What is needed is less managerial criticism coupled with increased managerial praise and encouragement.

**Reassuring**

Reassuring is defined as “restoring to assurance or confidence.” (Reassuring is directed to someone who generally feels inadequate, while encouraging is a response to something specific, like a mistake.)

Studies have shown that more than two-thirds of business executives have feelings of personal inadequacy and doubt. I’m sure it’s not only top management, but also researchers, who need reassurance.
People like to be praised for what they do well, but they need reassurance in areas where they are less confident. Let them know they're making progress in overcoming a deficiency, that their problem is trivial, or that no one is perfect.

James Newton, in *Uncommon Friends*, gives a perfect example of the place and power of reassurance: “When Thomas Edison was improving his first light bulb, he handed a finished bulb to a young helper, who nervously carried it upstairs, step by step. At the last moment, the boy dropped it. The whole team had to work another 24 hours to make another bulb. Edison looked around, then handed it to the same boy. The gesture probably changed the boy's life. Edison knew that more than the bulb, self-confidence was at stake.”

The more important a person is to us, the more we need signals from him or her that our relationship is healthy and productive. Therefore, managers must frequently reassure, particularly in R&D, where the disappointments commonly outnumber the successes.

There is a danger: if you overdo reassurance, the beneficiary might feel patronized. Reassurance is best done empathically—when you try to see things from the other's point of view and identify with those feelings.

On the most productive teams, leaders and subordinates have a realistic self-confidence. Researchers' self-confidence can easily be increased or decreased, and it's up to you as a manager to sustain it. The entire team will find their jobs more enjoyable—and you'll be ready to tackle the toughest problems.

This is a great question that needs to be addressed within many companies, especially in this day and age. Many employees feel tired, frustrated and not recognized as a contributing part of their work environment more than ever, while their load multiplies and salaries do not reflect effort, there is little motivation to push them to excel.

Making an employee feel an integral part of the big picture and motivating them towards excellence while owning their part of the work is something a master manager can achieve.

**Recognizing the Signs** Boosting morale and showing employees how to gain self-confidence are the keys to employee satisfaction, retention and delivering the best work possible. Most employees lose confidence when they don’t feel heard, appreciated, or worse, that they serve no purpose. An employee who does not feel part of the team will eventually go rogue, looking for other career opportunities. If this sounds familiar there are easy fixes for these situations.
Get Personal Holding regular meetings is a good way to check in with employee morale but it will do little if you do not follow up with one-on-one conversations that engage at the human level. A good manager makes a point to know as much as possible about his employee’s personal life, children, spouse, hobbies, etc. This information becomes important when engaging in daily conversation, making the employee feel a human part of the company.

Remembering birth dates, sending wishes, keeping track of children graduation are simple tasks achieved with any calendaring systems. While they might seem simple on the surface, they should not be dealt with superficially. Employees will sense sooner or later detect insincerity and respond better to genuine concern.

When the Going Gets Tough... When times are difficult for companies is when efforts should redouble at making sure everyone feels onboard. Your employee’s work should always be recognized, good or bad times. If the work is not up to the company’s standard, or sub-par with what is expected from the individual, it can be addressed in an intelligent manner.

By acknowledging first the work done, the employee will feel recognized. After that, a subtle manager will find ways of making his employee reach for higher success by showing how to achieve better results. The employee can be brought to the realization that they have delivered the work well but that it can also be further refined.

Carrot and the Stick. Prizes and competition for the greatest achievement works well with most people, but not all. If the carrot and stick don’t always work, there are simple solutions for you. In order to not alienate talents that shy away from competition, knowing how your employees function and who they are is essential. You can then start to implement various groups where they will excel within the diversity.

Ideal Environments. Ideal environment I found are hybrids that cater to the two basic types – left and right-brain thinkers. Right brain thinkers find it easy to work with abstract thinking, while left-brain thinkers are more analytical. Getting both to work in a group can be daunting but done correctly finds the ideal solution and how to implement it. Having specific goals for each type and groups can motivate them to excel. For those who tend to be more socially aware, competition can be a good motivation for better results, but it shouldn’t be done at the detriment of those not interested in competitive ratings.
All in all, creating the perfect environment to show employees how to gain self-confidence and boost morale is a tricky process that demands from a skilled manager much insight, intuition, real, meaningful personal contact with employees and a clear vision of the goal, topped with a distinctive company culture. The good news is all of these can easily be achieved with the help of a certified Business Coach.

A recent survey by the International Coach Federation identified that the number one reason why people choose to work with a coach is due to a lack of self-confidence. Someone who is self-confident can sometimes be viewed by others who are less confident as arrogant. Yet in truth self-confidence is really about having a strong sense of self-worth and capabilities.

If you are a manager, your success or otherwise is influenced by factors such as:

(a) Knowing that you have the capability or competence (or can acquire it) to take on and deal with the challenges that without doubt will arise.
(b) Speaking up and airing your views even when they might be slightly controversial.
(c) Being able to take decisions even when you might not have all of the information at your fingertips that you might need or like.
(d) Getting other to provide support to get things done or make change.

A manager lacking self-confidence is likely to have some traits or develop traits that get in the way, including:

(a) Being indecisive, procrastinating and failing to move things forward.
(b) Going with the consensus when deep down you know it is not going to produce results.
(c) Avoiding taking any risks that could lead to a step change in performance.

Self-confidence trait of the managers is expected to affect their level of performance. So, apart from emotional maturity and self-confidence, leadership skills can also be expected to affect performance level of the managers in the banking and insurance sectors.

1.4 Leadership Skills

What is leadership? It is a process by which one person influences the thoughts, attitudes, and behaviours of others. Leaders set a direction for the rest of us; they help us see what lies ahead; they help us visualize what we might achieve; they encourage us and inspire us. Without leadership a group of human beings quickly degenerates into argument and conflict, because we see things in different ways and lean toward different solutions.
Leadership helps to point us in the same direction and harness our efforts jointly. Leadership is the ability to get other people to do something significant that they might not otherwise do. It’s energizing people toward a goal.

Leadership is often defined in terms of “an individual’s consistent ability to influence others in achieving goals”. There are two kinds of leaders:

- **Informal**—people who are recognised as “natural leaders” by their peers in a group.
- **Formal**—people who are officially sanctioned as a leader by their organization.

Both forms are essential at work. Effective leadership, whether informal or formal, relies on others accepting the nominated individual as someone they can trust and whose judgement they can usually rely upon.

Writers on leadership sometimes focus on great international statesmen and stateswomen in modern and ancient times; yet informal, everyday leadership is more critical to the success of businesses and communities and to building social concern, informal leadership is not glamorous or newsworthy, but is an important element in keeping a business or society healthy and productive.

Leadership is an enigma. Researchers have studied it, philosophers have engaged in long discussions and written treatises about it, and practitioners have tried mightily to target exactly what is meant when we use the term *leadership*. These various perspectives on leadership have led us to examine variables such as the concept and use of power, traits of effective leaders, environmental and personal contingencies, leadership styles, and leadership theories and models.

According to Aristotle, the successful leader had to demonstrate three main qualities:

- **Knowledge** or expertise in relevant subject.
- **Moral standing** in the eyes of one’s followers.
- **Demonstration of goodwill** towards one’s followers.

These qualities are not necessarily owned, as such, by an individual leader. Successful persuasion depended on followers believing that their leaders possess such attributes.

Thus, leadership ability resides not so much in the leader as in the minds (and hearts) of the led. This is subtle but important distinction.

Other attributes of leaders are important too— for example,

- **Expertise** (perceived intellectual or logical ability)
- **Morality** (having the best interests of the whole company primarily in mind rather than being in it for personal gain only).
1.4.1 Early Insights of Leadership

Historically, definitions of leadership focused on behaviours of leaders. For example, in Plutarch’s *Parallel Lives*, written in the first century of the current era, the behaviours, conduct, and values of famous ancient Romans and Greeks were described, and during this time, their behaviours were emulated as part of leadership training (Bonner, 1977). In the 16th century, Machiavelli’s *The Prince* provided Lorenzo de Medici with political prescriptions on how to be a successful leader in an Italian city-state, and in the 20th century, James MacGregor Burns’s *Leadership* (1978) examined the dynamics of the leader-follower relationship in the context of conflict and power.

Traits of leaders have been studied to identify the work and personal characteristics of leaders and the skill traits associated with leader effectiveness. Work traits include persistence, willingness to assume responsibility, decisiveness, dependability, and tolerance of stress; personality traits include dominance, decisiveness, co-operation, self-confidence, and energy; and skill traits include intelligence, creativity, diplomacy, persuasiveness, and organizational ability.

Historical theorists, such as Thomas Carlyle, have described the “Great Man” theory of leadership, which states that leaders are born, not made. Karl Marx and George Hegel maintained that leaders are a product of the social and economic forces of their time. Gardner (1990), combining these views of leadership, states that both historical and environmental forces create conditions that allow leaders to emerge. Gardner’s example is the charismatic Martin Luther, who emerged in the early beginnings of the social and political upheaval of the Reformation, and whose 95 theses nailed to a church door made him a historical force.

In this historical and research-based context, definitions of leadership abound. However varied these definitions may be, what is clear and undisputed is that leaders have *loyal* and *committed* followers and that leaders do not exist in isolation. Leaders, as we argue elsewhere (Weller and Weller, 2000), are products of their times, their environments, their offices, their followers, their values, their personality traits, and their conceptualizations of leadership. Leaders are *prime movers* who allow others to achieve common goals and who unite others for a common purpose. They command yet they serve their followers. They allow their followers’ choices but provide direction on how ends should be achieved.
What is it then that these definitions and insights can provide the assistant principal? First, they suggest that one definition of leadership is as valid as another. There is no right or wrong answer to the question, “What is leadership?” Second, these definitions reflect fads, wishes, academic trends, political influences, and reality as known to those who have attempted to define the term. Third, existing definitions “provide a sliver of insight with each remaining an incomplete and wholly inadequate explanation” (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) of the phenomenon called leadership.

1.4.2 The Manager Versus Leader: A Debatable Issue

The manager versus leader debate is an ongoing discussion about which of the two roles effective leaders play. The terms leader and manager tend to be used interchangeably, but major differences exist. Managers, in general, are “nuts and bolts” oriented whereas leaders are visionaries, conceptualizers, and catalysts. Managers’ work is often defined as:

Planning–organising–leading–controlling

There is leadership element in much of what managers do, but leadership is such a distinctive and powerful phenomenon that we need to understand separately. Managers realise the value of planning and how to use logical systems and structure to obtain results at work. They seek to reduce complexity and increase predictability in their work environments in order to organise systems and use them effectively. They use control strategies in their everyday management practice to:

- Measure present enterprise achievements
- Compare them against targets
- Assess what is needed to ensure those targets are met
- Mobilise resources to get results.

Leaders may carry out tasks such as these too. Unlike managers, however, leaders are especially interested in the big picture, such as working towards long-term goals and successfully managing change. The best leaders have the power to inspire their staff in their everyday work. In fact, many managers would not necessarily rate highly as leaders. Therefore, businesses need people who cover both bases: leadership and management.
Those who excel as leaders may excel as managers, but those who excel as managers infrequently excel as leaders. The best schools can hope for is having competent leaders and managers in the administrative ranks.

Leaders plan, delegate, co-ordinate, and motivate. They focus on developing human potential and on influencing and persuading others to accomplish organizational goals. Leaders seek to “bond” with subordinates and to align the goals of subordinates with those of the organization. Authority vested in leaders through the organization’s line staff chart is used only as a last resort when influence and persuasion fail. The ability to influence and persuade others is a primary characteristic of leaders that sets them apart from managers, who achieve results by directing the work of others. Leaders inspire and motivate others to action. Leaders rely more on their cognitive and human relations skills to attain their objectives than on their authority to tell others what to do. Leaders have “mature wisdom,” according to Gardner (1990), which allows them to provide clear direction and purpose to their followers; know the needs, concerns, and expectations of their followers and develop a “social compact” with their followers. When social compacts are formed, followers willingly entrust their future welfare to the leader, who in turn willingly entrusts the welfare of the organization to the followers.

In schools, principals often assume the role of leader, whereas assistant principals—due to the types of job responsibilities generally delegated by the principal, such as discipline and student supervision—are more often viewed as managers.

A more accurate way of placing the manager versus leader debate in perspective, then, is to understand that a leader can have managerial responsibilities—in other words, a person doesn’t have to be one or the other. Rather, it may help to distinguish between leaders and non-leaders. Some factors help differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Newstrom and Davis (1997) found that a high level of personal drive, the desire to lead, personal integrity, self-confidence, flexibility, analytical ability, creativity, and personal warmth are the attributes of leaders in the most current research findings. Caution should be taken, because these leadership characteristics do not guarantee successful leadership. They can best be viewed as competencies to be developed. It seems clear that leadership is more personally demanding than managership because leadership requires a voluntary commitment to promote one’s goals through influence and persuasion; to be fair, trustworthy, and honest; and to use authority and power wisely and sparingly. Leaders
who are successful and who do rely on their power and authority to accomplish their goals are students of power.

**Compliance, Commitment and Change**

An enthusiastic response by followers is important in creating a leader’s success. Whereas a manager can often get the basic business done if staff merely complies with instructions, the best leaders go beyond achieving just compliance—they build commitment as well.

Commitment has an emotional element to it, in that people have a firm attachment to their enterprise and its leadership. Strongly committed followers tend to place a high value on their leader’s skills and abilities.

The best leaders understand change and how to manage it. Even if they do not have all the answers in the times of flux, they do not fear change. Top leaders have the emotional maturity to be resilient. They build staff commitment, then empower people to be productive. An important element in this is their sense of future—leaders have the vision of where the enterprise could be and needs to be.

**Formal and Informal Power**

Power in organizations can be accrued and used by individuals and groups. Leaders have power to influence the behaviour of others both through their personal attributes and as legitimate representatives of the organization. Formal power is defined as that power that is legally vested in a position and sanctioned by the organization; informal power stems from personal attributes, outside of formal power, that attract allegiance and support from peers. French and Raven (1968), who pioneered the analysis of power in organizations, identified five major sources of power leaders use to influence the behaviour of individuals:

1. **Reward Power:** Rewards are provided by virtue of the leader’s position or influence over others. Reward power depends on the kind of reward the leader can provide and on the attractiveness of the reward to others. Examples of extrinsic rewards include salary increases, promotions, and good work assignments; intrinsic rewards include praise.

2. **Expert Power:** Expert power is derived from special abilities or knowledge possessed by the leader and desired by the followers. Examples are education, experience, and special training.
3. Referent Power: Referent power stems from the ability of the leader to acquire a following through charisma. The leader’s personality traits command respect and attract others to the leader’s presence. Referent power may also be derived from a leader’s association with powerful people, with the leader influencing the behaviour of others through actual or perceived contacts with others.

4. Legitimate Power: Legitimate power, or formal authority, is vested in the leader by the position held in the organization. Legitimate power allows the leader to direct others to achieve organizational goals. Power also comes from followers’ belief that legitimate power will be used rationally and in the followers’ best interests.

5. Coercive Power: Coercive power is used to threaten and punish, to make people conform, and to achieve the leader’s goals. Coercive power is the opposite of reward power. Examples of coercive power include demotions, threats of punishment, undesirable work assignments, and a lack of pay increases.

1.4.3 Leadership: An Aspect of Personality

The personality traits that go to make up a leader often include qualities such as:

- Energy level
- Intelligence
- Trustworthiness
- Personal ethics
- Confidence
- Knowledge
- Skills
- Ambition
- The wish to be recognised as a leader.

Certainly, these can be important in a leadership role, but research has shown that personal traits account for only a small proportion of leadership performance—and seems probable that experiencing successful leadership builds on and enhances these factors in the individual.

1.4.4 Management and Leadership Capability

Our current ideas about the nature of management and leadership have evolved through several decades. New ideas, such as emotional intelligence, tend to add themselves to
older ideas, such as planning and organising. The debate about management versus leadership will no doubt continue, but has probably served its purpose. Suffice it to say that the aspects of management concerned with giving people direction and motivating them are now seen as very crucial.

There has been significant research into attributes of managers who are 'high performers.' However, different researchers have approached this task in different terms. Some have looked at tasks/activities, some at skills/behaviours and some personal qualities. Research has usually been focused on improving selection, so has not told us much about the relationship between capability and management development.

'Competence' frameworks are used in many organisations as summaries of descriptions of desired management behaviours, often including activities and personal qualities as well. National Management Standards have been in existence for a decade, and have been amended several times over that period; mainly reflecting informed opinion about management and leadership rather than rigorous research. Major employers continue to use their own competence frameworks, even in the public sector, although the National Standards are widely used to accredited vocational management education.

Many of our ideas about management and leadership capability come from work on senior managers, and may not apply so well to junior and middle managers. There are also limitations to the evidence base in terms of nationality (much work is American), gender (mostly male) and race (mostly white).

Leaders high in emotional maturity are attuned to their inner signals and recognize how their emotions can affect them, others and the job performance. Emotionally matured leaders will have the stamina to resist emotions and stay calm in a stressful situation and cannot be easily provoked. Their behaviours are non-impulsive and they resist temptation to inappropriate involvements. They are capable to find acceptable outlets for emotions. They understand conflicting views of others and express their opinion based on facts with openness and concern for overall effect.

Leadership is and has been described as the “process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task”. Leadership is one of the most relevant aspects of the organizational context. However, defining leadership has been challenging.

The final test of a leader is that he leaves behind him in other men the conviction and the will to carry on. The genius of a good leader is to leave behind him a situation which
common sense, without the grace of genius, can deal with successfully" - Walter Lippman.
The leader is one driven by vision, who plans better, persists when others have faded out and who is immortal in the history of that entity (Srinivasan, 2014). Leaders and leadership have been defined, time and again, in different contexts and theories based on the leaders who have succeeded in that era. But all leaders have been known for their visions. The vision leads them to success and the leader continues his plan on and on. The corporate strategies, redefined and rewritten, are to bring about the competitive leadership, differentiation in the business space and focus on the vision and mission. The organization of Microsoft is where it is now because of Bill Gate’s vision; Infosys technologies is a success story because of a simple visionary man named Narayan Murthy. It is the thought seed that has germinated, nurtured by vision, shaped by the leading hand (Srinivasan, 2014)

The ideology of David Gleicher1 maintained that organizational change dynamics follows the change equation of $D \times V \times F > R$, (Xavier, 1995).

Where, D− dissatisfaction, V−vision, F−first steps, and R− resistance to change.

In a growing globalized environment, converting challenges to opportunities then into wealth creation require a fine blend of strategic integration of resources and competencies. The competitive environment has brought about paradigm shifts in the comprehensive conceptual framework of organizational goals, systems, processes, skills and lookouts. It is no longer enabled to rest on the previous functional set-up and design waiting for things to happen. Here the leader plays a significant part diagnosing the gaps, intervene if variances occur and reinforce the vision and mission—the essence of organizational set-up.

Thus, as organizations expand and venture into wider global markets, the executive and managerial work-force must have technical competence, international expertise and a global perspective. In short, they must be prepared to become global leaders, equipped to meet the demands of global organizations. Leaders can inculcate emotional maturity among their employees with proper feedback. When they see employees reacting too quickly or emotionally to situations or problems, then you should ask them to think it over and then react to it, instead of jumping into decision mode immediately.
1.4.5 Emotional Maturity and Leadership
There is evidence of a correlation between emotional maturity or emotional intelligence (EI) and success as a leader. The qualities of EI have been defined as:

- Good self-awareness.
- Personal management skills, such as goal setting and managing time.
- Being motivated in a way that is intrinsic (internal) rather than extrinsic (from outside sources).
- Empathy or warmth towards other people.
- Interpersonal skills.

Building Trust
Trust is an essential element in successful leadership. Some key principles in building trust are listed below:

- Be as open with your staff as your situation permits. If commercial confidentiality requires that you do not share information, tell people about this constraint, but assure them that you will be as open as the context follows.
- Follow the rule: ‘do as you would be done by’ before making any decision that affects staff, think how you would feel about your decision if the roles are reversed and you were on the receiving end.
- Tell the truth and carry out your promises.
- Be consistent. This builds some predictability in a changing world and gives staff the continuity that enables them to focus on their performance at work.
- Demonstrate strict confidentiality. Staff need to know that they can talk to you about sensitive matters in confidence.
- Show your professional and technical expertise. This adds another dimension (beyond management ability) to how people see you and what you can deliver to the enterprise.

Especially in times of rapid social and economic change, people seek guidance from their personal relationships, which include people at work whose viewpoints they respect. Leadership is based on trust and, if trust goes, the leadership will probably fail.

Vision of a Leader
A visionary leader knows how to build on the present and create a pathway for the future that followers can relate to and can see their own part in a vision of the future is appealing
only when people see that it is both attractive and likely to work. In people’s minds it must be an improvement on the present, and it must not be so far into the future as to seem unattainable.

Visionary leaders know how to:

- Build a vivid picture of the future goal; and
- Explain it in realistic terms so that people buy into it.

The trust factor now becomes central, because even the most clear sighted leader will be unable to see every detail of what the future will bring. Staff feel able to trust a leader when they believe that he or she has their well-being at heart, and will be as responsive to their needs as the situation permits—even if the details are still unclear.

**Transactional Versus Transformational Leadership**

Burns (1978) devised what has become a popular way of seeing the leadership role in his definition of transactional and transformational leaders. A transaction means there is an exchange of some kind, e.g., time for money. So, a transactional leader treats the work relationship as an exchange of time for money— the employee is paid, for example, $20 for every hour spent working for the company.

The problem with the mindset is that it is inherently limiting. It encourages a restricted view of work performance and relationship, and distracts people from thinking about how to maximise benefits to the individual and the company.

Transformational leaders, on the other hand, inspire staff and demonstrate self-interest is less important than no good. Transformational leaders are likely to:

- Live their values than just playing lip service to them.
- Have a strong vision of where their enterprise can and should be.
- Be open minded with long term interest in learning.
- Have a genuine belief in their followers.
- Have skills in dealing with complex and ambiguous problems.
- See themselves as change agents and possess the courage to act (Tichy and Devanna, 1986).

Because of these qualities, transformational leaders are close to their followers. They know they will not achieve their goals without buy-in from others.

**Situational and Contingency Factors**

Aspects of the work context can help to create effective leadership. Fiedler(1967) identified three factors that can build or undermine leadership:
• **Relationships between leader and members** – it is particularly important that people have faith in their leader.

• **Task structure** – the extent to which work duties are structured or unstructured.

• **Position power** – a leader’s influence in areas such as promotion, salary and power to discipline or to fire.

In public sector organizations, for example, leaders often have quite low position power in terms of hiring and firing. In addition, staff duties tend to be relatively unpredictable and structured because it is knowledge dependent environment. This means leaders have little control over task structure. If the leader’s influence over these two factors is low, that leader will need to focus on building the first factor by looking for ways to strengthen follower trust and confidence in his or her abilities.

Similar scenarios are likely to apply in environments such as health, higher education and the IT industry, where employees compete intensely for scarce skills. While managers may, in theory, be able to hire and fire, this form of power is usually relatively unimportant because, in a comprehensive market place, managers are consistently seeking ways to recruit and retain good people. In this way, their position power also becomes quite limited.

When leaders get promoted or change jobs they should be highly attuned to changing organizational cultures and circumstances and be aware that a leadership style that works well in one environment may be less successful in another.

The type of leadership that works best in a given situation will depend on the follower’s ability to be responsible for their actions (Hersey and Blanchard, 1984). Leaders need to ask two questions about the people they are leading:

- How competent are they?
- How motivated and confident are they in their work?

The theory is that any situation will fall into one of the four categories. People will be:

1. Low in both job competence and motivation
2. Low in competence and high in motivation
3. High in competence but low in motivation
4. High in both competence and motivation.

Depending on which scenario exists in your workplace, one of the four possible leadership styles will be most effective:
**Telling or Directing**
As a leader in a workplace where staff competence and motivation are low, you will need to be very much in charge of every day proceedings. At least until you have been able to build staff abilities and confidence, you define the work roles and direct the work tightly. Though, this is not an effective long-term style. In essence, it delegates upward, transferring the work from your staff to yourself.

**Selling or Coaching**
When people lack the necessary competence but are highly motivated, your leadership role require you to provide ongoing support and empathy. This gives staff the confidence to know that you support efforts to improve their skill level.

**Participating or Supporting**
In this instance, you know that people are competent but for some reason they lack motivation. Reluctance like this can result from staff perceiving that in the past they have had little influence at work. Is so, you will make progress if you:

- Demonstrate to staff that their input is important.
- Set them stretch targets – this challenges them to increase their involvement.

**Delegating**
If the people are both competent and motivated, you are in the happy situation of being able to let them go on with it. Your leadership role will probably include:

- Keeping the vision clearly in front of staff
- Helping them to monitor their own performance
- Providing encouragement
- Celebrating their success.

In reality, an analysis of staff aptitude and motivation is not so simple and straightforward. You could well have a mix of people at all four levels of competence and motivation; and individuals will react differently to different aspects of their work. For example, a person may be highly confident in one work element (e.g. using spreadsheets) but lacking confidence in another (e.g. Ability to write to clients effectively and fluently). It is vital to know your staff and to be aware of their individual strengths and weaknesses.

### 1.4.6 Cultural Dimensions of Leadership
Successful leadership varies significantly by culture. The study carried out by Gerstner and Day (1994) examined how people from eight different cultures living in United States
perceived leadership. They found that each culture saw leadership differently, with none of the most typical U.S. leadership traits being ranked. In New Zealand, both globalization and the increasing cultural mix in business and society are causing a reappraisal of what is needed in the leadership role.

In recent years, New Zealand’s population mix has been changing due to increased immigration and growth in the Pacific island population. In addition, Treaty of Waitangi Settlements have provided Maori with greater access to resources and decision-making about how and where to invest those resources.

New Zealand has been developing a unique cultural mix and can no longer be assumed that leadership styles inherited from a European past will necessarily work best in this multicultural society. One major difference, for example, is that whereas European cultures place emphasis on the centrality of the individual, other cultures (such as Pacific and Asian) are more collective in their orientation. Successful leaders will be sophisticated in understanding how to work effectively with all groups. The challenge for leaders is to be credible in several cultural settings simultaneously.

**Conclusion**

In a nutshell, it has been seen that the future performance of the managers can be predicted before selecting them for different positions in the organizations, if we measure the various behavioural aspects of an individual. These aspects might have an effect on the performance level of the managers. The present study is an attempt to examine the effect of various behavioural parameters such as emotional maturity, self-confidence and leadership skills on the performance level of the managers. An in-depth study on the subject can lead to improve the overall performance of the organisations.
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