

UNIT I INTRODUCTION TO ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

LESSON – 1 IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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1.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson, the students are able to :

- i) Understand the concepts of organizational behavior and its application in managing people
- ii) Apply the different approaches to organizational behavior and enhance the human relationships within the organization.
- iii) Explore the relationships among the various components of organizational behavior and their effectiveness.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Organizations are social systems. If one wishes to work in them or to manage them, it is necessary to understand how they operate. Organizations combine science and people – technology and humanity. Unless we have qualified people to design and implement, techniques alone will not produce desirable results. Human behavior in organizations is

rather unpredictable. It is unpredictable because it arises from people's deep-seated needs and value systems. However, it can be partially understood in terms of the framework of behavioral science, management and other disciplines. There is no idealistic solution to organizational problems. All that can be done is to increase our understanding and skills so that human relations at work can be enhanced

1.2 ORGNISATION BEHAVIOUR - CONCEPTS

Organizational Behavior is field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behavior within organization. It is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within organizations. It is a human tool for human benefit. It applies broadly to the behavior of people in all types of organizations, such as business, government, schools and services organizations. It covers three determinants of behavior in organizations: individuals, groups, and structure. OB is an applied field. It applies the knowledge gained about individuals, and the effect of structure on behavior, in order to make organizations work more effectively. OB covers the core topics of motivation, leadership behavior and power, interpersonal communication, group structure and process, learning, attitude development and perception, change process, conflict, job design and work stress.

Before studying organizational behavior, it is desirable to know the meanings of organization and management.

1.2.1 Organization

Organization as a purposeful system with several subsystems where individuals and activities are organized to achieve certain predetermined goals through division of labor and coordination of activities. Division of labor refers to how the work is divided among the employees and coordination refers to how all the various activities performed by the individuals are integrated or brought together to accomplish the goals of the organization. The term organizing is used to denote one aspect of the managerial activities when he or she is preparing and scheduling the different tasks that need to be completed for the job to be done.

1.2.2 Management

It refers to the functional process of accomplishing the goals of the organization through the help of others. A manager is an individual who is given the responsibility for achieving the goals assigned to him or her as part of the overall goals of the organization and who is expected to get the job done. The terms of top management, lower management are frequently used to indicate the hierarchical levels of those who are engaged in the process of getting the goals of the organization accomplished.

1.3 Key Elements of Organisational Behavior

The key elements in organizational behavior are people, structure, technology and the external elements in which the organization operates. When people join together in an

organization to accomplish an objective, some kind of infrastructure is required. People also use technology to help get the job done, so there is an interaction of people, structure and technology. In addition, these elements are influenced by the external environment, and they influence it. Each of the four elements of organizational behavior will be considered briefly.

1.3.1 People

People make up the internal social system of the organization. They consist of individuals and groups, and large groups as well as small ones. People are the living, thinking, feelings beings who created the organizations. It exists to achieve their objectives. Organizations exist to serve people. People do not exist to serve organizations. The work force is one of the critical resources that need to be managed. In managing human resources, managers have to deal with:

- i) Individual employee who are expected to perform the tasks allotted to them
- ii) Dyadic relationships such as superior-subordinate interactions
- iii) Groups who work as teams and have the responsibility for getting the job done,
- iv) People out side the organization system such as customers and government officials

1.3.2 Structure

Structure defines the official relationships of people in organizations. Different jobs are required to accomplish all of an organization's activities. There are managers and employees, accountants and assemblers. These people have to be related in some structural way so that their work can be effective. The main structure relates to power and to duties. For example, one person has authority to make decisions that affect the work of other people.

Some of the key concepts of organization structure are listed as below:

- a) **Hierarchy of Authority:** This refers to the distribution of authority among organizational positions and authority grants the position holder certain rights including right to give direction to others and the right to punish and reward.
- b) **Division of Labor:** This refers to the distribution of responsibilities and the way in which activities are divided up and assigned to different members of the organization is considered to be an element of the social structure.
- c) **Span of Control:** This refers to the total number of subordinates over whom a manager has authority
- d) **Specialization:** This refers to the number of specialities performed within the organization.
- e) **Standardization:** It refers to the existence of procedures for regularly recurring events or activities
- f) **Formalization:** This refers to the extent to which rules, procedures, and communications are written down
- g) **Centralization:** This refers to the concentration of authority to make decision.

- h) **Complexity:** This refers to both vertical differentiation and horizontal differentiation. Vertical differentiation: outlines number of hierarchical levels; horizontal differentiation highlights the number of units within the organization (e.g departments, divisions)

Organizations can be structured as relatively rigid, formalized systems or as relatively loose, flexible systems. Thus the structure of the organizations can range on a continuum of high rigidity to high flexibility. There are two broad categories of organization: i) Mechanistic form of organization ii) Organic form of Organization

1.3.3 Mechanistic form of Organisation

It is characterized by high levels of complexity, formalization and centralization. A highly mechanistic system is characterized by centralized decision making at the top, a rigid hierarchy of authority, well but narrowly defined job responsibilities especially at lower levels, and extensive rules and regulations which are explicitly make known to employees through written documents. In mechanistic organization, labor is divided and subdivided into many highly specialized tasks (high complexity), workers are granted limited discretion in performing their tasks and rules and procedures are carefully defined (high formalization); and there is limited participation in decision making which tends to be conducted at the highest levels of management high centralization.

1.3.4 Organic form of Organisation

A highly organic system is characterized by decentralized decision-making which allows people directly involved with the job to make their own decisions, very few levels in the hierarchy with flexible authority and reporting patters, loosely defined job responsibilities for members, and very few written rules and regulations. It is relatively simple, informal and decentralized. Compared with mechanistic organizations, employees in organic organizations, such as design firms or research labs, tend to be more generalist in their orientation.

1.3.5 Jobs and Tasks

Job refers to the sum total of an individual's assignment at the workplace. Tasks refer to the various activities that need to be performed to get the job done. The nature of tasks, it's executives by various individuals, nature of interdependence and inter-relatedness, group activities etc have implication for organizational effectiveness. Thus the jobs and tasks have to be designed and managed properly.

Core Job Characteristics: There are five job characteristics which are central to providing potential motivation to workers. They are: Skill variety, Task identity, Task significance, Autonomy, and Feedback from the job itself.

- i) **Task Variety:** This denotes the extent to which any particular job utilizes a range of skills, abilities and talents of the employees. If number of different skills is used by the employee on the job, the job is going to provide challenge and growth experience to the workers.
- ii) **Task Identity:** This indicates the extent to which the job involves a 'whole' and identifiable piece of work. If the job involves the whole components (eg – painting a portrait), then the individual can identify with the ultimate creation turned out by him and derive pride and satisfaction from having done a good job.
- iii) **Task significance:** This refers to the meaningfulness or significance of the impact that a job has on the lives of others – both inside and outsider of the organization. If what one does has an impact on the well being of others, the job becomes psychologically rewarding to he person who performs it.
- iv) **Autonomy:** This refers to the extent to which the job provides an employee the freedom, independent and discretion to schedule work and make decision and formulate the procedures to get the job done without interference from others. The greater the degree of autonomy, the more the person doing the job feels in control.
- v) **Feedback from the Job itself:** This indicates the extent to which the person who is working on the job can assess whether they are doing things right or wrong even as they are performing the job. That is, the job itself is stimulating one and enjoyable.

Job Design: Jobs can be designed to range from highly simple to highly complex tasks in terms of the use of the workers skill. Some of the job design options are as follows:

- i) **Job Simplification:** The jobs are broken down into very small parts as in the assembly line operations where a fragmented task is repeatedly done over and over again by the same individual.
- ii) **Job Rotation:** This involves moving employees among different tasks over a period of time. Management does not have to bother with combining tasks, but at the same time, the workers do not get bored with doing one simple task over several years. The employee is periodically rotated from one job to another within the work setting
- iii) **Job Enlargement:** This involves simply adding more tasks to the job so that the workers have a variety of simple tasks to perform rather than doing just one task repetitively. Two or more tasks are combined and the individual does the combined tasks altogether.
- iv) **Job Enrichment:** This offers a greater challenge to the workers because it requires the use of variety of skills possessed by them. This involves building in motivating factors into the job, giving the workers more responsibility and control over work, and offering learning opportunities for the individual on the job.

1.3.6 Technology

Organizations have technologies for transforming inputs and outputs. These technologies consist of physical objects, activities and process, knowledge, all of which are brought to bear on raw materials labor and capital inputs during a transformation process. The core technology is that set of productive components most directly associated with the transformation process, for example, production or assembly line in manufacturing firm.

Technology provides the physical and economic resources with which people work. They cannot accomplish much with their bare hands, so they build buildings, design machines, create work processes and assemble resources. The technology that results has a significant influence on working relationships. An assembly line is not the same as a research laboratory, and a steel mill does not have the same working conditions as a hospital. The great benefit of technology is that it allows people to do more and better work, but it also restricts people in various ways. It has costs as well as benefits.

Classification of Technology:

Thomson classified technology into three categories: Long-linked technology, Mediating Technology and Intensive Technology.

- i) **Long linked Technology:** In this, tasks are broken into a number of sequential and interdependent steps, where the outputs of one unit become the input of the next. (eg. Assembly line) this facilitates to have high volume of output and efficiency. This technology calls for mechanistic structures with high levels of specialization, standardization and formalization.
- ii) **Mediating Technology:** This links different parties who need to be brought together in a direct or indirect way (eg. Banks – use mediating technology to lend money to borrowers by taking money from depositors)
- iii) **Intensive Technology:** It is used when a group of specialists are brought together to solve complex problems using a variety of technologies (eg. Hospital – parties are treated with the help of experts drawn from different fields of specialization). Coordination of the different activities is achieved in the system primarily through mutual adjustment among those engaged in solving the problem in the different units. Organic structures would fit in this system using intensive technology.

1.3.7 Environment

All organizations operate within an external environment. A single organization does not exist alone. It is part of a larger system that contains thousand of other elements. All these mutually influence each other in a complex system that becomes the life style of the people. Individual organization, such as a factory or school cannot escape from being

influenced by this external environment. It influences the attitudes of people, affects working conditions, and provides competition for resources and power.

Every organization interacts with other members of its environment. The interactions allow the organization to acquire raw material, hire employees, secure capital, obtain knowledge, and build, lease or buy facilities and equipment. Since the organization process a product or service for consumption by the environment, it will also interact with its customers. Other environmental actions, who regulate or over see these exchanges, interact with the organization as well (distributors, advertising agencies, trade associations, government of the countries in which business is conducted)

Two Distinct Sets of Environment:

- i) **Specific Environment:** This includes the suppliers, customers, competitors, governments' agencies, employees, unions, political parties etc.
- ii) **General Environment:** It includes the economic, political, cultural, technological and social factors in which the organization embedded.

Organizations are embedded in an environment within which they operate. Some of the external factors may be completely beyond the control of the organization to change, such as the cultural, social or economic, or governmental aspects. However, many of the other factors such as sizing up the market, being in tune with the technological changes takes place, being a step ahead of competition, or stocking up and buffering supplies when certain materials are likely to be in short supply, are all within the control of the organization. Effectively managing these situations, however, requires constant and close vigilance, adaptability to changes, and being able to manage problematical situations through good decisions making. Those organizations which are proactive (that is, watchful and take action before crisis situations occur) and can manage their external environment are more effective than those that are reactive (that is, caught off guard and wake up after facing the crises situation) and are unable to cope effectively.

Fit between Environment and Structure: Firms facing a fast changing or turbulent external environment were very effective when they had more organic structures which provided flexibility for quick changes to be make within the internal environment of the system. Similarly, firms which operated in a relatively stable external environment were very effective when they had more mechanistic structures. This mechanistic structure allowed the system to operate in a predictable manner since authority, responsibility, procedures, and rules were clearly specified.

1.4 Basic Approaches of Organisational Behavior

- i) **An Interdisciplinary Approach:** It is integrating many disciplines. It integrates social sciences and other disciplines that can contribute to the Organizational Behavior. It draws from these disciplines any ideas that will improve the relationships between people and organization. Its interdisciplinary nature is similar to that of medicine, which applies physical, biological and social science

into a workable medical practice. Organizations must have people, and people working toward goals must have organizations, so it is desirable to treat the two as a working unit.

- ii) **Scientific Management Approach:** The fundamental concern of the scientific management school was to increase the efficiency of the worker basically through good job design and appropriate training of the workers. Taylor is the father of the scientific management movement and he developed many ideas to increase organizational efficiency. Taylor showed that through proper job design, worker selection, employee training and incentives, productivity can be increased. The scientific management school advocated that efficiency can be attained by finding the right methods to get the job done, through specialization on the job, by planning and scheduling, by using standard operating mechanisms, establishing standard times to do the job, by proper selection and training of personnel and through wage incentives.
- iii) **A Human Resources (Supportive) Approach:** It is a developmental approach concerned with the growth and development of people toward higher levels of competency, creativity and fulfillment, because people are the central resource in any organizations and any society. It helps people grow in self-control and responsibility and then it tries to create a climate in which all employees may contribute to the limits of their improved abilities. It is assumed that expanded capabilities and opportunities for people will lead directly to improvements in operating effectiveness. Work satisfaction will be a direct result when employees make fuller use of their capabilities. Essentially, the human resources approach means that better people achieve better results.
- iv) **A Contingency Approach:** Traditional management relies on one basic principle – there is one best way of managing things and these things can be applied across the board in all the instances. The situational effect will be totally ignored in this traditional management. Situations are much more complex than first perceived and the different variables may require different behavior which means that different environments required different behavior for effectiveness. Each situation must be analyzed carefully to determine the significant variables that exist in order to establish the kinds of practices that will be more effective.

Contingency theorist argues that the external environment and several aspects of the internal environment govern the structure of the organization and the process of management. Effective management will vary in different situations depending on the individual and groups in the organization, the nature of jobs, technology, the type of environment facing the organization and its structure. For example, if the employees are highly matured and willing to take more responsibility, the managers can follow delegating style and give full freedom to their employees. If the employees are not so matured and avoid taking any responsibility, the managers must follow directing style. Depends upon the situation, that is,

employees level of maturity, managers will adopt different style of leadership to ensure more successful results.

- v) **A Systems Approach:** This implies that organization consists of many inter related and inter dependent elements affecting one another in order to achieve the overall results. Conceptually a system implies that there are a multitude of variables in organization and that each of them affects all the others in complex relationships. An event that appears to affect one individual or one department actually may have significant influences elsewhere in the organization. Systems theorists describe the organization as “open to its external environment”, receiving certain inputs from the environment such as human resources, raw materials etc, and engaging in various operations to transform those raw materials into a finished products and finally turning out the “outputs” in its final form to be sent to the environment. The organization, since it is open to the environment, also receives feedback from the environment and takes corrective action as necessary. This input-transformation process-output model with the feedback mechanism can be illustrated through a simple example.

1.5 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have briefly discussed about the concepts and key elements of organizational behaviour. The key elements in organizational behavior are people, structure, technology and the external elements, in which the organization operators, various approaches have been developed for managerial analysis. We have also discussed the five major approaches to organizational behaviour.

1.6 Lesson-End Activities

1. What are the key elements of organization and its dynamics?
2. Describe the two types of environment and its relations with other structural components.
3. Explain the various types of job design options and its relevance for motivation.
4. Discuss the effect of technology on other key components organization particular, its structure, people and nature of tasks.
5. What are the basic approaches to study organization behavior?

1.7 References

LESSON – 2

MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS

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2.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson on the Management Functions, the students may be able to:

- i) Understand the various managerial functions to run the day-to-day activities of the business as an executive.
- ii) Apply the different types of Managerial Roles laid down by Mintzberg to discharge the duties as an executive.
- iii) Realize the requirement of enhancing three types of managerial Skills to meet the goals and objectives of an organization.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Management is the process of designing and maintaining an environment for the purpose of efficiently accomplishing selected aims. Managers carry out the functions of planning, organizing, staffing, leading and controlling. Managing is an essential activity at all organizational level. However, the managerial skills required vary with organizational levels. The functions of managers' provide a useful framework for organizing management knowledge.

2.2 MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS

Henri Fayol proposed that all managers are required to perform five management functions in order to execute their day-to-day activities. They are: planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling.

Planning: The planning function involves the process of defining goals, establishing strategy for achieving those goals, and developing plans to integrate and coordinate activities.

Organizing: It includes the process of determining what tasks are to be done, who is to do them, how the tasks are to be grouped, who reports to whom at what level decisions are made.

Commanding: It is the influencing of people so that they will contribute to organization and group goals. Leading involves motivating, communicating employees to accomplish goals and objectives of an organization

Controlling: It is the measuring and correcting of activities of subordinates to ensure that events conform to plans. It measure performance against goals and plans, shows negative deviations exit and by putting in motion actions to correct deviation, helps ensure accomplishment of plans.

2.2.1 Planning

Planning: It is a process that involves defining the organization's objectives or goals, establishing an overall strategy for achieving those goals, and developing a comprehensive hierarchy of plans to integrate and coordinate activities. It is concerned with both what is to be done (ends) as well as how it is to be done (means). The purposes of the planning are:

- i) It establishes coordinated effort. It gives direction to managers and non-managers alike.
- ii) It reduces uncertainty by forcing managers to look ahead, anticipate change, consider the impact of change and develop appropriate response
- iii) It reduces overlapping and wasteful activities.
- iv) It establishes objectives or standards that are used in controlling.

Planning process

The following four steps of planning process can be adapted to all activities at all organizational levels.

Step 1: Establish a goal or set of goals: Planning begins with decision about what the organization or department wants to achieve. Identifying priorities and being specific about their aims are key factors in planning.

Step 2: Define the present situations. The current state of affairs has to be analyzed considering the availability of resources and the goals to be achieved before drawing up the planning process.

Step 3: Identify the aids and barriers to the goals: Anticipating internal and external problems and opportunities likely to arise in the future is an essential part of planning.

Step 4: Develop a plan or set of actions for reaching the goals: It involves developing various alternative courses of action for reaching the desired goals, evaluating these alternatives, and choosing from among them the most suitable alternative for reaching the goal.

Major components of planning

- i) **Goal:** A future target or end result that an organization wishes to achieve
- ii) **Plan:** The means devised for attempting to reach a goal
- iii) **Mission:** The organizations purpose or fundamental reason for existence.

Types of Planning

Based on the length of the planning horizon, planning may be classified as Strategic Planning, Tactical Planning and Operational Planning.

- i) **Strategic Planning:** These plans are organization-wide, establish overall objectives, and position an organization in long term of its environment such as (i) Long range issues with broader technological and competitive aspects of the organization as well as allocations of resources (ii) long term actions to be taken to achieve the goals between five and fifteen years. (iii) Developed by top management in consultation with the board of directors and middle level managers.
- ii) **Tactical Planning:** It typically addresses intermediate issues involving periods between two and five years which are relatively specific, concrete and more detailed such as (i) outline the steps for particular departments to achieve the goals (ii) generally developed by middle managers who weigh the pros and cons of several possibilities before settling on one issue. (iii) Important to strategic plan success.
- iii) **Operational Planning:** These plans specify details on how overall objectives are to be achieved. The key aspects of operational planning are (i) Focuses mainly for short-range issues usually developed by lower-level managers in conjunction with middle management. (ii) Identify what must be accomplished over a short period, mostly day-to-day operational activates such as work methods, inventory planning etc.

Classification of Plans

1) Single – Use plans

Single-use plans are aimed at achieving a specific goal. Once those are achieved, it will not recur in the future. There are two major types of single use plans: programs and projects.

- i) Programs: A program covers a relatively large set of activities. It shows
 - a. the major steps required to reach an objective,
 - b. the organization unit or member responsible for each step
 - c. the order and timing of each step.Programs have their own budgets. A budget is a statement outlining financial resources needed to support the program's various activities. For Example: A program on sales promotion
- ii) Projects: Projects are the smaller and separate portions of programs. Each project has limited scope and distinct directives concerning assignments and time. For example, preparing a report on labor availability or preparing recommendations for transferring stock from existing facilities to the new installations

2) Standing Plans

Standing Plans are plans providing ongoing guidance for performing recurring activities. The three main types are policies, procedures and rules.

- i) Policies: A guide specifying broad parameters with which members of an organization are expected to operate in pursuit of official goals. For Example: Safety Policy - Issuing a set of guidelines to follow certain activities to ensure safety.
- ii) Procedures: A procedure provides a detailed set of instructions for performing a sequence of actions that occurs often or regularly. For Example: Steps to be followed to avail company loan to buy car.
- iii) Rule: A more explicit statement spelling out specific actions to be taken in a given situations. For Example: A rule requires all employees to work until 5.30 pm.

2.2.2 Organizing

Organizing refers to the way in which work is arranged and allocated among members of the organization so that the goals of the organization can be efficiently achieved.

Steps involved in Organizing Process:

- i) Assign tasks and responsibilities associated with individual jobs.
- ii) Dividing the total work load into activities that can logically and comfortably be performed by one person or group of individuals.

- iii) Combining the work of employees into units in a logical and efficient manner.
- iv) Delegating appropriate authority and power to an individual to discharge his duties.
- v) Setting up a mechanism to coordinate the work of employees into a unified, harmonious whole.
- vi) Monitoring the effectiveness of the organization and making adjustments to maintain or increase effectiveness.

Key elements of Organization Structure

1) Work Specialization: It deals with division of labor. The whole job is not done by one person but instead is broken down into steps and each step is completed by a different persons. Some Key characteristics are:

- i) It increases employees skill and efficiency at performing a task,
- ii) Generates higher employee productivity
- iii) In some jobs employees are likely to get boredom, fatigue, stress, poor quality work, increased absenteeism, higher turnover due to repetitive nature of work.

2) Departmentalization. It refers to the basis on which jobs are grouped in order to accomplish organizational goals. Some key characteristics are:

- i) Grouping can be done by the homogeneity of tasks (Functional departmentalization),
- ii) Grouping jobs by product line (Product departmentalization)
- iii) Grouping jobs on the basis of territory or geography (Geographic departmentalization)
- iv) Grouping jobs on the basis of product or customer flow
- v) Facilitates utilization of common skills, knowledge and orientation together into common units.

3) Chain of command: This shows the flow of authority directed from the upper levels of the organization to the lowest levels and delineates who reports to whom. This concept incorporates three key elements:

- i) Authority (right to issue order and expecting the orders to be obeyed),
- ii) Responsibility (obligation to perform assigned duties)
- iii) Unity of command (reporting authority to whom they are responsible)

4) Span of control: This deals with how many subordinates one can effectively manage under his/her control. There are two types of span of control.

- i) Wider span of control which has fewer levels and each level managers are controlling more people
- ii) Narrow span of control has more levels and in each level managers have limited number of people to supervise.
- iii) The effectiveness of narrow or wider span of control depends upon task structure, employee's maturity, environmental uncertainty, technology, work culture etc.

5) Centralization and decentralization: The decision making latitude given at the top or lower level determines whether the organization is centralized or decentralized.

- i) If top management makes key decisions with no input from lower level employees, then the organization is centralized.
- ii) If lower level employees are provided more input and given more discretion to make decision, it is decentralized.
- iii) The effectiveness of centralization or decentralization depends upon so many factors such as environment, technology, employees, size of the company, strategies etc.

6) Formalization: This refers to the extent to which the employees are governed by rules, regulations and standardized operating procedures to maintain consistency and uniformity in maintaining the output.

- i) In a highly formalized organization, there are explicit job descriptions, lots of rules and clearly defined procedures covering work process.
- ii) This eliminates flexibility, innovativeness and freedom in discharging the duties and responsibilities.

2.2.3 Commanding

It is the process of influencing a group towards the achievement of goals. There are certain characteristics that differentiate leaders from non-leaders. There are three categories of leadership theories which highlight the key determinants of leadership effectiveness. They are Trait Theories, Behavioral Theories and Situational Theories.

Trait Theories:

There are six traits associated with effective leadership include drive, the desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, intelligence and job-relevant knowledge.

Drive: Leaders exhibit a high effort level. They have a relatively high desire for achievement, they are ambitious, they have a lot of energy, they are tirelessly persistent in their activities and they show initiative.

Desire to lead: Leaders have a strong desire to influence and lead others. They demonstrate the willingness to take responsibility

Honesty and Integrity: Leaders build trusting relationship between themselves and followers by being truthful and non-deceitful and by showing high consistency between word and deed.

Self-confidence: Followers look to leaders for an absence of self-doubt. Leaders therefore need to show self-confidence in order to convince followers of the rightness of goals and decisions.

Intelligence: Leaders need to be intelligent enough to gather, synthesize and interpret large amounts of information; and to be able to create vision, solve problems and make correct decision.

Job-relevant knowledge: Effective leaders have a high degree of knowledge about the company, the industry and technical matters. In-depth knowledge allows leaders to make well-informed decision and to understand the implications of those decisions.

Behavioral Theories:

They identified behaviors that differentiated effective leaders' from ineffective leaders. Based on these people could be trained to be leaders. The following are three types of behavioral styles of leadership

- i) **Autocratic Style:** A leader who tended to centralize authority, dictate work methods, make unilateral decision and limit employee participation
- ii) **Democratic Style:** A leader who tended to involve employees in decision making to delegate authority, to encourage participation in deciding work methods and goals, and to use feedback as an opportunity for coaching employees
- iii) **Laissez-faire style:** A leader who generally gave the group complete freedom to make decision and complete the work in whatever way it saw fit.

Research results revealed that employee-oriented leaders were associated with high group productivity and higher job satisfaction. Leaders who exhibited high level of consideration and high level of task orientation achieved high subordinate performance and satisfaction. Some studies reported that democratic style of leadership was most effective, although later studies showed mixed results

Situational Theories:

Situational theories of leadership studies revealed that choosing the appropriate style of leadership depends upon the situation will yield more effective results than following same type of leadership style across all the time. Among various situational theories of leadership Fiedler's contingency model and Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle Model outlined the importance of situational factors while choosing the appropriate style of leadership.

Fiedler's model highlighted that task-oriented style of leadership will be more effective in both the extreme situations such as highly favorable and highly unfavorable situations. If the situations are moderately favorable, relationship oriented style will be more effective.

Hersey and Blanchard model reported that if the employees are highly matured psychologically and possess job competency, the enforcing delegating style will be more effective. Similarly if the employees are not adequately possessing job competency and very low in psychological maturity, the enforcing directing style will be more effective.

2.2.4 Controlling

The control process is a three-step process that involves measuring actual performance, comparing actual performance against a standard, and taking managerial action to correct deviations or inadequate standards. Before considering each step in detail, we should be aware that the control process assumes that performance standards already exist. These standards are the specific goals created during the planning against which performance progress can be measured.

Step I: Measuring: This is the first step in the control process. Four common sources of information frequently used by managers to measure actual performances are personal observation, statistical reports, oral reports and written reports. Each has particular advantages and drawbacks; however, a combination of information sources increases both the number of input sources and the probability of getting reliable information.

It is desirable to use both quantitative and qualitative criteria to measure the actual performance. For instance, a production manager uses number of paper cups produced per hour, percentage of rejects returned by customers, scrap rate etc. Similarly, marketing managers often use measures such as percentage of market held, average dollar per sale, number of customer visits per sales person etc.

Step II: Comparing: The comparing step determines the degree of variation between actual performance and the standard. Some variation in performance can be expected in all activities. It is critical, therefore, to determine the acceptable range of variation. Deviation that exceeds this range becomes significant and needs the manager's attention. In the comparison stage, managers are particularly concerned with the size and direction of the variation.

Step III: Taking Managerial Action: Managers can choose among three possible courses of action: i) they can do nothing, ii) they can correct the actual performance iii) they can revise the standards.

Correct Actual Performance: If the source of performance variation is unsatisfactory work, the manager will want to take corrective action. Examples of such corrective action might include changing the strategy, the structure, compensation practices or training programs, redesigning jobs or firing employees etc. A manager who decides actual performance has to make another decision: Should immediate or basic corrective action be taken? Immediate corrective action corrects problems at once to get performance back on track. Basic corrective action looks at how and why performance has deviated and then proceeds to correct the source of the deviation. It is not unusual for managers to rationalize that they do not have the time to take basic corrective action and, therefore, must be content to perpetually 'put out fires' with immediate corrective action. Effective managers analyze deviations and, when the benefits justify it, take the time to pinpoint and correct the causes of variance.

2.2 Management Roles:

Mintzberg proposed ten managerial roles a typical manager has to perform in discharging his day-to-day activities. Mintzberg's ten managerial roles can be grouped as those concerned with interpersonal relationships, those concerned with transfer of information, and those concerned with decision-making.

2.3.1 Interpersonal Roles:

This refers to those types' of managerial roles that involve people and other duties that are ceremonial and symbolic in nature. There are three types of interpersonal roles:

- i) **Figure head Role:** Manager performs a role as symbolic head and accordingly he is obliged to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature. The typical activities include greeting visitors, signing legal documents etc.
- ii) **Leader Role:** As a leader of the department, manager gives direction to his employees and other subordinates to fulfill the assigned goals and objectives. He is responsible for the motivation and activation of subordinates. Also he is response for staffing, training and associated activities. Some of the typical activities include goals setting, providing guidance, review the progress of work etc.
- iii) **Liaison Role:** The manager is required to maintain contact with external sources that provide valuable information. These sources are individual or groups outside the managers unit and may be inside or outside the organization. For this he as to maintain self-developed network of outside contacts and informers who provide favors and information, for example, acknowledging mail, doing external board work etc.

2.3.2 Informational Roles:

This refers to those types of managerial roles that involve receiving, collecting and disseminating information. There are three types of informational roles:

- iv) **Monitor:** Typically, manager is spanning the boundaries of the organization and trying to get information from outside though various sources such as reading magazines, taking with other to learn current developments, movements of competitors planning, program etc. Manager seeks and receives variety of special information (much of it current) to develop thorough understanding of organization and environment. He emerges as nerve centre of internal and external information about the organization.
- v) **Disseminator:** M anager acts as conduits of information to organizational members. He is expected to transmit information received from outside or from subordinates to member of the organization. Some information is factual and

some may involve interpretation and integrating of diverse value positions of organizational influencers. Some of the typical activities of this role include holding informational meetings, making phone calls to relay information etc.

- vi) **Spokesman:** Manager represents the organization to outsiders by performing the role as spokesman. . In this context, the manager transmits information to outsiders on organization's plans, policies, results, achievements, serves as expert on the chosen field by giving value suggestion to the community etc. As mentioned earlier, he holds board meeting periodically and gives information to the media.

2.3.3 Decisional Roles:

This refers to those types of managerial roles that revolve around making decision. There are four types of decisional roles.

- vii) **Entrepreneur:** As entrepreneur, manager initiates and oversees new projects that will improve their organization's performance. He thoroughly analyses the strengths of the organization and the opportunities available in the environment and takes initiative to implement improvement projects to bring about worthwhile changes with in the organization and continuously supervise designing new developmental projects. Some of the typical activities include organizing strategy and review sessions to develop new programs, instrumental in venturing novel projects etc.
- viii) **Disturbance Handler:** As disturbance handler, managers take corrective action in response to unforeseen problems within as well as outside the organization. Whenever any conflicts occur among the subordinates regarding the sharing of resources, allocation of funds etc, and the manager intervene appropriately and resolve those issues. He is responsible for corrective action when organization faces important, unexpected disturbances.
- ix) **Resources Allocator:** Manager is responsible for the allocation of organizational resources – physical, human, monetary resources of all kind and in effect, the making or approval of all significant organizational decision. In order to perform this activity, he will be schedule meetings, requesting authorization, and performing any activity that involves budgeting and the programming of subordinates work.
- x) **Negotiator:** Manager also performs as negotiators when they discuss and bargain with other groups to gain advantage for their own units. Manager will negotiate with business partners in case the organization is seeking alliances to venture projects or extend their operation in new marketing.

2.4 Management Skills:

Managers need certain skills in order to perform the duties and activities associated with various functions. Katz found that managers need three essential skills or competencies. They are technical skills, interpersonal skills and conceptual skills. It is reported that the relative importance of these skills varied according to the managers level within the organization. As managers' progresses from lower level to senior level, he is expected to acquire more of human relations and conceptual skills.

2.4.1 Technical skills:

This refers to acquisition of knowledge and proficiency in a certain specialized fields. For example, mechanics work with tools, and their supervisors should have the ability to teach them how to use these tools. Similarly accountants apply specific techniques in doing their job.

First line manager, as well as middle level managers, is required to acquire mastery over the technical aspects of the organizational work operations. Technical skills include knowledge of and proficiency in certain specialized fields, such as engineering, computers, finance, manufacturing etc. Katz proposed that technical skills becomes less important as manager moves into higher level of management, but even top managers need some proficiency in the organization's specialty. For example, senior executives with an IT background are required to know the different types of operating systems and the current developments in the software industry to use their IT skills frequently in their position as managers when it comes to handling new projects.

2.4.2 Interpersonal Skills:

It is ability to work with people; it is cooperative effort; it is team work; it is the creation of an environment in which people feel secure and free to express their opinions

Human or interpersonal skills represent the ability to work well with and understand others to build cooperative effort within a team to motivate and to manage conflict. These skills are important for managers at all levels. Managers need to be aware of their own attitudes, assumption and beliefs as well as being sensitive to their subordinate's perceptions needs, and motivations.

It is important to note that these skills are called as soft skills and it is proved that the organizations nurturing those soft skills within the organization are so successful in their business operations. Some of the important soft skills include communicating, motivating, and leading, delegating and negotiating skills. As managers deal directly with people within as well outside the organization, such types of interpersonal skills are crucial in maintaining effective interpersonal relations. Manager with good interpersonal skills are to get the best out of their people. They know how to communicate, motivate, lead and inspire enthusiasms and trust.

2.4.3 Conceptual Skills:

It is the ability to see the 'big picture' to recognize significant elements in a situation to understand the relationships among the elements

Managers must also have the ability to conceptualize and to think about abstract situations. They must be able to see the organization as whole with holistic approach and able to see the big picture of the organization. The manager must understand the relationships among various subunits and to visualize how organizations fit into its broader environment. These abilities are essential to effective decision making, and all managers must involve in making decisions. Conceptual skills are needed by all managers at all levels. Katz proposed that these skills become more important in top management positions. The reason for this is that the top management managers often deals with abstract ideas, where as lower-level manager normally spend more time dealing with observable technical day-to-day operational activities.

2.5 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit we have discussed about the five management functions namely planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling.

Planning is a process which is concerned with both what is to be done and how it is to be done. The planning process consists of four steps. They are establish a goal, define the present situation, identify the aids and barriers to the goals and develop a plan for searching the goal. Planning may be classified as strategic planning, tactical planning and operational planning.

Organizing is the way in which the work is organized among the members of the organization so that the goals can be achieved.

Commanding refers to the process of influencing a group towards the achievement of goals.

Controlling is a three – step process which involves measuring comparing and taking managerial action.

2.6 Lesson-End Activities

1. Describe Henry Fayol's four managerial functions with suitable examples
2. Explain the Mintzbergs' ten managerial roles and its relevance in Multinational Corporation Executives.
3. Discuss the three types of managerial skills and its importance for enhancing individual and organizational effectiveness.
4. What the steps involved in the planning process.
5. Describe the elements of organization structure and its applications in designing structure.
6. What does control process mean? Explain the key steps involved in the controlling process.

2.7 References

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LESSON - 3

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Contents

- 3.0 Aims and Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Significant Problems in Management
 - 3.2.1 Improving People Skills
 - 3.2.2 Improving Quality and Productivity
 - 3.2.3 Managing Workforce Diversity
 - 3.2.4 Responding To Globalization
 - 3.2.5 Empowering People
 - 3.2.6 Coping with ‘Temporariness’
 - 3.2.7 Stimulating Innovation and Change
 - 3.2.8 Emergence of the E-Organisation
 - 3.2.9 Improving Ethical Behaviour
- 3.3 Let us Sum Up
- 3.4 Lesson-End Activities
- 3.5 References

3.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying this lesson on the Challenges and Opportunities for Organizational Behavior, the students will be able to

- i) Realize the importance of upgrading various types of technical and managerial skills to remain competitive in business environment
- ii) Understand the ways in which one can manage workforce diversity and its importance in globalization
- iii) Implement the ways of improving ethical behavior within the organization at all the levels

3.1 INTRODUCTION

There are many challenges and opportunities for managers to use Organizational Behavior concepts to enhance the overall effectiveness of individuals, groups and organization. The following are some of the critical issues confronting managers for which the knowledge of Organizational Behavior offers worthy solutions based on behavioral science and other interdisciplinary fields.

3.2 SIGNIFICANT PROBLEMS IN MANAGEMENT

The following are some of the significant problems:

- i) Improving People Skills
- ii) Improving Quality and Productivity
- iii) Managing Workforce Diversity
- iv) Responding to Globalization
- v) Empowering People
- vi) Coping with Temporariness
- vii) Stimulating Innovation and Change
- viii) Emergence of the e-organization
- ix) Improving Ethical Behavior

3.2.1 Improving People Skills:

Technological changes, structural changes, environmental changes are accelerated at a faster rate in business field. Unless employees and executives are equipped to possess the required skills to adapt those changes, the achievement of the targeted goals cannot be achieved in time. There two different categories of skills – managerial skills and technical skills. Some of the managerial skills include listening skills, motivating skills, planning and organizing skills, leading skills, problem solving skill, decision making skills etc. These skills can be enhanced by organizing a series of training and development programmes, career development programmes, induction and socialization etc.

Implications for Managers: Designing an effective performance appraisal system with built-in training facilities will help upgrade the skills of the employees to cope up the demands of the external environment. The lower level cadre in management is required to possess more of technical skills. As they move towards upward direction, their roles will be remarkably changed and expected to have more of human relations and conceptual skills.

3.2.2 Improving Quality and Productivity:

Quality is the extent to which the customers or users believe the product or service surpasses their needs and expectations. For example, a customer who purchases an automobile has certain expectation, one of which is that the automobile engine will start when it is turned on. If the engine fails to start, the customer's expectations will not have been met and the customer will perceive the quality of the car as poor. Deming defined quality as a predictable degree of uniformity and dependability, at low cost and suited to the market. Juran defined it as fitness for use. The key dimensions of quality as follows:

- i) **Performance:** Primary operating characteristics of a product such as signal coverage, audio quality, display quality etc.
- ii) **Features:** Secondary characteristics, added features, such as calculators, and alarm clock features in hand phone

- iii) **Conformance:** Meeting specifications or industry standards, workmanship of the degree to which a product's design or operating characteristics match pre-established standards
- iv) **Reliability:** The probability of a product's failing within a specified period of time
- v) **Durability:** It is a measure of product's life having both economic and technical dimension
- vi) **Services:** Resolution of problem and complaints, ease of repair
- vii) **Response:** Human to human interface, such as the courtesy of the dealer
- viii) **Aesthetics:** Sensory characteristics such as exterior finish
- ix) **Reputations:** Past performance and other intangibles, such as being ranked first.

More and more managers are confronting to meet the challenges to fulfill the specific requirements of customers. In order to improve quality and productivity, they are implementing programs like total quality management and reengineering programs that require extensive employee involvement.

Total Quality Management (TQM): It is a philosophy of management that is driven by the constant attainment of customer satisfaction through the continuous improvement of all organizational process. The component of TQM are (a) intense focus of the customer, (b) concern for continual improvement (c) improvement in the quality of everything the organization does (d) accurate measurement and (e) empowerment of employees.

Reengineering: This refers to discrete initiatives that are intended to achieve radically redesigned and improved work process in a bounded time frame. Business Process Reengineering employees a structural methodology that reduces work process to their essential composite activities and provides cost performance matrices to facilitate a business case for dramatic improvements. Both functional and cross-functional processes are evaluated through workflow analysis and activity based costing. In many cases, the application of new technology and industries best practices will enable quantum improvement in an organization's cost and performance.

Implications for Managers: Today's managers understand that any efforts to improve quality and productivity must influence their employees. These employees will not only be a major force in carrying out changes, but increasingly will participate actively in planning those changes. Managers will put maximum effort in meeting the customer's requirements by involving everyone from all the levels and across all functions. Regular communications (both formally and informally) with all the staff at all levels is must. Two way communications at all levels must be promoted. Identifying training needs and relating them with individual capabilities and requirements is must. Top management's participation and commitment and a culture of continuous improvement must be established.

3.2.3 Managing Workforce Diversity:

This refers to employing different categories of employees who are heterogeneous in terms of gender, race, ethnicity, religion, community, physically disadvantaged, homosexuals, elderly people etc. The primary reason to employ heterogeneous category of employees is to tap the talents and potentialities, harnessing the innovativeness, obtaining synergetic effect among the diverse workforce. In general, employees wanted to retain their individual and cultural identity, values and life styles even though they are working in the same organization with common rules and regulations. The major challenge for organizations is to become more accommodating to diverse groups of people by addressing their different life styles, family needs and work styles.

Implications for Managers: Managers have to shift their philosophy from treating everyone alike to recognizing individual differences and responding to those differences in ways that will ensure employee retention and greater productivity while, at the same time not discriminating. If work force diversity is managed more effectively, the management is likely to acquire more benefits such as creativity and innovation as well as improving decision making skills by providing different perspectives on problems. If diversity is not managed properly and showed biases to favor only a few categories of employees, there is potential for higher turnover, more difficulty in communicating and more interpersonal conflicts.

3.2.4 Responding to Globalization:

Today's business is mostly market driven; wherever the demands exist irrespective of distance, locations, climatic conditions, the business operations are expanded to gain their market share and to remain in the top rank etc. Business operations are no longer restricted to a particular locality or region. Company's products or services are spreading across the nations using mass communication, internet, faster transportation etc. An Australian wine producer now sells more wine through the Internet than through outlets across the country. More than 95% of Nokia hand phones are being sold outside of their home country Finland. Japanese cars are being sold in different parts of globe. Sri Lankan tea is exported to many cities across the globe. Executives of Multinational Corporation are very mobile and move from one subsidiary to another more frequently.

Implications for Managers: Globalization affects a managerial skills in at least two ways: i) an Expatriate manager have to manage a workforce that is likely to have very different needs, aspirations and attitudes from the ones that they are used to manage in their home countries. ii) Understanding the culture of local people and how it has shaped them and accordingly learn to adapt ones management style to these differences is very critical for the success of business operations. One of the main personality traits required for expatriate managers is to have sensitivity to understand the individual differences among people and exhibit tolerance to it.

3.2.5 Empowering People

The main issue is delegating more power and responsibility to the lower level cadre of employees and assigning more freedom to make choices about their schedules, operations, procedures and the method of solving their work-related problems. Encouraging the employees to participate in work related decision will sizably enhance their commitment at work. Empowerment is defined as putting employees in charge of what they do by eliciting some sort of ownership in them. Managers are doing considerably further by allowing employees full control of their work. An increasing number of organizations are using self-managed teams, where workers operate largely without boss. Due to the implementation of empowerment concepts across all the levels, the relationship between managers and the employees is reshaped. Managers will act as coaches, advisors, sponsors, facilitators and help their subordinates to do their task with minimal guidance.

Implications for Manager: The executive must learn to delegate their tasks to the subordinates and make them more responsible in their work. And in so doing, managers have to learn how to give up control and employees have to learn how to take responsibility for their work and make appropriate decision. If all the employees are empowered, it drastically changes the type of leadership styles, power relationships, the way work is designed and the way organizations are structured.

3.2.6 Coping with ‘Temporariness’

In recent times, the Product life cycles are slimming, the methods of operations are improving, and fashions are changing very fast. In those days, the managers needed to introduce major change programs once or twice a decade. Today, change is an ongoing activity for most managers. The concept of continuous improvement implies constant change. In yester years, there used to be a long period of stability and occasionally interrupted by short period of change, but at present the change process is an ongoing activity due to competitiveness in developing new products and services with better features. Everyone in the organization faces today is one of permanent temporariness. The actual jobs that workers perform are in a permanent state of flux. So, workers need to continually update their knowledge and skills to perform new job requirements.

Implications for Manager: Managers and employees must learn to cope with temporariness. They have to learn to live with flexibility, spontaneity, and unpredictability. The knowledge of Organizational Behavior will help understand better the current state of a work world of continual change, the methods of overcoming resistance to change process, the ways of creating a better organizational culture that facilitates change process etc.

3.2.7 Stimulating Innovation and Change

Today’s successful organizations must foster innovation and be proficient in the art of change; otherwise they will become candidates for extinction in due course of time and

vanished from their field of business. Victory will go to those organizations that maintain flexibility, continually improve their quality, and beat the competition to the market place with a constant stream of innovative products and services. For example, Compaq succeeded by creating more powerful personal computers for the same or less money than IBNM or Apple, and by putting their products to market quicker than the bigger competitors. Amazon.com is putting a lot of independent bookstores out of business as it proves you can successfully sell books from an Internet website.

Implications for Managers: Some of the basic functions of business are being displaced due to the advent of a new systems and procedures. For example – books are being sold only through internet. Internet selling an organization’s employees can be the impetus for innovation and change; otherwise they can be a major hindrance. The challenge for managers is to stimulate employee creativity and tolerance for change.

3.2.8 Emergence of E-Organization

E-Commerce: It refers to the business operations involving electronic mode of transactions. It encompasses presenting products on websites and filling order. The vast majority of articles and media attention given to using the Internet in business are directed at on-line shopping. In this process, the marketing and selling of goods and services are being carried out over the Internet. In e-commerce, the following activities are being taken place quite often - the tremendous numbers of people who are shopping on the Internet, business houses are setting up websites where they can sell goods, conducting the following transactions such as getting paid and fulfilling orders. It is a dramatic change in the way a company relates to its customers. At present e-commerce is exploding. Globally, e-commerce spending was increasing at a tremendous rate from US\$ 111 billion in 1999 to US\$ 1.3 trillion by 2003.

E-business: It refers to the full breadth of activities included in a successful Internet-based enterprise. As such, e-commerce is a subset of e-business. E-business includes developing strategies for running Internet-based companies, creating integrated supply chains, collaborating with partners to electronically coordinate design and production, identifying a different kind of leader to run a ‘virtual’ business, finding skilled people to build and operate intranets and websites, and running the back room or the administrative side. E-business includes the creation of new markets and customers, but it’s also concerned with the optimum ways to combine Computers, the Web and Application Software. A sizable number of multinational corporations are selling goods and services via the Internet.

Growth rate of e-business: The application of Internet operations are initially covers a small part of the business. At this point, their e-commerce operations are secondary to their traditional business. An increasingly popular application of e-business is merely using the Internet to better manage an ongoing business. Later, there are millions of firms that are now selling anything over the Internet, but they are using e-business applications to improve communications with internal and external stakeholders and to better perform traditional business functions. Some companies are putting maximum effort in improving

its internal efficiency and providing support to its wide-reaching dealer network and to on-line sellers by creating a shared and integrated network. The companies wanted to make creating

E-Organizations: This embraces e-commerce and e-business. State and central governments, municipal corporations are using the Internet for extending all the public utility services more efficiently through internet.

Implications for Managers: The employees must acquire skills, knowledge, attitudes in learning new technology, overcoming any resistance

3.2.9 Improving Ethical behavior:

The complexity in business operations is forcing the workforce to face ethical dilemmas, where they are required to define right and wrong conduct in order to complete their assigned activities. For example, Should the employees of chemical company blow the whistle if they uncover the discharging its untreated effluents into the river are polluting its water resources? Do managers give an inflated performance evaluation to an employee they like, knowing that such an evaluation could save that employee's job?

The ground rules governing the constituents of good ethical behavior has not been clearly defined. Differentiating right things from wrong behavior has become more blurred. Following unethical practices have become a common practice such as successful executives who use insider information for personal financial gain, employees in competitor business participating in massive cover-ups of defective products etc.

Implications for Managers: Managers must evolve code of ethics to guide employees through ethical dilemmas. Organizing seminars, workshops, training programs will help improve ethical behavior of employees. Retaining consultants, lawyers, voluntary service organizations to assist the company in dealing with ethical issues will ensure positive ethical behavior. Managers need to create an ethically healthy climate for his employees where they can do their work productively and confront a minimal degree of ambiguity regarding what constitutes right and wrong behavior.

3.3 Let us Sum Up

in this chapter we have discussed the significant problem in management and the ways to manage them at all levels of the organization.

3.4 Lesson-End Activities

1. Describe the various challenges and opportunities for Organizational Behavior.
2. Explain the need for empowering employees to make them put more effort in their work
3. Describe the necessity in managing work force diversity and its relevance in the globalization of business operations.
4. What is E-commerce? Explain its importance in importance to remain competitive in the business environment.

3.5 References

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LESSON – 4

CONTRIBUTING DISCIPLINES TO ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Contents

- 4.0 Aims and Objectives
- 4.1 Introductions
- 4.2 Contributing disciplines to organisational behaviour
 - 4.2.1 Psychology
 - 4.2.2 Sociology:
 - 4.2.3 Social psychology
 - 4.2.4 Anthropology
 - 4.2.5 Political sciences
 - 4.2.6 Economics
- 4.3 let us sum up
- 4.4 lesson-end activities
- 4.5 References

4.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After studying the contributions of various fields of behavioral sciences towards organizational behavior, the students may be able to:

- i) Appreciate the role of Psychology, Social Psychology in understanding the individual behavior and its impact on enhancing individual and organizational effectiveness
- ii) Understand the application of sociological concepts to study the group dynamics and group functioning and its effect on organizational effectiveness
- iii) Learn the Organizational culture from anthropological perspectives and apply its methodology to understand the formation of organizational culture and its development.
- iv) Understand the contributions of political science to study the dynamics of power bases, formation of conflicts and conflict resolutions strategies etc

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The core disciplines of the behavioral sciences are psychology, sociology and anthropology. Although each of these disciplines is concerned with human behavior and nature, there are little commonly accepted theories among them. In fact, there is widespread disagreement about the problems that need to be analyzed within the organizations and society. As different disciplines will focus the individual problems from its own point of view with different perspectives, there will not be a common

understanding among them. The behavioral science emphasis and approach follows closely the following fundamental steps of scientific inquiry: theory leads to research, which leads to application (theory→research→Application).

The behavioral scientists are working diligently at improving the predictability of behavior. Because people and environments do change, their work focuses on attempting to predict how most people are likely to behave in a given set of circumstances and conditions. Each discipline applies its own methodology to the prediction problem, and each provides managers with insight into such important areas as individual differences, cultural influences, motivation and organizational design.

4.2 CONTRIBUTING DISCIPLINES TO ORGANISATINAL BEHAVIOUR

4.2.1 Psychology:

Psychology has perhaps the most influence on the field of organizational behavior because it is a science of behavior. Almost all aspects of behavior are studied by psychologist. Psychology deals with studying human behavior that seeks to measure, explain and sometimes change the behavior of humans and other animals. Psychologists primarily interested to predict the behavior of individuals to great extent by observing the dynamics of personal factors, environmental and situational factors. Those who have contributed and continue to add to the knowledge of OB are learning theorists, personality theorists, counseling psychologists and most important, industrial and organizational psychologist.

Some of the numerous areas of interest within the disciplines of psychology are:

- General Psychology
- Experimental Psychology
- Clinical Psychology
- Consumer Psychology
- Personality and Social Psychology
- Industrial Psychology
- Counseling Psychology
- Educational Psychology
- Consulting Psychology

Understanding Psychological principles and its models help significantly in gaining the knowledge of determinants of individual behavior such as learning process, motivation techniques, personality determinants and personality development, perceptual process and its implications, training process, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction, individual decision making, performance appraisal , attitude measurement, employee selection, job design and work stress.

Learning is important in understanding organizational behavior because of the concepts and generalizations that have developed from it. Managers are more interested to seek solutions to the following key aspects:

What are the causes of Behavior?

What are the goals and purposes of particular Behavior?

What are the roles of genetic and environmental factors on the formation of particular Behavior?

What are the common values, attitudes and characteristics that are binding people together, though individuals differ from one another in personal values, personalities and attitudes?

To what extent individuals identification or belongingness with others will help shape his or her behavior?

To what extent social learning is associated to motivational level of individual?

All these generalizations are associated with learning, which occurs through out a person's life. One of the most important attributes of psychology is the emphasis on the scientific study of behavior. Psychologists attempt to understand behavior on the basis of rational, demonstrable cause-effect relationships. Although learning and motivation are the main focus of psychology, the immediate applications to the field of organizational behavior are widespread. Basic knowledge of human behavior is important in work design, leadership, organizational design, communication, decision making, performance appraisal systems and reward programs. These issues are falling within the domain of organizational behavior.

4.2.2 Sociology:

The major focus of sociologists is on studying the social systems in which individuals fill their roles. The focus of attention is centered on group dynamics. They have made their greatest contribution to OB through their study of group behavior in organization, particularly formal and complex organizations. Sociological concepts, theories, models and techniques help significantly to understand better the group dynamics, organizational culture, formal organization theory and structure, organizational technology, bureaucracy, communications, power, conflict and inter-group behavior. Psychologists are primarily interested to focus their attention on the individual behavior.

Key concepts of Sociology:

Most sociologists today identify the discipline by using one of the three statements: i) Sociology deals with human interaction and this interaction is the key influencing factor among people in social settings. ii) Sociology is a study of plural behavior. Two or more interacting persons constitute a plurality pattern of behavior. iii) Sociology is the systematic study of social systems. A social system is an operational social unit that is structured to serve a purpose. It consists of two or more persons of different status with different roles playing a part in a pattern that is sustained by a physical and cultural base.

When analysing organizing as social system, the following elements exist:

- i) People or actors
- ii) Acts or Behavior
- iii) Ends or Goals
- iv) Norms, rules, or regulation controlling conduct or behavior
- v) Beliefs held by people as actors
- vi) Status and status relationships
- vii) Authority or power to influence other actors
- viii) Role expectations, role performances and role relationships.

Therefore, organizations are viewed by sociologists as consisting of a variety of people with different roles, status and degree of authority. The organization attempts to achieve certain generalized and specific objectives. To attain some of the abstract ends such as the development of company loyalty, the organization's leaders appeal to the shared cultural base.

The discipline of sociology has been associated with the following characteristics of a science.

- i) It is empirical: it is based on observation and reasoning, not on supernatural revelation, and its results are not speculative
- ii) It is theoretical; it attempts to summarize complex observations in abstract, logically related propositions that purport to explain causal relationships in the subject matter.
- iii) It is cumulative; theories build upon one another, new theories correcting, extending and refining the older ones.
- iv) It is non-ethical; the scientists do not ask whether particular social actions are good or bad; they seek merely to explain them.

4.2.3 Social Psychology

It has been defined as the scientific investigation of how the thoughts, feelings and behavior of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others. What makes social psychology social is that it deals with how people are affected by other people who are actually physically present or who are imagined to be present or even whose presence is implied.

In general sociology focuses on how groups, organizations, social categories and societies are organized, how they function, how they change. The unit of analysis is the group as a whole rather than the individuals who compose the group. Social Psychology deals with many of the same phenomena but seeks to explain whole individual human interaction and human cognition influences culture and is influenced by culture. The unit of analysis is the individual within the group. In reality, some forms of sociology are closely related to social psychology.

Social Psychologists study an enormous range of topics including conformity, persuasion, power, influence, obedience, prejudice, discrimination, stereotyping, sexism and racism, small groups, social categories, inter-group behavior, crowd behavior, social conflict,

social change, decision making etc. Among them the most important topics relevant to organizational behavior field are behavioral change, attitude change, communication, group process and group decision making. Social psychologists making significant contributions in measuring, understanding and changing attitudes, communication patterns they ways in which groups can satisfy individual needs and group decision-making process.

4.2.4 Anthropology

The main aim of anthropology is to acquire a better understanding of the relationship between the human being and the environment. Adaptations to surroundings constitute culture. The manner in which people view their environment is a part of culture. Culture includes those ideas shared by groups of individuals and languages by which these ideas are communicated. In essence, culture is a system of learned behavior.

Their work on culture and environment has helped us to understand differences in fundamental values, attitudes and behavior among people in different countries and within different organizations. Much of our current understandings of organisational culture, organization environments and differences between national cultures are the results of the work of anthropologists or those using their methodologies.

The world is the laboratory of anthropologists, and human beings must be studied in the natural habitat. Understanding the importance of studying man in natural settings over time enables one to grasp the range of anthropology. Familiarity within some of the cultural differences of employees can lead to a greater managerial objectivity and depth in the interpretation of behavior and performance. Anthropologists contribute to study the following aspects in organizational settings – comparative values, comparative attitudes, cross-cultural analysis between or among the employees.

4.2.5 Political Sciences:

Contributions of political scientist are significant to the understanding of behavior in organizations. Political scientists study the behavior of individuals and groups within a political environment. They contribute to understand the dynamics of power centers, structuring of conflict and conflict resolutions tactics, allocation of power and how people manipulate power for individual self interest.

In a business field, organizations wanted to attain supremacy in their own field and indulge in politicking activities to gain maximum advantages by following certain tactics like Machiavellianism, coalition formation, malpractices etc.

The knowledge of political science can be utilized to the study the behavior of employees, executives at micro as well as macro level.

4.2.6 Economics

Economics contributes organizational behavior to great extent in designing the organizational structure. Transaction cost economics influence the organization and its structure. Transaction costs economics implies costs components to make an exchange on the market. This transaction cost economics examines the extent to which the organization structure and size of an organisation varies in response to attempts to avoid market failures through minimising production and transaction costs within the constraints of human and environmental factors. Costs of transactions include both costs of market transactions and internal co-ordination. A transaction occurs when a good or service is transferred across a ‘technologically separable barrier’

Transaction costs arise for three main reasons: They are as follows.

- i) **Uncertainty/Complexity:** Due to incomplete information, limited skills, time, the transaction is highly complex and uncertain. Signing a meaningful market contract minimizes such uncertainty which increases transactions costs. Both sides have to spend time and money on agreeing ex ante conditions of the contract. Suitable organisation structural relationships will facilitate to meet this objective.
- ii) **Opportunism (seeking self-interest or exploiting situation-cheating others):** If there are large number of sellers, the chances of being exploited is relatively diminished – market mechanism controls transaction costs. If small number of players exist in the market, opportunism becomes more difficult to control due to dependency on seller. Creating legal contract or developing liaison with buyers can help minimise this problem – a cost is paid to minimise exploitations. When faced with opportunism, there are three possible organisational design: they are as follows: a) Market co-ordination b) Hierarchies-Organisation co-ordination and c) Hybrid –Network Structure
- iii) **Asset Specificity (Creating special assets to provide a special good or service):** Developing specific human or physical assets to provide special good or service which cannot be redeployed for other purposes. The higher the degree of asset specificity, the higher the potential transaction costs because of post contractual opportunism. Designing suitable organisational structure – Inter-firm networks or hierarchies will help to control this type of transaction cost

Economic Pressures determine the suitable structure either through markets, hybrid network structures or hierarchy to organise transactions effectively. Failure to organise in the appropriate way will lead to the firm being deselected by the market. As environment is so dynamic, organization must respond to change its structure. Shifts from large firm hierarchies to networks or to market relations are in terms of changing conditions of the economising function.

Conclusion:

The behavioral sciences have had a significant impact on the field of organizational behavior. They have provided a reference that encourages the use of the scientific method.

Some of the more generally agreed upon influences of behavioral science on organizational behavior are:

- i) the systematic use of theories and theory building to explain behavior
- ii) An empirical base to study individuals, group, and organization.
- iii) The increased use of rigorous research methods
- iv) Less use of arm chair speculation in reaching managerial decisions
- v) Efforts to communicate theories, research and ideas to practicing managers as well as members of the field.

4.3 Let us Sum Up

In this chapter we have learnt about the various disciplines contributing towards organizational behaviour. These disciplines are Psychology, Sociology, Social Psychology, Anthropology, Political Science and Economics.

4.4 Lesson-End Activities

1. Explain the contributions of Psychology in understanding individual behavior.
2. Describe the role of Sociology and Social Psychology in studying the group dynamics and group structure.
3. Outline the contributions of Political Science in understanding dynamics of power and its impact in organizational behavior.
4. Explain the extent to which knowledge of Anthropology will help understand the organizational culture.
5. Describe the influence of economics (Transaction Cost Economics) in designing suitable organization Structure.
6. Discuss the applications of social psychological principles in attitudinal change and mass communication.

4.5 References

UNIT II FOUNDATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

LESSON - 5 PERCEPTION: PERSON PERCEPTION.

Contents

- 5.0 Aims and Objectives
- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Perception
 - 5.2.1 Factors influencing Perception
 - 5.2.2 Characteristics of Target
 - 5.2.3 Characteristics of Situation
 - 5.2.4 Perception: Making Judgment about Others
- 5.3 Let us Sum Up
- 5.4 Lesson-End Activities
- 5.5 References**

5.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The lesson 1 on the person perception deals with perceptual process and the factors influencing the perceptual process. After going through the content of this lesson, the students are able to

- i) Understand the dynamic of perceptual process
- ii) Describe vividly the possible influence of various environmental, personal, target characteristics on the perceptual process
- iii) Understand various causes for a given behavior for making judgment of others
- iv) Explain the possible errors in attribution and the methods to overcome such errors.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Perception can be defined as a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment. Perception is not just what one sees with eyes. It is a much more complex process by which an individual selectively absorbs or assimilates the stimuli in the environment, cognitively organizes the perceived information in a specific fashion and then interprets the information to make an assessment about what people select, organize, and interpret or attach meaning to events happening in the environment. Since perception is subjective process, different people may perceive the same environment differently based on what particular aspects of the situation they choose. For example, some employees may perceive the work place as great if it has favorable working conditions, good pay. Others may perceive it as great if it has challenging assignments and opportunity to grow. Managers should sharpen their

perceptual skills so that they are as close to perceiving people, events, and objects as they truly are. When “misperception” occurs due to perceptual errors and distortion, managers are bound to make poor or improper decision.

5.2 PERCEPTION

Perception is process through which short-run changes are made in behavior in response to inputs from work environment. The process itself consists of two major actions – i) attention to incoming stimuli and ii) translation of such stimuli into a message that leads to a meaningful behavioral response. Perception is form of behavior and, therefore, influenced by at least the following factors: i) characteristics of the object or source of incoming stimuli (such as a supervisor issuing work request); ii) the situation or conditions under which the stimuli occur (such as timing of a message) and iii) characteristics of the perceiving person. The last category is extremely important in determining the way incoming stimuli will be interpreted and subsequent response. An individual’s motives, previous learning and personality will influence perception. Managers must take such consideration into account in predicting the way their actions and order will be perceived by others.

Five Stages in Perceptual Process:

Stage I: Observation Phase – It depicts the environmental stimuli being observed by the five senses of the perceived

Stage II: Selection of the Stimuli: This is governed both by factors external to the perceived, such as the characteristics of the stimulus, and internal to the individual, such as the personality disposition and motivations of the perceiver.

Stage III: Organizing Stage – In this stage, the perceiver is influenced by figure and ground, grouping, and several perceptual errors such as stereotyping halo effects, projection and perceptual defense.

Stage IV: Interpretation Stage: This stage is governed by the perceiver’s assumptions of people and events and attributions about causes of behavior and feelings.

Stage V: Behavior Response: In this stage the response of the perceiver takes on both covert and overt characteristics. Covert response will be reflected in the attitudes, motives, and feelings of the perceiver and overt responses will be reflected in the actions of the individual.

5.2.1 Factors Influencing Perception:

Several factors influence how we process the perceptual inputs and transform them into outputs. There are three broad categories: Characteristics of Perceiver, Characteristics of Target, and Characteristics of Situation.

5.2.1 Characteristics of Perceiver:

A person's needs and motives, self-concept, past experience, emotional state, and personality aspects strongly influence the perceptual process.

Needs and Motives:

Unsatisfied needs or motives stimulate individuals and may exert a strong influence on their perception. For examples, two groups of subjects – One group who is deprived of food for about 24 hours and the other group which had food enough were shown the blurred pictures and asked to explain the contents. The first group perceived the blurred image as food far more frequently than the other group. People needs and motives thus play a big part in the perceptual process.

Self Concept:

It refers how a person perceives himself/herself which in turn influence his or her perception of the world around them. If a person perceives himself as incompetent, then he perceives the world as threatening. On the other hand, if he feels himself as confident and capable, he will perceive everything around as friendly.

Attitudes:

The preferences and likingness affects ones perception. A lecturer, who likes bigger class, feels comfortable in a lecture session which has more than hundred students. Another lecturer, who likes small class with a lot of questions, may not be so comfortable in such big classes.

Interests:

Individual's focus of attention is also influenced by the interests of people. A plastic surgeon will more likely to notice an imperfect nose than a plumber. Because of our individual interests differ considerably, what one person notices in a situation, can differ from what other person perceives.

Past experiences:

Individuals past experiences also influence in molding ones perception. For example if one has had problem responding to examination questions in the past, he or she will tend to perceive even simple, straightforward examination question as tricky. Likewise, if a person was betrayed by a couple of friends, he or she would never venture to cultivate new friendship in future.

Psychological or Emotional State:

If an individual is depressed, he or she is likely to perceive the same situation differently from the other person who is at the extreme level of excitement or happiness. If a person has been scared of seeing a snake in the garden, she is likely to perceive a rope under the bed as a snake. Thus, the emotional and psychological states of an individual also influence the perceptual process and the different types of interpretation of the situation.

Expectation:

Expectations can also distort the perceptual process. If a person expects police officers to be more authoritative and dictatorial, he or she may perceive them as if they are rough and tough regardless of the Police Officers actual traits.

New Experience:

If a person experiences something new, that is more likely to grab attention than the objects or events that has been experienced before. For example, a person is more likely to notice the operations along an assembly line if this is first time that person has seen an assembly line. In 1970's women police officers are highly visible because traditionally Police Officers positions were predominantly held by males.

Personality Characteristics:

There is a strong relationship between personality factors and perception. For example, secure people tend to perceive others as warm supportive than those, who are more cold and indifferent. Similarly, self-accepting persons perceive others as lining and accepting them. Those who are not self-accepting tend to distrust others. Insecure, thoughtless or non self-accepting persons are less likely to perceive themselves and those around them accurately. In all probabilities, they are likely to distort, misinterpret or in other ways defensively perceive the situation

Characteristics of Target:

The ways things are organized around us are greatly influencing the perceptual process. Some of the typical characteristics include bright color, noise; novel objects, bigger unusual size, moving objects, status, appearance, contrast, intensity, repetition etc. catch people attention. For example, an unusual noise raised by a person, a strong beam of light suddenly flashed, a very handsome, attractive person among a group of clumsy people, a red light against the black background, an unusually obese person amidst a group of slim people etc.

Organization of Target:

People tend to organize the various parts of elements in the environment as a meaningful whole. Such organizing activity is a cognitive process and those are based on Gestalt Principles. The following are the four Gestalt Principles – Figure and Ground, Proximity, Similarity, Closure, Continuation.

Figure and Ground:

What a person observes is dependent on how a central figure is being separated from its background. This implies that the perceived object or person or event stands out distinct from its background and occupies the cognitive space of the individual. In a dance programme, the spectators' tend to perceive the dance performance against the back ground music, backdrop setup etc. The perceiver thus tends to organize only the information which stands out in the environment which seems to be significant to the individual.

Proximity:

People tend to perceive things, which are nearer to each other, as together as group rather than separately. If four or five members are standing together, we tend to assume that they are belonging to same group rather than as separately. As a result of physical proximity, we often put together objects or events or people as one group even though they are unrelated. Employees in a particular section are seen as group.

Similarity:

Persons, objects or events that are similar to each other also tend to be grouped together. This organizing mechanism helps us to deal with information in an efficiently way rather than getting bogged down and confused with too many details. For examples, if we happen to see a group of foreign nationals at an International seminar, Indians are grouped as one group, British as another, Americans as yet another based on the similarity of nationalities.

Closure:

In many situation, the information what we intend to get may be in bits and pieces and not fully complete in all respects. However, we tend to fill up the gaps in the missing parts and making it as meaningful whole. Such mental process of filling up the missing element is called as closure. For example, while giving promotions to the staff members, the managers will try to get full information to make an effective decision, in absence of getting complete information, managers try to make meaningful assumptions and based on that suitable decision will be made.

Characteristics of the Situation:

The context at which the incident is occurring can influence the perceptual process. The physical, social, organizational settings, time etc can influence how we interpret the stimuli. For example, late coming of subordinate at birthday party may be ignored but treated him as an important guests by the manager, but at same time, the same person's late coming to an important official meeting will be viewed as seriously and manager may issue a memo seeking his explanation. Thus, the location of an event, the social context in which takes place, timing and the roles played by the actors play a significant part in how we interpret the situation.

5.2.2 Person Perception: Making judgment about others**Attribution Theory:**

While observing people's behavior such as getting an overseas assignment or promotion to top management position or failed miserably in university examination or fired from the employer etc, we attempt to determine whether it was internally caused or external caused. If those factors such as knowledge, skill, effort, talent, hard work, positive attitude are responsible for the occurrence of behavior, it is labeled as internally caused. Internally caused behaviors are those that are believed to be under the personal control of the individual. If those factors such as situational factors such as location advantage, non availability of material, contacts with influential others, etc are responsible for the

occurrence of behavior, it is labeled as externally caused. Externally caused behavior is seen as resulting from outside causes; that is, the person is seen as forced into the behavior by the situation.

If an employee is late for work, one can attribute his late coming due to laziness or lack of interest in the job or over sleeping. This would be internal interpretation. If an employee late coming is due to traffic jam or road accident or his wife sickness, then he is making external attribution.

There are three factors which are used to determine whether the behavior is caused by internal factors or due to external factors. They are: Distinctiveness, Consensus and Consistency.

Distinctiveness:

It refers to whether an individual displays different behaviors in different situations. If a person is coming late not only to office but also to picnic party or to birth day party or to attending meeting etc. If his late coming behavior is not unique, it will probably be judged as internal. (Low Distinctiveness) If his late coming behavior is unusual, that is, only to office work, his late coming behavior is due to external attribution. (High Distinctiveness)

Consensus:

It refers to whether all the people who are facing with a similar situation respond in the same way or not. If all the people are responding the same way, then there is high consensus. If consensus is high, then his late coming behavior is due to external factors. If only this worker is late and all others are punctual, then there is low consensus. If consensus is low, then his late coming is due to internal factor

Consistency:

It refers whether a person responds the same all the time, that is, whether his late coming is common in all the days or once in a blue moon. If his late coming is reported in all the days, then there is high consistency. If there is high consistency, his late coming behavior is due to internal factor. If his late coming is reported only one time, then there is low consistency. If there is low consistency, then his late coming is due to external factors. The more consistent the behavior, the more the observer is inclined to attribute it to internal factors.

Errors in Attribution:

While attributing the causes for the behavior of individuals, people tend to commit two types of errors.

Fundamental Attribution Error:

There is tendency to underestimate the influence of external factors and overestimate the influence of internal factors when making judgment about the behavior of others particularly with reference to the victims of accidents or failures. This is called the

fundamental attribution errors. For example, a sales manager is likely to attribute the poor performance of his sales agents to laziness rather than to the new product line introduced by the competitor or current recession prevailing in the society etc.

Self-Serving Bias:

There is also a tendency for individuals to attribute their own success to internal factors such as ability or effort, while putting the blame for failure on external factors such as luck or fate. This is called the self-serving bias. While assessing the performance of subordinates, the managers are likely to provide feedback in a distorted manner depending on whether it is positive or negative.

5.3 Let us Sum Up

In this unit, we have learnt about perception which is a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions to give meaning to their environment. We have also discussed the five stages in perceptual process and the factors influencing perception.

5.4 Lesson-End Activities

1. Why perception is a key factor in managerial effectiveness?
2. Perception is more a cognitive rather than a sensory process. Comment on this statement
3. Discuss the salient features of the perceptual process model.
4. What is the attribution theory? What factors do you think might create the fundamental attributions error?
5. How might perceptual factors be involved when an employee receives a poor performance appraisal?
6. How do the characteristics of the perceived affect the perceptual process?
7. Explain the effect of the characteristics of the target on perceptual process.

5.5 References

LESSON – 6

SHORTCUTS IN JUDGING OTHERS AND ITS APPLICATIONS.

Contents

- 6.0 Aims and Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Shortcuts in judging others and its applications
 - 6.2.1 Frequently used short cuts in judging others
 - 6.2.2 Methods to overcome such biases in Perception
 - 6.2.3 Perception: specific applications in Organizations
- 6.3 let us sum up
- 6.4 lesson-end activities
- 6.5 References

6.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this Lesson II is to highlight the various types of perceptual errors that affect our perceptual process and the methods to overcome such type of errors. By learning those things, our students will be able to:

- i) Understand the prominent types of perceptual errors or short cut methods while observing others and judging others
- ii) Realize the ways to improve perceptual skill by increasing self awareness and sensitivity so that the occurrence of perceptual errors can be minimized sizably
- iii) Understand various application of such type of common errors in our work life situations.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In perceiving the stimuli in our environment, people are likely to make so many errors and ended up with poor results. Some of those errors are stereotyping, halo effects, selective perception, distortions, attributions, projections etc. Each of these errors is dysfunctional for good decision making and management. Since subjective emotions, judgmental attitudes, and distortion of facts are common in perceiving any situation, we have tried to identify ways in which we can minimize perceptual biases. The need for managers to accurately perceive the environment and how manages can sharpen their perceptual skill are vital in enhancing perceptual skills.

6.2 SHORTCUTS IN JUDGING OTHERS

People tend to follow a number of shortcut methods when observing others and making judgment of others activities. These techniques are to some extent valuable and allow us to make accurate perceptions rapidly and provide valid data for making predictions. However, they are not foolproof. However, people often rely on them and follow them blindly. They can get us into trouble, particularly if you happen to hold higher level position and required to make effective decision making. An understanding of this shortcut can be helpful in recognizing when they can result in significant distortions.

6.2.1 Frequently used shortcuts in judging others:

While observing others in our day-to-day life, people tend to commit errors due to faulty perceptual process and make a wrong decision. This has to be avoided. There are five types of errors or short-cut methods which are frequently used by the individuals. They are:

- i) Selective Perception
- ii) Projection
- iii) Stereotyping
- iv) Halo Effect
- v) Contrast Effect

i) Selective Perception

It is a tendency to observe people selectively and accordingly interpret based on their interest, background, experience and attitudes. For example, a production manager is always likely to identify the need to strengthen the production system; the marketing manager will focus only on the marketing research and sales promotions activities. In general, we tend to notice things which are similar to us. For instance, we are more likely to notice the type of cars which are similar to ours. The simplest way of avoiding hasty or wrong decision being made due to selective perception is to seek other people's perceptions of "reality" in the same situation in order to make a better assessment of the situation.

ii) Projection

It is a tendency to assign one's own personal attributes to others. For instance, a manager who is corrupt will tend to project that all others are also corrupt like him. Similarly, a manager who loves challenging work might project that all others like challenging work. Many times, this is not true, and the manager who tries to enrich all the jobs as challenging might be leading to wrong motivational technique for other employees. When managers engage in projection, they compromise their ability to respond to individual differences. They tend to see people as more homogeneous than they really are. Thus, managers should guard themselves against perceptual biases through projection.

iii) Stereotyping:

It is a tendency to judge people based on the perception of the group to which he belongs. We tend to attribute favorable or unfavorable characteristics to the individual based on upon widely held generalization about the group. For instance, we perceive that Japanese in general are hard working, quality conscious and industrious, and based on that we generalize that all Japanese are like that, but in reality it may not be so. There are some Japanese who may not possess the above mentioned characteristics. Similarly we assume that women in general are soft, kind, caring, affectionate, considerate, gentle, but there are some women who may not possess these characteristics. Similarly, we may assume older people are traditional, conservative, and cranky, but not every elderly person fits into this mould and hence we are likely to make errors of judgment. Sex-role stereotypes and age-stereotypes adversely affect recruitment, pay, job placement, and promotion decisions. As a result of which, organizations frequently lose good employees.

iv) Halo Effect:

It is tendency to draw a general overall impression about an individual based on single striking characteristics. For instance, if a person speaks English fluently, we tend to assume that that person is very knowledgeable, intelligent, smart, clever etc. hard working, smart etc. Similarly, if a man is abrasive, he may also be perceived as bad, awful, unkind, aggressive, harmful, deceitful and wicked. Halo effect, whether it is positive or negative, will distort our perception and block us from actually perceiving the trait that is being judged. This phenomenon frequently occurs when students appraise their university lecturer.

v) Contrast Effect:

It is tendency to evaluate a person's characteristics by just comparing with other people who happened to acquire higher or lower position on the same characteristics. For instance, while comparing the presentation of students, a good presentation made by one student just before you will probably make you feel that you won't be as good as you probably are. This contrast effect can distort our perception. In general, a person will be evaluated in isolation. But our reaction to one person is often influenced by other people or events in which we have recently encountered. In interview situation, a job applicant is likely to receive a more favorable evaluation if preceded by mediocre applicants and a less favorable evaluation if preceded by strong applicants.

6.2.2 Methods to overcome such biases in perception

The pitfalls listed above can be minimized by enhancing perceptual skills by consciously putting effort in the following activities:

- i) Knowing and perceiving oneself accurately
- ii) Being empathic
- iii) Having positive attitudes
- iv) Enhancing one's self-concept
- v) Making a conscious effort to avoid the possible common biases in perception
- vi) Open communication
- vii) Avoiding Attributions.

i) Knowing and Perceiving Oneself Accurately:

One of the ways in judging others and situations more accurately are by knowing, perceiving and understanding ourselves accurately. The best way of achieving this objective is to obtain information on how others perceive us from as many sources as possible – supervisors, peers, subordinates and other colleagues. By consciously putting effort in getting feedback from others as much as possible about yourself regarding all the activities will help widen your open self. Similarly, by exposing yourself to others regarding your opinions, suggestions, beliefs, values, attitudes life styles etc, others may be able to understand you better and come forward to share their views more frequently. There are two critical things relevant to widening ones open self – i) soliciting feedback from others and ii) exposing or disclosing yourself to others.

ii) Being Empathic

Empathy means being able to see a situation as it is experienced by others. If a person is able to view the problems of his employees from the employees' point of view instead of looking things from his own perspective, he may be able to understand the real problems experienced by them very clearly. The truly effective manager will be able to rise above his or her own personal impressions and comprehend problems from others perspectives. This can occur only when the manager can be sensitive to the needs of others and perceive situations from their point of view as well before making final decisions.

iii) Having Positive Attitude

There is a high level of relationships among attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and values. Unless managers can take positive attitudes to whatever situations they find themselves in and see things from a positive angle, their perceptions are likely to be distorted. By being aware of personal biases, and making a concerted effort to be as unbiased as possible,, manages can consciously try to get rid of any negative feelings they may have of others. This will help them to put things in their proper perspectives and thus enhance their perceptual skills.

iv) Enhancing one's Self-Concept

Positive evaluation of oneself by accomplishing a commendable performance or remarkable things will boost good self image. When people handle roles where they can exhibit and enhance their competence and be successful, they will develop a basic sense of self-esteem and have a positive self regard. When our self-concept is enhanced and we have acquired a positive self-regard, we are apt to respect others more and perceive them more accurately.

v) Avoiding Common Biases in Perception

By checking and cross checking the events and spending adequate time and resources to monitor the various things around, one can consciously raise the overall level of awareness and this will help considerably minimize our perceptual biases. Self correction and self renewal process must be continuous within oneself as we interact with situation on a daily basis and based on that one must change and adapt to the current situations

vi) Open Communication

Even though managers may watch out for their own perceptual errors, it is a fact that employees at the workplace act in accordance with their own perceptions. Effective managers not only have to remember that employees tend to misperceive situations but they should also be able to effectively communicate to employees the happenings in the work setting such that any misperceptions are dispelled.

vii) Avoiding Attributions

Inappropriate attributions are frequently made by all of us when we try to make sense of what is happening in our environment. Due to this, our judgment will be wrong and will end up with poor results. By observing keenly certain behavioral principles as laid down in attributions model, people can sharpen their judgment to check whether the causes of particular behavioral act is due to personality or situational factors. Based on this, one can enhance their perceptual skills.

6.2.3 Perception: Specific Applications in Organizations

In general, people tend to judge one another for many purposes, such as appraising performance, motivational level, attitudes, skills, knowledge etc. These types of judgments will have some important consequences for the organization.

Stress:

Judging people based on the comparison process will make people tensed. It will have either positive consequences or negative consequences. If a person is matured enough, he or she will take up this issue positively and will try to put more effort to meet the expectation or perception of their manager. Some times, the consequences will be very negative leading to absenteeism, illness, low job satisfaction, poor morale etc. A great deal of stress can be due to the perception, judgments and expectations that workers and managers have about the workplace. Managers must ensure that the judgment must lead to positive consequences.

Employment Interview:

Due to perceptual errors in the interview process, the screening of job applicants from not so potential to potential will not be very effective. There is poor inter-rater agreement on the performance of job applicants which will perhaps due to interviewer's subjective feelings, bias, prejudice and cause all the perceptual errors. In some cases, discrimination in recruitment interviews occur due to the forming of opinions of interviews based on racial, gender or age stereotypes. Taking due consideration on the elimination of these errors will significantly help in making effective decision.

Performance Expectation:

Manager's expectation will have a significant impact on the performance of an employee. If a manager expects a very good performance from his subordinate and conveys such expectations in all possible ways to him, that employee will adjust behavior in such a way by putting more effort in his work and fulfill the expectation of his manager. Similarly, if a manager expects a very poor or substandard performance, that concerned employee will

tend to behave in such a way to as to meet those low expectations. Thus, the expectations become reality. The terms self-fulfilling prophecy has evolved to characterize the fact that people's expectations determine their behavior. Managers must ensure that only positive expectations must be conveyed to their employees to make them put on more effort to become outstanding employees.

Performance Evaluation:

During the performance appraisal, the managers are subjected to have influenced by various perceptual errors particularly, halo effect, stereotyping, contrast effect etc. In general, managers use subjective measures in evaluating employees performance as good or bad based on their overall perception Due to this, their assessment is found to be faulty leading to severe implications in job outcomes. In order to avoid such errors, managers need to be trained in evaluation techniques.

Employee Effort:

Assessment of an individual's effort is purely subjective judgment susceptible to perceptual distortions and bias. If manager is free from such perceptual errors and his judgment is just and fair, the employees will put more effort and help the organization to meet its objectives.

Employee Loyalty:

Managers tend to perceive employees differently. If employees are looking for employment outside the organization, the employees may be labeled as disloyal. If an employee questions top management decision, he is branded as disloyal, If an employee reports unethical practices of management to authorities outside the organization, he is branded as disloyal. The assessment of an employee's loyalty or commitment is highly subjective judgmental. Due care must be taken to ensure proper judgment free from such perceptual errors.

6.3 Let us Sum Up

In this unit we have discussed the various types of perceptual errors affecting our perceptual process and the methods to overcome such errors.

6.4 Lesson-End Activities

1. What is stereotyping? Give an example of how stereotyping can create perceptual distortion.
2. Explain the various types of shortcut methods used in observing others.
3. Describe the methods to overcome such short-cut methods and enhance perceptual skills.
4. Explain the various applications of perceptual errors in work life.

6.5 References

LESSON – 7 ATTITUDES

Contents

- 7.0 Aims and objectives
- 7.1 Introductions
- 7.2 Attitudes
 - 7.2.1 Components of attitudes
 - 7.2.2 Sources of attitudes
 - 7.2.3 Types of attitudes
 - 7.2.4 Attitudes and consistency
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- 7.3 Let us Sum Up
- 7.4 Lesson-End Activities
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7.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The lesson II on attitudes will highlight the various types of attitudes, components of attitudes and theories of attitudes and its application in work life. By reading this lesson, our students will be able to:

- i) Understand the components of attitudes and the sources for the formation of attitudes
- ii) Realize the types of attitudes and its relevance in work life situation.
- iii) Understand the attitudinal change process particularly the application of cognitive dissonance and self perception theories.
- iv) Know the attitude survey and uses in measuring the attitudes such as job satisfaction, commitment etc.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

It is defined as individuals' feelings like likes and dislikes, pros and cons, favorable or unfavorable, positive or negative towards various other people, objects, events or activities. These are the evaluative statements – either favorable or unfavorable towards object or people. I like coke. I do not like rock music. These are expression of attitudes towards products. In organizations, attitudes are important because they affect job behaviors. If employees believe that supervisors, auditors, bosses , engineers are all in a conspiracy to make the employee work harder for the same or less money, then it makes sense to try understand how attitudes were formed, their relationship to actual job behavior and how they can be made more favorable.

7.2 ATTITUDES

Attitudes can be defined as an individual's feelings about or inclinations towards other persons, objects, events, or activities. Attitudes encompass such affective feelings as likes and dislikes, and satisfactions and dissatisfactions. Our needs, past experiences, self-concept, and personality shape the beliefs, feelings, and opinion we hold towards the perceived world. Once we have formed our likes and dislikes, we generally cling on to them and find it difficult to change our attitudes, unless we make a conscious and determined effort to do so. An interesting phenomenon is that our values shape our attitudes. Traditionally, behavioral scientists have divided attitudes into two major groups: i) those that are cognitive (for example, beliefs or expectations about cause-effect relationships between events) and ii) those that are evaluative (for example, liking or disliking for event). An example of a cognitive attitude would be an employee's belief that superior job performance would be rewarded by praise from a superior. An example of an evaluative attitude would be the degree to which he or she would like or value such praise.

7.2.1 Components of Attitudes

There are three components of attitudes such as Cognitive (Thinking), Affective (Feeling) and Conotive (Behavioral).

i) Cognitive Component:

Cognitive component deals with thinking, evaluation, comparison, rational, logical issues with respect to the targeted object. This will facilitate to form a strong belief or further strengthen the belief system towards various objects. By observing and analyzing the various features of Sony lap top computer, you may form a very good opinion stating that Sony laptop is best among others. Such an evaluation is based on the cognitive component of attitudes.

ii) Affective Component:

Affective component deals with feelings or emotional issues of the targeted objects. I do not like Ramesh as he had hunted down a rare species of deer's in the forest. As deers are harmless creatures, I love them very much. The disliking of Ramesh is due to emotional aspects or personal feelings towards the targeted object.

iii) Behavioral Components:

This refers to intention to behave in a certain way towards someone or something. As I do not like rock music, I am not interested to attend the concert. The action of not attending is due to a part of disliking of rock music concert. All these three components collectively act together for the formation of attitudes.

7.2.2 Sources of Attitudes:

Attitudes are formed through various sources. We acquire or learn from parents, teachers, peer group members.

i) Family Members:

Parents or siblings influence strongly to form favorable or unfavorable attitudes towards various objects. The child rearing practices, the types of reinforcement received from parents or siblings will help mould certain attitudes such as strong preference towards color, religious faith, choices of food habits etc which would be stable and long lasting over a period of time.

ii) Reference Group:

People tend to form a strong attitude based on the influence of powerful personalities whom they admire a lot. For example, celebrities, charismatic political or religious leaders significantly influence either to strengthen the existing attitudes or form new attitudes. Marketing managers rely on celebrity figures to endorse the products to subtly influence their admirers to buy the products.

iii) Peer Group influence:

Friends or colleagues at work place will have a strong influence on the formation of certain attitudes or belief system due to pressure to conforming to their norms, standards, values etc. People need people. The acceptance or reassurance of group members will strongly reinforce the chosen attitudes and behavior.

iv) Socialization and Learning process:

The way in which people are brought up in family, the do's and don'ts laid down by the parents, educational and educational institutions, the rules and regulations of work place, the types of rituals, cultures, norms of society etc will strongly influence the formation of attitudes.

7.2.3 Types of Attitudes:

There are three types of job-related attitudes such as job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment.

i) Job Satisfaction:

The term job satisfaction refers to an individual's general attitudes towards their job. The likingness or dislikingness differ from individual to individual with respect to job contextual factors or job content factors. Some people give much importance to job contextual factors like salary, security, supervision, supportive colleagues, company

policy, working conditions, perquisites, promotions, equitable rewards etc. Whereas others may show much interest in job content factors such as advancement, challenging assignments, career progress, appreciation and recognition, work itself.

Research results revealed that the job satisfaction had a tremendous impact on improving productivity, enhancing quality requirements, reduced absenteeism rate and employee turnover. The employees expressed their dissatisfaction through so many ways such as leaving the organization, raising their voice to demand to improve the working conditions, be patient by passively waiting for the conditions to improve and neglecting everything in work.

A person with a positive attitude is likely to have more job satisfaction, while a person with negative attitude is likely to have job dissatisfaction towards his or her job. Job satisfaction is one of the major determinants of an employee's organizational citizenship behavior. Satisfied employee would seem more likely to take positively about the organization, help others and go beyond the normal expectation in their job. Moreover, satisfied employees normally are more prone to go beyond the call of duty because they were to reciprocate their positive experiences.

The following are some of the major determinants of job satisfaction – mentally challenging work, equitable rewards, supportive working conditions, supportive fellow employees, personality-job fit, company policies and programs.

ii) Job Involvement:

This refers to the extent to which a person identifies psychologically with her or his job. The person feels that the job is more meaningful and it utilizes one's talent and skills to the fullest extent. There is a perfect harmony between the types of skills a person possesses and the work content. The individual experiences as if the whole work is being carried out by him having full control over everything related to the work. Due to this perception, performance level will be increasing significantly and enhance the overall self worth. Employees with a high level of job involvement strongly identify with and really care about the kind of work they do in their job.

Job involvement measures the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with her or his job and considers her or his perceived performance level important to her or his self-worth. Employees with a high level of job involvement strongly identify with and really care about the kind of work they do in their job. There is high level of relationship between job involvement and fewer absences and lower resignation rates of an individual.

iii) Organizational Commitment:

It refers to the extent to which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization. The person shows much of association and loyalty to their organization. Organizational commitment has gained a great deal of interest in recent years because of the changing nature of the

workplace. People, who feel a perfect congruence between his values, beliefs, attitudes, and the organizational policies, practices, programs and its overall work culture, are likely to have more commitment than those who have incongruence. In order to elicit a high level of commitment from the employees, a due care must be taken at every stages right from the recruitment to retirement. Administering suitable screening tests such as aptitude tests, personality tests, interest's tests etc will help significantly placing a right person to do a right type of job.

With fewer workers, managers want workers who identify with the organization's purpose and will work hard to achieve its goals.

Organizational commitment can also be enhanced through organizational communication process, team briefing, supportive leadership etc. A good fit between the personality and the job, an internal locus of control, positive realistic expectations, opportunities for career advancement etc are the good predictors of organizational commitment.

A well designed formal mentoring program has also been shown to increase organizational commitment. Promotional opportunity, providing employees with more information, supervisor's support etc are likely to improve organizational commitment.

7.2.4 Attitudes and Consistency

People always seek harmony in their life. They desire to maintain consistency between attitudes and behavior or consistency among their various attitudes. Even in case of divergent opinion or happen to work in a place where the work demands are not aligned with the basic values, people will show interest to change either the nature of assignment or leave the organization or change their basic values in such a way to ensure consistency in their life style. This means that individuals seek to reconcile divergent attitudes and to align their attitudes and behavior so that they appear rational and consistent. Where there is an inconsistency, forces are initiated to return the individual to a state of equilibrium where attitudes and behavior are again consistent. This can be done by altering either the attitudes or the behavior, or by developing a rationalization for the discrepancy.

7.2.5 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Cognitive dissonance refers to any incompatibility between their behavior and attitudes or incompatibility among a various attitudes. In general, people always prefer a consistency or equilibrium in their life. Festinger argued that any form of incompatibility will lead to a state of discomfort in the minds of people and people will try to attempt to reduce the dissonance and seek a stable state where there is a minimum level of dissonance.

It is very difficult process to avoid dissonance completely. But one can minimize the occurrences of such dissonance by carefully choosing the choices or changing the attitudes suitably. One of the most interesting examples of this cognitive dissonance is as follows: Mr Ramesh, who has been brought up with high moral values and cultivated to

do right things and uphold strong human values, has joined a pharmaceutical firm as sales representative promoting and selling drugs meant for expectant mothers. Based on this understanding and knowledge of pharmaceutical field, he noticed that a particular drug is likely to have more side effects and it is harmful to the expectant mother. His boss is forcing him to push the product more aggressively among the doctors and hospitals. Due to this, he is undergoing a high level of cognitive dissonance due to discrepancy between his attitudes (belief that the drug is harmful to the expectant mother) and behavior (promoting and selling the drug). What will he do? Clearly, Ramesh is experiencing a high degree of cognitive dissonance. Because of the importance of the elements in this example, one cannot expect Ramesh to ignore the inconsistency. There are several paths that he can follow to deal with her dilemma.

- i) He can change his behavior (stop promoting and selling drug) and quitting the job.
- ii) He can reduce dissonance by concluding that the dissonance behavior is not so important after all (I have to make a living, and in my role as a sales representative, I have to promote the drug and make my organization to maker profit).
- iii) He can change her attitude (There is nothing wrong in this drug, and giving rationalization that all drugs have some amount of side effects).

The degree of influence that individuals believe they have over the elements has an impact on how they will react to the dissonance. If they perceive the dissonance to be uncontrollable results, they are less likely to be receptive to attitudes change.

Rewards also influence the degree to which individuals are motivated to reduce dissonance. High dissonance, when accompanied by high rewards, tends to reduce the tension inherent in the dissonance. This occurrence is perhaps personified in the expression "Everyone has their price". The regard acts to reduce dissonance by increasing the consistency side of the individual's balance sheet.

Self-Perception Theory:

Attitudes are used to make sense out of an action that has already occurred. When asked about an attitude towards some object, individuals recall their behavior relevant to that object and then infer their attitude from the past behavior. So if an employee were asked about his feelings about being travel agent, he might think I have had this same job as travel agent ten years ago, so I must like it. Self-perception theory therefore argues that attitudes are used, after the fact, to make sense of the action that has already occurred rather than as devise that precede and guide action.

Attitudes Surveys:

It is eliciting responses from employees through questionnaires about how they feel about their jobs, work groups, supervisors, and the organization. Typically attitude surveys present the employee with a set of statements or questions. Ideally, the items

will be tailor-made to obtain the specific information that management desires. An attitude score is achieved by summing up responses to the individual questionnaire items. These scores can be then being averaged for work groups, department, divisions or the organizations as whole.

Surveys have been used over the last three decades to measure attitudes such as job satisfaction, climate, leadership, teamwork, and commitment. As a result, a number of surveys have reasonable national averages that can be used to compare against organizations results. Using attitude surveys on a regular basis provides managers with valuable feedback on how employees perceive their working conditions. Policies and practices that management views as objectives and fair may be seen as inequitable by employees in general. Such type of things can be gathered by conducting attitudes surveys.

7.3 Let us Sum Up

In this unit, we have discussed the various types and components of attitudes. We have also learnt about the application of cognitive dissonance theory and self perception theory.

7.4 Lesson-End Activities

1. What is cognitive dissonance and how is it related to attitudes?
2. What are the components of attitudes? How attitudes can be measured?
3. What are the functions of attitudes?
4. How attitudes are formed? Can attitudes be changed?
5. Explain self – perception theory and its application in work life.

7.5 References

LESSON – 8

PERSONALITY

Contents

- 8.0 Aims and Objectives
- 8.1 Introductions
- 8.2 Personality
 - 8.2.1 Personality determinants:
 - 8.2.2 Dimensions of self-concept:
 - 8.2.3 Key personality traits relevant to work behavior
 - 8.2.4 Personality types (MBTI)
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8.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

This lesson IV covers the various dimensions of personality and its components. By learning the concepts and its application of Personality theories, our students are able to:

- i) Understand the personality determinants of personality and personality traits
- ii) Realize the importance of key personality traits relevant to work behavior
- iii) Understand Big Personality traits and MBTI Personality types and its implications in selection, training, formation of teams etc.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

People tend to have a general notion that personality refers to a personal appearance with charming smile, or outlook. But psychologists view the concept as dynamic in nature concerned with growth and development of a person's whole psychological system.

Personality can be defined as the consistent psychological patterns within an individual that affect the way they interact with others and the situations they encounter. Personality is defined as relatively stable and enduring characteristics that determine our thoughts, feelings and behavior. Personality is a complex phenomenon and there are various perspectives of personality construct. One common and simple definition of Personality is: It is the consistent psychological patterns within an individual that affect the way they interact with others and the situations they encounter.

8.2 PERSONALITY

Research studies shows that individual's personality is more or less consistent, lasting, and can remain substantially constant across all the situations and time. But there are individual differences, for some people, these traits may be consistent across a number of situations, that is, they exhibit the same behavior such as shyness or inhibitions in the entire situation at all the time. But others may vary quite a lot. Changes in personality occur slowly over an extended period of time. Thus, if managers are able to understand certain dimensions of personality traits exhibited by individuals, they can predict confidently to a great extent the daily behavior of employees.

8.2.1 Personality Determinants

There are several factors that determine the formation or shaping of our personality. Among them the three major factors are: Heredity, Environment and Situation.

i) Heredity

The genetic components inherited from our parents at the time of conception determine strongly the personality characteristics of an individual. The color, height, physical statutory, facial attractiveness, gender, temperament, muscle composition, inheritable diseases etc are considered to be inherited from our parents.

Research studies conducted on identical twins that were reared in different places, temperament of young children, longitudinal studies on the job satisfaction of employees over long period of time and across different situation reveal that the heredity plays a substantial role in determining the behavior of individuals. If all personality characteristics were completely dictated by heredity, they would be fixed at birth and no amounts of experience could alter them.

ii) Environment

The culture in which people are brought up in their lives and they type of socialization process such as family's child rearing practices, socio economic status of the family, number of children in a family, birth order, education of the parents, friends and peer group pressures, religious practices, the type of schooling and recreational activities, pastime behavior etc play a critical role in shaping our personalities.

For example, our parents mould the character of all children, almost from birth by expressing and expecting their children to conform to their own values through role modeling and through various reinforcement strategies such as rewards and punishments. Research studies reveal that the birth order – the difference between first born children and later born children determine certain key personality characteristics, that is, first born tend to exhibit more ambitious, and hard working, more cooperative, more prone to guilt and anxiety and less openly aggressive.

Both the heredity and environment are equally important in determining personality characteristics of an individual. Heredity sets the parameters or outer limits, but a person's full potential will be determined by how well he or she adjusts to the demands and requirements of the environment.

iii) Situation

The type of specific situation which a person encounters also equally shapes the type of personality characteristics. For example, an individual's exposure to a job interview and the type of experiences encountered during that time will shape certain personality characteristics. Similarly, going for a picnic with friends and encountering the type of experiences whether pleasant and unpleasant will shape the personality characteristics of individuals.

8.2.2 Dimensions of Self-Concept

It is defined as the totality of individual's thoughts and feelings having reference to himself as an object. The self concept is made up of collection of attitudes, feelings, ideas, opinions that they have about themselves including their preference towards sports, books, physical ability, smartness sexuality, job performance etc. In short, the self-concept is what we think and feel about ourselves. People tend to have both positive and negative self concept. Those who have very positive self concept tend to have high level of confidence, achievement, and success in their life.

8.2.3 Key Personality Traits Relevant to Work Behavior

i) Self Esteem:

It refers to the individuals' self worthiness and the extent to which they regard themselves as capable, successful, important and worthwhile. People who feel good about themselves will always produce good results. Studies of self-esteem show that it is closely related to mental health. People with low self-esteem are more likely to suffer depression and greater stress. People with positive self-esteem adjust to life better and deal every day problems more effectively. Individuals' with high self esteem will try to take up more challenging assignments and be successful, which in turn, enhance their overall self-concept. People with high self esteem would tend to classify themselves as highly valuable in the organization.

ii) Locus of Control:

It refers to the extent to which people tend to have control over their own fate and life. There are two type of locus of control. The Internal Locus of Control refers to those who believe that they control what happens to them and shape the course of their evens in their lives, whereas the External Locus of Control believe that what happens to them is

controlled by outside forces such as luck or chance. Internals always believe in putting more effort and seek more job related information, rely more on their own abilities and judgment at work, and more actively seek opportunities for advancement.

iii) Self Efficacy:

It refers to the belief that a person has in their own capability to perform a specific task. People with high self-efficacy will prefer to have moderate level of task difficulty, strong self confidence and conviction in the chosen tasks and possess high expectation in completing the assignment across the entire situation. Employees with high self-efficacy respond to specific negative feedback about their performance with increased motivation and effort, while those with low self-efficacy are more likely to give up and reduce their motivation

iv) Self-Monitoring:

It refers to the extent to which a person has the ability to adjust his or her behavior to external or situational factors. Those with high self-monitoring will be more sensitive and notice the significant changes occurring in the environment and able to adapt them by adjusting their behavior. High self-monitors are capable of exhibiting a striking contrast between their public persona and their private self. Low self-monitors cannot disguise their behavior and tend to exhibit the same behavior all the time.

v) Emotional Intelligence:

It is also called as EQ which refers to individual's ability to be aware of feelings and emotions and the extent to which they can manage them more effectively in dealing with others and challenging events. It consists of five main abilities:

- a) **Knowing one's emotions:** Self-awareness and recognizing ones feelings as it occurs
- b) **Managing emotions:** Handling feelings and emotions appropriately to the relevant situations
- c) **Motivating oneself:** Directing the feelings and emotions in such a way to fulfilling the desired goals
- d) **Recognizing emotions in others:** Empathizing and understanding the feelings and emotions for others
- e) **Handling Relationships:** Being able to interrelate, communicate and work with others.

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is very closely linked to our self-concept, because it is strongly related to self awareness.

vi) Big Personality Traits

There are five Big Personality Traits which have a significant impact in individual's life. They are as follows:

- a) **Extroversion:** Extroverts are sociable, lively, and gregarious and seek outward interaction. Such individuals are likely to be most successful working in marketing division, public relations etc. where they can interact face to face with others. Introverts are quite, reflective, introspective and intellectual people, preferring to interact with a small intimate circle of friends. Introverts are more likely to be successful when they can work on highly abstract ideas (accountant, R&D work etc) in a relatively quiet atmosphere.
- b) **Agreeableness:** This refers to the extent to which individuals agree and cooperating with others. Highly agreeable people are cooperative, warm and trusting. People who score low on agreeableness are cold, disagreeable and antagonistic. This characteristic is very important and critical in attaining a successful achievement in their life.
- c) **Conscientiousness:** This refers to the extent to which people are responsible and dependable in their work and life. A highly conscientious person is responsible, organized, dependable and persistent. They are likely to move upward direction very quickly and attain remarkable achievement in their life. Those who score low on this dimension are easily distracted, disorganized and unreliable.
- d) **Emotional Stability:** This refers to the extent to which people have the ability to withstand stress. People with positive emotional stability tend to be calm, self-confident and secure. Those with highly low level of emotional stability tend to be nervous, anxious, depressed and insecure.
- e) **Openness to experience:** This refers to the extent to which people are more imaginative, artistic sensitivity and intellectualism. Individuals tend to vary widely ranging from conservative to creative or artistic. Extremely open people are creative, and artistically sensitive. Whereas not so open category personnel are very conservative and find comfort in the familiar or routine activities.

8.2.4 Personality Types (MBTI)

MBTI describes four dimensions of Personality Types:

- (a) Extroversion versus Introversion: (The ways in which people relate to the world)
- (b) Sensing versus Intuition: (Becoming aware of and perceiving information)
- (c) Thinking versus feeling: (Ways of deciding and prefer to make judgments)
- (d) Judging and Perception: (The amount of control exercising and organizing people)

a) Extroversion and Introversion:

This deals with whether the focus of attention is directed towards outwardly or inwardly. Where do you prefer to focus your attention?

Extroversion:

Extroverted attention flows outward to the world of objects and people or external ideas. They are interacting more with people.

Characteristics associated with people who prefer Extraversion are:

- Attuned to external environment
- Prefer to communicate by talking
- Work out ideas by talking them through
- Have broad interests
- Sociable and expressive
- Readily take initiative in work and relationships

Extroverts are usually active, sociable, like variety and stimulation, and are often good speakers, sales people or public relations professionals.

Introversion:

Introverted attention focused on the subjective, inner world of thoughts, feelings and ideas. Introverts like quiet reflection, can concentrate on one idea or thought for longer than an extrovert, and are less active and prone to change.

Characteristics associated with people who prefer Introversion are:

- Drawn to their inner world
- Prefer to communicate in writing
- Work out ideas by reflecting on them
- Learn best by reflection, mental “practice”
- Focus in depth on their interest
- Private and contained

Research scientists, academicians and librarians are often introverts.

b) Sensing Versus Intuition:

This aspect deals with the ways of collecting information and ideas.

Sensing

A person with a sensing preferences focuses on the specific, practical and tangible. The sensing person relies more on the physical or material reality of the world of the five senses: touch, sight, sound, taste or smell. Sensing managers take in information through their senses and attend to the details of the problem. They like to solve problems in standard ways. They are patient with routine details and are precise in their work. They distrust creative inspirations and usually work all the way through to reach conclusions. They emphasize action, urgency and bottom-line results.

Characteristics associated with people who prefer Sensing:

- Oriented to present realities
- Factual and concrete, precise and practical
- Focus on what is real and actual
- Observe and remember specifics
- Build carefully and thoroughly toward conclusions
- Understand ideas and theories through practical applications
- Trust experience

The sensing person is likely to provide a practical solution to problems. They may be good at repairing machines, sports, building, handicrafts, or keeping the detailed records of a business.

Sensation Feelers (SF) deal with concrete problems in a methodical way. They have astute powers of observation regarding the details of how an organization is run. SFs do not fight the system, but use what is available for problem solving. SFs are non-judgmental of their co-workers and do not look for underlying motives and meanings in people's behavior. If organizations do not have adequate SF's, small problem will go unattended till they become big.

Possible Shortcomings: SF's may be reluctant to accept new ideas and are impatient with abstract theories. They react adversely to radical changes. They have difficult honoring commitments and decision made in the past since they live full in the present moment.

Intuition

This person relies more on their insights and based on that they guess, assume and draw the inferences. Ideas, associations or creative process often accompany the presence of intuition. They focus on the relationships and connections between facts. Intuition manager like solving new problems and are impatient with routine details. They perceive the problem in its totality and consider several alternatives simultaneously. They are imaginative and futuristic, enjoying mind testing games..

Characteristics associated with people who prefer Intuition:

- Oriented to future possibilities
- Imaginative and verbally creative
- Focus on the patterns and meanings in data, sees beyond the surface

- Remember specifics when they relate to pattern
- Move quickly to conclusions, follow hunches
- Want to clarify ideas and theories before putting them into practice
- Trust inspiration

The intuitive person is likely to have an affinity for music, literature, the arts, higher mathematics, and science and abstract theories. People with high level of intuition are also likely to be creative, adaptable and open to new ideas, and they are often artists, musicians, strategic players or architects.

Intuitive Thinkers (NT) are the architects of progress and ideas. They are interested in the principle on which the organization is built and seek answers to he significant events. They have enormous drive and are creative. If organizations do not have adequate number of NT's, change will be minimal.

Shortcomings of Intuitive Thinkers: Intuitive Thinkers may not always be aware of the feelings of others. Unless subordinates are intellectually competent, they may not be considered valuable. They expect a great of themselves and others and tend to escalate standards.

c) Thinking versus Feeling:

These deals with the way people make decisions.

Thinking

The person with a preference for thinking tends to be objective, analytical and impersonal in decision and judgments. Thinking managers are logical and analytical in their problem solving and search for additional information in a logical manner.

Characteristics associated with people who prefer Thinking:

- Solve problem with logic,
- Use cause and effect reasoning
- Strive for an objective standard of truth
- Can be "tough-minded"
- Fair – want everyone treated equally

As this person is logical in analysis, he is good at organizing, scheduling, comparing, analyzing and quantitatively evaluating objections and activities.

Sensation Thinkers (ST) are decisive and excellent at decisions involving precise interpretations of facts and figures. They are persevering and precise. They want the organization run on an impersonal basis. They are hard working and super dependable. Organizations run efficiently because of such managers.

Possible Shortcomings: STs cannot tolerate delays due to complications. In periods of rapid changes they still cling to rules and procedures which is dysfunctional. When dealing with others, STs may not accurately perceive the interpersonal process. They withhold rewards unless full deserved others.

Feeling

People who use feelings to make decision are more likely to be empathetic, loyal, and appreciative and tactful. Feeling types consider the person and are likely to bend the rules if the situation warrants. Feeling managers heavily emphasize the human aspects in dealing with organizational problems and is more process oriented. They enjoy pleasing people and avoid conflicts.

Intuitive Feelers (NF) have personal charisma and commitments to the people they lead. They communicate their caring and enthusiasm. They are comfortable in an unstructured, group-centered management system that lets employees participate in the decision-making process. If adequate NF's are not available in organization, an organization will become cold, sterile and dull.

Possible Shortcomings; NF's make decision on the basis of personal likes and dislikes. They often try to please others all the time.

Characteristics associated with people who prefer Feeling:

- Empathetic
- Guided by personal values
- Assess impacts of decisions on people
- Strived for harmony and positive interactions
- Compassionate
- May appear "tenderhearted"

They like helping other people and often work as nurses, counselors and artists. They use past experiences and values and seek harmony when making judgments.

d) Judgment versus Perception

This aspect deals with the amount of control a person has over events and organizing things.

Judgment

The strong Judgment oriented people tend to live in a planned, decided and orderly way, wanting to regulate their life and control events. They are given more responsibility and authority because their operating mode is stable and predictable.

Characteristics associated with people who prefer Judging:

- Scheduled
- Organize their lives
- Systematic
- Methodical
- Make short and long term plans
- Like to have things decided
- Try to avoid last-minute stresses

The person with a strong orientation for judgment will therefore be good at making decision and planning. They usually make good managers, engineers and lawyers.

Perception

Perceptive people tend to live in a flexible, spontaneous way, wanting to understand life and adapt to it. They often appear to be more relaxed and less organized than judging types and are less attracted to schedules and routines.

Characteristics associated with people who prefer Perceiving:

- Spontaneous
- Flexible
- Casual
- Open-ended
- Adapt, change course
- Like things loose and open to change
- Feel energized by last minute pressures.

The perceptive type, on the other hand, may wait until all the information and aspects of a situation are seen before they make a decision. Artists, consultants, musicians and counselors tend to be perception oriented.

8.3 Let us Sum Up

in this unit, we have learnt about the various personality determinants and personality traits. We have learnt that the three major factors that determine the formation of personality are Heredity, Environment and situation.

8.4 Lesson-End Activities

1. What are the key determinants of personality?
2. Explain the components of Big Five Personality factors.
3. Describe MBTI Personality types and its key characteristics with suitable examples.
4. Explain the key personality traits relevant to work behavior.
5. Explain the self concept and how does it affect employees' performance.
6. Define Extroversion and Introversion.

8.5 References

LESSON – 9

KEY PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS RELEVANT TO WORK PLACE.

Contents

9.0 Aims and Objectives

9.1 Introduction

9.2 personality characteristics

9.2.1 Other key personality characteristics relevant to work place

9.3 Let us Sum Up

9.4 Lesson-End Activities

9.5 References

9.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

In this lesson V, the various work related personality traits are discussed and its application in predicting works behavior. Further, Hollands' hexagonal personality types and the required occupational environment are highlighted. After completion of this lesson, the students are able to:

- i) Understand the meanings and its application of various work related personality traits and the ways in which such concepts can be applied effectively at work.
- ii) Realize the importance of Personality – Job fit concepts proposed by Holland and its application in work life situations.

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Personality should be considered as an individual's unique profile of characteristics relevant to the manager. Any number of human characteristics has been proposed over the years as being part of an individual's personality. They included various traits such as general intelligence, specific task related aptitudes such as spatial skills, arithmetic skills, and mechanical skills. A variety of other work related personality traits include risk aversion, locus of control, dogmatism, authoritarianism, values and beliefs etc. The utility of any measure of personality in applied organizational settings lies in its ability to predict and explain actual behavior and performance. The personality of employees should be of concern to managers only to the extent that it is predictive of performance in specific job settings.

In sorting through and considering the variety of human characteristics to be considered as part of personality, the manager should evaluate each proposed personality characteristics or dimensions in terms of how well it predicts behavior and performance in specific organizational settings.

9.2 OTHER KEY PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS RELEVANT TO WORK PLACE:

Some of the important personality factors that determine what kinds of behaviors are exhibited at work include need patterns, locus of control, introversion and extroversion, tolerance of ambiguity, self-esteem and self-concept, authoritarianism and dogmatism, Machiavellianism, Type A or B Personality and work ethic.

9.2.1 Authoritarianism and Dogmatism:

People who are likely to have authoritarian orientation tend to use their power more aggressively towards their subordinates and create a very defensive climate in the department, while at the same time they are being very submissive or docile towards their supervisors. Dogmatism refers to the extent to which people are flexible or rigid in dealing others. Managers who are exhibiting these traits are likely to be detached from others and people show much of hatredness in them.

A combination of high authoritarianism and dogmatism is obviously not conducive to creativity and organizational effectiveness since new ideas that people at lower levels in the system have will neither be listened to nor implemented. Certain societies tend to accept authority much better than others, and hence authoritarianism can be traced to needs of dependency in members in some cultures who feel comfortable when they are 'told' the ways in which things have to be carried out in their work.

9.2.2 Machiavellianism:

This refers to the extent to which people are manipulative and tactic in achieving one's own goals. These people strongly believe that ends can justify means. People who are high Machiavellian tend to be cool, willing to twist and turn facts to influence others and try to gain control of people, events, and situations by manipulating the system to their advantage. High Machiavellians may be successful only for a short period but in long run they tend to be distrusted and disliked by many in the department and finally they may be ineffective.

High-Machiavellians manipulates more, win more, are persuaded less and have a grater influence over other people than do low-Machiavellians. Yet these High-Machiavellians outcomes are moderated by situational factors. It has been found that High-Machiavellians flourish:

- when they interact face-to-face with others rather than indirectly
- when the situation has a minimum number of rules and regulations, thus allowing latitude for improvisation
- where emotional involvement with details irrelevant to winning distracts low-Machiavellianism

- when forming coalitions which they use to their advantage.

The following are the strategies to protect against the manipulative actions of High-Machiavellians:

- i) Expose them to others: Expose the broken promises, manipulative strategies and lies of high-Machiavellian to others.
- ii) Pay attention to what people do, not to what they say: High-Machiavellians make great promises and are great persuaders, so pay attention to the action that a person carries out and avoid being swayed by smooth promises
- iii) Avoid situations that give high-Machiavellians the edge: Do not make decisions quickly where emotions are high and a person puts forward a persuasive argument and pushes for an immediate decision. Try not to face this person on a one-to-one basis. Invites others to participate in the meeting. :

Risk Taking

This refers to the extent to which people are willing to take chances. This propensity to assume or to avoid risk has been shown to have an effect on their decision making capabilities and information gathering process. High risk taking managers made more rapid decision and used less information in making their choices than did the low risk taking managers.

The requirement of Risk taking propensity varies from the different types of job demands. For instance, a high risk taking propensity may lead to more effective performance for a stockbroker in brokerage firm than an accountant whose job demands more cautious approach in dealing each and every one of the things. An accountant performing auditing activities is expected to have low-risk taking propensity as his nature of job demands to follow a book of rules and regulations.

9.2.3 Type A and Type B Personality:

This refers to the extent to which people tend exhibit certain characteristics. Type A person feels a chronic sense of time urgency, are highly achievement oriented, exhibit a competitive drive and are impatient when their work is slowed down for any reason. Type B persons are easygoing individuals who do not have sense of time urgency, and who do not experience the competitive drive.

Type A Managers do operate under moderate to high level of stress. They subject themselves to more or less continuous time pressure, creating for themselves a life of deadlines. These characteristics result in some rather specific behavior outcomes. For example, Type A people are fast workers because they emphasize quantity over quality. In managerial positions, Type A executives demonstrate their competitiveness by working long hours and not infrequently making poor decisions because they make them too quickly. Type A's are also rarely creative. Because of their concern with quantity and speed, they rely on past experiences when faced with problems. They do not allocate the time that is necessary to develop unique solutions to new problems.

Which category of people – Type A or Type B more successful in organization? The research results reported that great sales people are usually Type A category. But the senior executives are likely to be Type B category. The main reason is that Type A people are usually trade off quality of effort for quantity. Promotions in corporate and professional organization usually go to those who are wise rather than to those who are merely hasty, to those who are tactful rather than to those who are hostile, and to those who are creative rather than to those who are merely agile in competitive strife.

The following are their typical characteristics of Type A and Type B people. Type A people are likely to more chances to get coronary heart diseases than Type B people.

Type A Personality

- Competitive
- High Need for Achievement
- Aggressive
- Works Fast
- Impatient
- Restless
- Extremely Alert
- Tense Facial Muscles
- Constant Time Pressure

Type B Personality

- Able to Take Time to Enjoy Leisure
- Not Preoccupied with Achievement
- Easy Going Works at Steady Pace
- Seldom Impatient
- Relaxed
- Not Easily Frustrated
- Moves Slowly
- Seldom Lacks Enough Time

9.2.4 Tolerance for Ambiguity

This dimension refers to the extent to which individuals are threatened by or have difficulty coping with situations that are ambiguous, where change occurs rapidly or predictably, where information is inadequate or unclear or where complexity exists. This personality characteristic indicates the level of uncertainty that people can tolerate with out experiencing undue stress and can still function effectively. Managers with higher tolerance of ambiguity scores are more likely to be entrepreneurial in their actions, to screen out less information in a complex environment, and to choose specialties in their occupations those possess less-structured tasks. It is also reported that individuals who are more tolerant of ambiguity have more difficulty focusing on a single important element of information – they are inclined to pay attention to a variety of items – and

they may have somewhat less ability to concentrate without being distracted by interruptions.

There are three dimensions in Tolerance of Ambiguity. They are Novelty, Complexity and Insolubility.

Tolerance of Ambiguity towards Novelty: This refers to the extent to which you are tolerant of new, unfamiliar information or situations.

Tolerance of Ambiguity towards Complexity: This refers to the extent to which you are tolerant of multiple, distinctive or unrelated information.

Tolerance of Ambiguity towards Insolubility: This refers to the extent to which you are tolerant of problems that are very difficult to solve alternative solutions are not evident, information is unavailable or the problems compensate seem unrelated to each other.

In general, the more tolerant people are of novelty, complexity, and insolubility, the more likely they are to succeed as managers in information-rich, ambiguous environment. They are less overwhelmed by these ambiguous circumstances.

9.2.5 Work Ethic Orientation:

This refers to the extent to which people are committed to work and involved in their activities. Extreme work ethic values could lead to traits of workaholism and workaholic people tend to give predominant interest to work which might lead to premature burnout and health problems such as hypertension, anxiety etc. Some individuals are highly work-oriented while others try to do the minimum that is necessary go get by without being fired on the job. The extremely work ethic oriented person gets greatly involved in the job and lives up to being described as ‘living, eating and breathing the job’. Extreme work ethic values could lead to traits of ‘workaholism’ when work becomes to be considered as the only primary motive for living with very little outside interests.

9.2.6 Matching Personality and Job Types:

This refers to the extent to which people successfully match their personalities with their jobs. If there is a perfect relationship between the job and personality, the job satisfaction and production turnover among the employees will be significantly higher. John Holland present six personality types and proposes that the satisfaction and the propensity to leave a job depend on the degree to which people successfully match their personalities with a suitable occupational environment. Holland’s typology of personality is given as below:

Vocational Typology	Personality Characteristics	Congruent Occupations
Realistic	Shy, genuine, persistent, stable, conforming, practical	Mechanic, drill press operator, assembly-line worker, farmer

Investigative	Analytical, original, curious, independent	Biologists, economist, mathematician, news reporter
Social	Sociable, friendly, cooperative, understanding,	Social worker, teacher, counselor, clinical psychologists
Conventional	Conforming, efficient, practical, unimaginative, inflexible	Accountant, corporate manager, bank teller, file clerk
Enterprising	Self-confident, ambitious, energetic, domineering	Lawyer, real estate agent, public relations specialist, small business manager
Artistic	Imaginative, disorderly, idealistic, emotional, impractical	Painter, musician, writer, interior decorator

- **Realistic:** The type of activities for this category involves physical activities which require skill, strength and coordination. The suitable personality characteristics to meet these activities would be shy, genuine, persistent, stable, conforming, practical etc. The congruent occupations for this category of people are assembly line worker, farmer, mechanic etc.
- **Investigative:** The type of activities for this category involves thinking, organizing and understanding. The appropriate characteristics to meet these activities would be analytical, original, curious, independent etc. The congruent occupations for this category of people are biologists, economist, mathematician, news reporter.
- **Social:** The type of activities for this category involves helping and developing others. The relevant personality characteristics to meet these activities would be sociable, friendly, cooperative, understanding. The congruent occupations for this category of people are social worker, teacher, counselor, clinical psychologists.
- **Conventional:** The type of activities for this category involves rule-regulated, orderly and unambiguous activities. The appropriate characteristics to these activities would be conforming, efficient, practical, unimaginative, and inflexible. The congruent occupations for this category of people are accountant, corporate manager, and bank teller file clerk.
- **Enterprising:** The type of activist for this category involves verbal activities specific to influence others and attain power. The suitable personality characteristics to meet these activities would be self confident, ambitious, energetic, and domineering. The congruent occupations for this category of people are lawyer, real estate agent, public relations specialist, small business manager.

- **Artistic:** The type of activities for this category involves ambiguous and unsystematic activities that allow creative expression. The suitable personality characteristics to meet these activities would be imaginative, disorderly, idealistic, emotional, and impractical. The congruent occupations are painter, musician, writer, interior decorator etc.

Holland's model proposes that a realistic person in a realistic jobs is in a more compatible situation than is a realistic person in an investigate job. Sociable person should be in social jobs, conventional people in convention jobs and so forth. Due care must be exercised to ensure a perfect between personality characteristics and the type of jobs offered to the candidates during the selection process. The person-organization fit essentially argues that people leave jobs that are not compatible with their personalities.

9.3 Let us Sum Up

In this unit, we have learnt about the various work related personality

9.4 Lesson-End Activities

1. What relevance does the concept of personality have for understanding and predicting employee performance?
2. Describe the concepts of Need patterns, Locus of Control Tolerance for Ambiguity, Authoritarianism and Dogmatism and Machiavellianism and its application in predicting work performance.
3. What are the advantage and disadvantage of employing Type A Personality and Type B personality in organizations?
4. Explain Holland's Personality Types and the type of occupational environment.

9.5 References

UNIT III
LEARNING, MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

LESSON – 10
LEARNING THEORIES AND ITS APPLICATION

CONTENTS

- 10.0 Aims and Objectives
- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Learning process
- 10.3 Classical conditioning
- 10.4 Operant conditioning
- 10.5 Social learning
- 10.6 Let us Sum Up
- 10.7 Lesson-End Activities
- 10.8 References

10.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

In this unit, the learning process and three popular learning theories and the application of learning those theories in work life situations are discussed. After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- i) Understand the principles of learning process
- ii) Appreciate the classical conditioning principles and its application in work life situation
- iii) Implement behavior modification techniques by learning the operant conditioning principles and its application in work life situation
- iv) Understanding the dynamics of social learning theory and relevance in work life situation.

10.1 INTRODUCTION

Most people have been close to formal learning situations for a significant part of their lives. They are very curious to know about its dynamics and seek to clarify the following questions. To what extent can we attribute a person's behavior to learning? Will people learn things in spite of their environment? What is the difference between learning a behavior and acquiring it naturally? Can a skill be acquired or must an individual be born with such a talent as part their personality. These kinds of question demand that managers have a thorough understanding of what learning is and in what ways learning influences behavior.

10.2 LEARNING PROCESS

Theories of Learning: Learning is part of every one's life. In our life, all complex behavior is learned. Learning is defined as any relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of experience. Whenever any change occurs learning is taken place in the individual. If an individual behaves, reacts, responds as a result of experience which is different from others, a person has encountered some new learning experience in his life. This definition consists of the following four key elements:

- i) **Change process:** Learning involves some change in oneself in terms of observable actions explicitly shown to others or change in ones attitude or thought process occur with oneself implicitly. Change may be good or bad or positive or negative from an organization point of view. If a person is happened to experience some negative incidents, that person will hold prejudices or bias or to restrict their out put. On the contrary, if a person is encountering some good incident, that person is likely to hold positive attitude.
- ii) **Permanent change:** Due to whatever exposure a person encounters, the impact what it generates may be long lasting and permanent. Hence, the change must be of relatively permanent. If change occurs due to fatigue or alcohol consumption or temporary adaptation, it may be vanished once the goal is achieved.
- iii) **Setting behavioral actions:** Explicit changes occurring in behavior is the main goal of learning process. A change in an individual's thought process or attitudes without any changes in any explicit behavior will not be considered as learning process.
- iv) **Need for meaningful experiences:** Some form of experiences is necessary for learning. Experience may be acquired directly through observation or practice. If experience results in a relatively permanent change in behavior, one can confidently say that learning has taken place.

Theories of Learning: There are three types of learning theories. These theories are classical conditioning, operant conditioning and social learning.

10.3 Classical Conditioning Theory:

Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov developed classical conditioning theory. When he was doing a research on the chemical properties of saliva of dog, he noticed accidentally that the dog started salivating the moment hearing the sound of a door of cupboard clinking. Based on his observation, he wanted to do some experiment whether the dog can be conditioned to respond to any neutral stimuli. He used a simple surgical procedure to operate the salivary glands of a dog to measure accurately the amount of saliva.

Pavlov's Experiment: Pavlov conducted his experiment in three stages.

Stage I: When Pavlov presented the dog with a piece of meat, the dog exhibited a noticeable increase in salivation. The meat is unconditional stimulus and salivation is unconditional response.

Stage II: In this stage, the dog was not given a piece of meat but only exposed to a sound of ringing bell; the dog did not salivate to the mere sound of a ringing bell.

Stage III: Pavlov decided to link both the presentation of meat and the ringing of a bell one after the other with an interval of 5 minutes. After repeatedly hearing the bell before getting the meat, the dog began to salivate as soon the bell rang. There is an association or link between meat and ringing a bell. After repeating the association between meat and ringing a bell, the dog started salivating merely at the sound of the bell, even if no food was offered. The dog is now conditioned to respond to a sound of a bell and started salivating. This is called classical conditioning process.

Thus, classical condition is defined as the formation of S-R link (Stimulus-Response) or habit between a conditioned stimulus and a conditioned response through the repeated pairing of conditioned stimulus with an unconditioned stimulus.

In this experiment, the meat is unconditioned stimulus, and the expected response that is, salivating to the meat is called as unconditioned response. The sound of a bell is a neutral stimulus which does not have any property to elicit salivation, is called as conditioned stimulus. Although it was originally neutral, if the bell was paired with meat (unconditioned stimulus) it acquired the same property as meat eliciting the salivation. The sound of a bell produced salivation when presented alone. This is called conditioned response, that is, now the dog is conditioned to respond to the sound of a bell.

Learning conditioned response involves building up an association between a conditioned stimulus and unconditioned stimulus. When the stimuli, one is natural and the other one neutral are paired, the neutral one becomes a conditioned stimulus and hence takes on the properties of the unconditioned stimulus.

Closely associated with classical conditioning as a vehicle for learning new behaviors are the phenomenon of extinction, spontaneous recovery, stimulus generalization and stimulus discrimination.

Extinction

Once a dog has learned to salivate to a bell, does this reflex continue to occur if the bell is sounded for many trials without the meat (unconditioned stimulus). Pavlov found that without meat, the bell elicits less and less salivation on each trial and eventually stopped salivating once for all. This phenomenon is called as extinction.

Spontaneous Recovery

But they also found that extinction does not return the animal fully to the unconditioned state. The mere passage of time following extinction can partially renew the conditioned reflex, a phenomenon is known as spontaneous recovery. And a single pairing of the conditioned stimulus with the unconditioned stimulus can renew the conditioned reflex, which can be abolished again only by another series of extinction trails. On the basis of such findings, Pavlov concluded that the conditioned reflex is not truly lost during the extinction, but is somehow inhibited, and that it can be disinhibited by such means as the passage of time or the recurrence of the unconditioned stimulus.

Stimulus Generalization

Learning research has demonstrated that individuals can respond to two separate stimuli in the same way on the basis of their similarities. Once the dog is conditioned to salivate to sound of a bell, the dog is also likely to respond to the sound of a buzzer sound which similar to the sound of a bell. In work life, for example, coffee taster must learn to respond appropriately to various flavor and aromas in deciding whether to accept or reject samples of coffee beans. Once they have learned what an ideal tastes and aroma should be, they must judge and compare samples to this standard.

After conditioning, stimuli that resemble the conditioned stimulus will elicit the conditioned response even though they themselves are never paired with the unconditioned stimulus. This phenomenon is called generalization. The magnitude or likelihood of a response to the new stimulus is correlated with its degree of similarity to the original conditioned stimulus. Thus a dog conditioned to salivate to a 100-hertz tone also salivated to tones of other frequencies. But the farther the tone was in frequency from the original conditioned stimulus, the less the dog would salivate to it.

For example, the acceptable or permissible level of standard is up to 4 degree variation, the taster will check to what extent the samples of coffee ordered is matching to this permissible within the 4 degree standard. On the basis of this similarity, the taster responds in a similar fashion to all samples and accepts those which are matching to that standard. If a person is learned to drive a car, and apply the same principles of driving to drive other mode of vehicles such as truck, van etc.

Stimulus Discrimination

Individuals can respond differently in the presence of two separate stimuli on the basis of differences in their characteristics. In the salivation experiment, the dog is conditioned to salivate to the sound of bell and not to the sound of any other sound. In due course of time, the dog is able to discriminate the sounds which are relatively different from the ideal bell sound. The dog, on the basis of stimulus dissimilarity, responds differently to the sounds of different tones by salivating only to the sound of a bell and not to any other mode of sound such as buzzer, metronome, musical note etc. The dog has shown stimulus discrimination.

In another experiment, dog is conditioned to salivate to the sight of Black Square and not to any other colored square. After a series of trails in which presentation of gray square were never followed by food and the presentation of the Black Square were always followed by food, the dog stopped salivating to the gray square and continued to salivate to the black one. The researchers continued this procedure with even-darker shades of gray, until the dog is conditioned to discriminate a Black Square from the gray shades.

In traffic control, the drivers are learned to respond to different colors of signal and maintain the order in the traffic regulation.

Stimulus generalization and discrimination are highly important as facilitator of learning through classical conditioning. Because of our ability to recognize similarities, individuals are able to transfer what we already know to new situations through the process of stimulus association and generalization. Classical conditioning is a major avenue of learning among individuals in work organizations. For example, trainer in organization take great care to make sure that conditions in the classroom or training facility are as similar as possible to actual work conditions in order to assure that what is learned can be transferred to the job.

Application of Classical Conditioning Principles at Work

Whenever President or Vice-President of Corporate Office visits factory site the employees in the shop floor will more attentive at work and look more prim, proper and active in their work life. It is quite natural that top management personnel visit (Unconditioned Stimulus) evoking or eliciting a desired response- being prim and proper at work from the employees (Unconditioned Response). The routine cleaning of windows or floor of the administrative office will be neutral stimulus never evoking any response from the employees. If the visit of the top management personnel is associated with such cleaning process, eventually the employees would turn on their best output and look prim and active the moment windows and floor are being cleaned up. The employees had learned to associate the cleaning of the windows with a visit from the head office. The cleaning process (conditioned stimulus) evoked attentive and active work behavior (conditioned response). Similarly, Christmas Carols songs bring pleasant memories of childhood as these songs are being associated with the festive Christmas Spirit.

Classical conditioning is passive. It is elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event.

10.4 Operant Conditioning

Operant conditioned principle is proposed by B.F. Skinner, an American Psychologist. It is a type of conditioning in which desired voluntary behavior leads to a reward or prevent a punishment. Operant conditioning principle emphasizes strongly that the behavior of an individual is a function of its consequences. If the consequences are pleasant, the behavior associated with such consequences will be repeated again and again. If the consequences are unpleasant, the behavior will be in extinct. The rationale behind this theory is that people learn to behave in order to get something they want or to avoid

something they don't want. Operant condition is learned process. The tendency to repeat such behaviour is influenced by the reinforcement or lack of reinforcement brought about by the consequences of the behavior. The proper reinforcement strengthens a behavior and increases the likelihood that it will be repeated.

Skinner's Experiment: Skinner developed an apparatus to conduct a series of learning experiment using rats. He named that apparatus as Skinner's Box which has certain features such as a lever, bowl, light, water container etc. A highly deprived rat is placed in the box. Once a rat nudges or touches or hits the lever attached in the corner of the box, a piece of food pellet is dropped in the bowl. By trail and error, the rat learns that hitting the lever is followed by getting a food pellet in the bowl. Skinner coined the term operant response to any behavioral act such as pressing or hitting or nudging the lever that has some effect on the environment. Thus in a typical experiment with a skinner box, hitting or pressing the lever is an operant response, and the increased rate of lever hitting or pressing that occurs when the response is followed by a pellet of food exemplifies operant conditioning.

Application of Operant Conditioning in Work Life

If a sales person who hits the assigned target of sales quota will be reinforced with a suitable attractive reward, the chances of hitting further sales target in future will be exemplified. Skinner argued that creating pleasant consequences (giving attractive rewards) to follow specific forms of behavior (hitting sales target) would increase the frequency of that behavior. People will most likely engage in desired behaviors if they are positively reinforced for doing so.

Rewards are most effective if they immediately follow the desired response. In addition, behavior that is not rewarded is less likely to be repeated. A commissioned sales person wanting to earn a sizeable income finds that doing so is contingent on generating high sales in his territory.

10.5 Social Learning Theory

People learn through both observation and direct experience, which is called as social-learning theory. Individual learn by observing what happens to other people and just by being told about something, as well as by direct experiences. By observing people around us, mostly from parents, teachers, peers, films and television performers, bosses, we learn new behavior pattern.

Albert Bandura, who has most vigorously studied observational learning in humans, has emphasized that people observe others to learn not just specific motor skills (such as driving a car and performing surgery) but also more general modes or styles of behaving. Bandura demonstrated both of these functions of observational learning – acquiring specific actions and learning general styles of behavior – in experiments with children. Bandura proposed that people actively observe the behavior of other people to gain knowledge about the kinds of things that people do, and use that knowledge in situations where it is useful.

Social learning theory gives much importance to perceptual process. People respond to how they perceive and defy consequences, not to the objective consequence themselves. The influence of models is key to the social learning process. The following four processes are vital to determine the influence that a model will have on an individual.

- i) **Attention Process:** People learn from a model only when they recognize and pay attention to its critical features. People tend to be most influenced by models that are attractive, repeatedly available similar to us in our estimation.
- ii) **Retention Process:** A model's influence will depend on how well the individual remembers the model's action after the model is no longer readily available.
- iii) **Motor Reproduction Process:** After a person has seen a new behavior by observing the model, the watching must be converted to doing. This process then demonstrates that the individual can perform the modeled activities.
- iv) **Reinforcement Process:** Individual will be motivated to exhibit they modeled behavior if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behavior that is positively reinforced will be given more attention, learned better and performed more often.

10.6 Let us Sum Up

In this unit, we have discussed about learning process which is a part of every ones life. We have also learnt about the three types of learning theories.

10.7 Lesson-End Activities

1. Explain classical conditioning
2. Contrast classical conditioning, operating conditioning and social learning
3. How might employees actually learn unethical behaviour on their jobs?
4. Describe four process in successful social learning
5. Describe Pavlov's Classical Conditioning process and its application in work life situations
6. Describe Skinner's Operant Conditioning principles and its application in work life situation.
7. Write short notes on :
 - a) Extinction
 - b) Spontaneous Recovery
 - c) Stimulus Generalization
 - d) Stimulus Discrimination
 - e) Behavior Modification

10.8 References

LESSON – 11

REINFORCEMENT THEORIES

Contents

- 11.0 Aims and objectives
- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Types of reinforcement
- 11.3 Shaping behavior
- 11.4 Schedules of reinforcement
- 11.5 Behavior modification
- 11.6 Implication of reinforcement theory
- 11.7 Let us Sum Up
- 11.8 Lesson-End Activities
- 11.9 References

11.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

In this lesson, Skinnerian operant conditioning principles and reinforcement theories are discussed. The types of reinforcement, schedules of reinforcement and its implication in motivating employees are highlighted. After going through this lesson, the students are to be:

- i) Understand the theoretical principles of operant condition in reinforcement theory
- ii) Apply the different types of reinforcement schedules to motivate the employees
- iii) Design a comprehensive OB Modification program to improve productivity, absenteeism etc.
- iv) Learn the concepts of shaping techniques in training the employees' behavior.

11.1 INTRODUCTDION

Reinforcement theory is broadly based on learning theory and the works of B.F.Skinner. The foundation of this approach is on three fundamental factors. Firstly, it is believed that an individual is basically passive and merely mediates the relationship between the forces acting on him and their output. Secondly, reinforcement also rejects the explanation that behavior is based on an individual's needs, drives, or goals because they believe that such aspects are unobservable and hard to measure. The focus of attention is on behavior itself, which can be observed and measured. Finally, reinforcement theorists state that a relatively permanent change in behavior of an individual result from reinforced behavior or experience. By giving a proper reinforcement, the likely hood that desired behavior will be exhibited can be increased and the likelihood that the undesired behaviors will be exhibited can be reduced or both.

11.2 TYPES OF REINFORCEMENT

In operant conditioning, the consequences of behavior (rewards or punishment) are made to occur contingent on the individual's response or failure to respond. There are three basic components of operant conditioning: i) stimulus, ii) response or performance and iii) consequences or contingencies of reinforcement or rewards. The consequences or types of reinforcement determine the likelihood that a given behavior or response, will be performed in the future. Thus, to change the behavior of an individual, the consequences or reinforcement of the behavior must be changed.

There are four types of reinforcement available to manage or modify an individual's behavior.

1. Positive Reinforcement
2. Punishment
3. Avoidance Learning
4. Extinction

1) Positive Reinforcement:

The application of this type of reinforcement to a given response or behavior increases the likelihood that the particular behavior by the individual will be repeated. For example, an engineer is given the task of designing a new piece of equipment (stimulus). The engineer exerts a high level of effort and completes the project in time (response). The supervisor reviews the work and not only praises the engineer for his or her work, but recommends, for example, a pay increase for the excellent work (positive reinforcement). Negative reinforcement increases the frequency and strength of a desired behavior by making it contingent upon the avoidance of undesirable consequences for the employees. In order to avoid the heavy fine imposed for not wearing the helmet, the riders of two wheelers are likely to wear helmet continuously even though such an act is not so pleasant and voluntary. In order to avoid the firing of supervisor for late coming, the employee will ensure to report to office on time. Just to avoid the unpleasantness in the future, the person will try to exhibit the desired work behavior. Thus the negative reinforcement implies the mere anticipation of noxious stimuli from the environment by the employees will reinforce the desired behaviors.

2) Punishment:

The application of punishment is used to decrease the likelihood that the undesirable behavior or response by the individual will be repeated. Just as positive reinforcement strengthens a particular behavior, punishment weakens it. For example hourly workers in a plastics plant are given one hour for lunch (stimulus). When a particular

work continually takes an hour and thirty minutes for lunch (response), the supervisor will call the particular worker in his or her office and impose an half-a-day salary cut for their prolonged absent from work (punishment). The use of this punishment will hopefully change this worker's response back to acceptable behavior. The difference between punishment and negative reinforcement is that in the former case, noxious consequences is applied to decrease the frequency or strength of an undesired behavior, where as in the latter, a noxious consequences is withheld when a desired behavior is exhibited.

3) Avoidance:

Just as with positive reinforcement, this type of reinforcement is a method used by managers to strengthen desired behavior. When a particular reinforcement can prevent the occurrence of an undesired stimulus, it is termed avoidance learning. As the same example cited above, in order to avoid reprimand and criticism, the worker makes a special effort to take only an hour for lunch. With the avoidance learning, the individual works hard to avoid the undesired consequences of the stimulus.

4) Extinction:

Extinction is the withholding of positive reinforcement for a previously acceptable response. With continued non-reinforcement over time, the response or behavior will eventually disappear or be eliminated. Extinction involves three steps: i) identifying the behavior that needs to be eliminated ii) identifying the reinforcers which encourage the behavior that is desired to be eliminated and iii) stopping the reinforcers. Behavior that is desired to be eliminated in an organizational setting, a company may offer their salespersons a bonus for every order from a new customer. This results in increased effort on the part of the salespersons to cultivate new sales outlets. After a period of time, the company evaluates this bonus system to be too costly to maintain, and therefore eliminates it. The sales force not seeing any further reward for extra effort in developing new sales, reduces their effort to normal levels. The company, by removing the reinforcement, caused an extinction of the behavior on the part of their sales persons. An undesirable behavior can thus be effectively extinguished by withholding the reinforcers.

11.3 Shaping Behavior

Shaping behavior is a process of changing an undesirable behavior to a desirable behavior by following a successive approximation of desirable targeted behavior with proper reinforcement. For example, the manager is interested to increase one of the customer service assistants' performances from 5 cases to 30 cases per day by properly following the reinforcement techniques. The managers can reinforce the new employee every time he makes incremental progress. For instance, the first time the customer service assistant process 10 cases, the manager can reward her through a word of praise with some cash incentive. When the customer service assistant started processing 15 cases, he would be reinforced further with double the incentive, and the

reinforcement will continue every time a new target is achieved which is closer to the ultimate goal. The target set for attending 30 cases per day will be reached and the desired behavior will be shaped. If management rewarded the individual only when he or she showed desirable responses, there might be considerable improvement in their performance. The managers can shape behaviour by systematically reinforcing each successive step that moves the individual closer to the desired response.

Methods of Shaping Behavior:

There are four ways in which shaping of desirable behavior can be achieved: They are Positive Reinforcement, Negative reinforcement, punishment and extinction.

The objective of each of the four reinforcement types is to modify an individual's behavior so that it will benefit the organization. Reinforcement will either increase the strength of desired behavior or decrease the strength of undesired behavior depending on the organization's needs and the individual's current behavior.

Types of Reinforcement Methods:

Types of Reinforcement	Stimulus	Response	Consequences or Reward
Positive Reinforcement:	High performance is rewarded in the organization	Individual performance at a high level (desired behavior)	Pay increase, recognition, praise
Punishment:	Only one hour is given for lunch each day	Individual continually takes more than one hour for lunch	Reprimand by Supervisor
Avoidance	Individuals who take more than one hour for lunch will be reprimanded by supervisor	Individuals take only one hour for lunch	No reprimand
Extinction	1. Bonus given to sales person for each new customer order 2. Bonus removed for each new customer order	Sales person worked hard to get new orders Sales persons exert only nominal effort to get new orders	Bonus No bonus

The impact of reinforcement on organizational behavior can be summarized as follows:

1. Some type of reinforcement is necessary to reproduce a change in behavior.
2. Some types or categories of rewards are more effective for use in organization than are others.

3. The speed with which learning takes place and how lasting its effects will be determined by the timing of the reinforcement.

11.4 Schedules of Reinforcement:

Reinforcement works effective when they follow some schedules or pattern. The two main types of reinforcement schedules are continuous or partial (intermittent)

1) Continuous Reinforcement:

This schedule reinforces the desired behavior each and every time it is demonstrated. Continuous reinforcement helps to direct behaviors toward desired goals quickly. However, it is more expensive to administer, especially if monetary rewards are used as reinforcement. Behaviors reinforced through a continuous reinforcement schedule are also likely to weaken very rapidly once the reinforcements are stopped.

2) Intermittent or Partial Reinforcement:

In this type of reinforcement not every instance of the desirable behavior is reinforced, but reinforcement is given often enough to make the behavior worth repeating. It is like a gambling house – poker machine in which people will continue to play even when they know the chances of winning is one in ten or hundred times.

Intermittent reinforcement can be based on either a time frame or behavior response pattern. Intermittent schedules of reinforcement tend to be slow in establishing the desired behaviors. But once established, the behaviors also tend to be sustained after the reinforcements are stopped.

There are four types of intermittent reinforcement schedule based on the intermittent intervals and intermittent behavioral responses.

Fixed Internal Schedule

Fixed interval schedule refers to the interval of time when behaviors will be rewarded. It could be hourly, weekly, daily, monthly and so on. For example, organizations reinforce desired behaviors in employees by paying their salaries on a monthly basis. Contractors pay daily wages to employees and other staff members by reinforcement their behaviors of doing a good day's work for a good day's pay. These are reinforcements based on a fixed interval schedule.

Variable Interval Schedule:

A variable interval schedule rewards desired behaviors at random intervals of time. Instead of praising every day, a manager praises his employees occasionally, once in a ten days or fortnightly without a fixed time frame. An example of this schedule of

reinforcement is a manager patting a good employee whenever he takes unscheduled visits to the shop floor. This kind of reinforcement is easy to administer and the desired behaviors are also sustained over time.

Fixed Ratio Schedule:

A fixed ratio schedule is followed when reinforcement are given every nth time (at a fixed ratio) a desired behavior occurs. An example of this will be suggestion scheme department giving a certificate of commendation” after every fifth suggestion accepted by the department from an employee.

Variable Ratio Schedule:

A variable ratio reinforcement schedule is followed when behaviors are rewarded randomly in terms of the number of times they occur. For example, some times employees are required to stay back at office to complete the required work. In such cases, a manager may reinforce an employee who is staying back to complete his job the first time the person stays late, and not reinforce the same behavior for the next four or five times, but reinforce it once again in the sixth time he stays back and again in fifteenth time he stays back and so on.

Schedules of Reinforcement for Monetary Rewards:

Schedules of Reinforcement	Examples of Research
Fixed Interval	Weekly or monthly paycheck
Fixed Ratio	Piece-rate pay system based on number of units produced or sales commission
Variable Interval	Praise, recognition, or promotion awarded at variable time periods
Variable Ratio	Monitory bonuses for excellent performance awarded in small sums at various time periods.

11.5 Behavior Modification

An approach to motivation in organization that uses operant conditioning as its foundation is called behavior modification. The approach recommended by proponents of behavior modification is that of positive reinforcement. It is reported that positive reinforcers are more effective than negative reinforcers in achieving lasting changes in behavior.

Behavior - modification programs in organizations generally follow at least five stages of development:

Stages I: Identifying Critical Behaviors: In this step, the managers has to identify the critical behaviors that make a significant impact on the employee’s job

performance. These are those 5 to 10 percent of behaviors that may account for up to 70 or 80 per cent of each employee's performance. This may be a difficult step for companies that use non-job related factors to measure performance (eg. Cooperativeness, friendliness, and other subjective measure).

Stage II: Developing a Baseline Data: This step requires the manager to develop some baseline performance data. This is obtained by determining the number of times the identified behavior is occurring under present condition. In this stage, specific goals for each employee are established. Lowering the absenteeism by 10 per cent is a typical example. Goals may concern such aspects as productivity improvement, decreased absenteeism and so on

Stage III: Identifying Behavioral Consequences: This step is to perform a functional analysis to identify the behavioral contingencies or consequences of performance. The employee keeps a record of his or her daily work. This acts as a self-feedback mechanism

Stage IV: Developing and implementing an intervention strategy: The manager reviews the employee's performance record and then rewards the positive aspects of the performance, as determined by the goals set in Stage Two and recorded in Stage Three. Reinforcing with recognition, compliments or praise strengthens the desired behavior; withholding of such reinforcement should help make the employee aware of certain deficiencies in his or performance.

Stage V: Evaluating Performance Improvement: Finally, auditing of the effectiveness of this program is assessed

OB Modification has been used by a number of organizations to improve employee productivity and to reduce errors, absenteeism, tardiness and accident rates and to improve friendliness towards customers.

11.6 Implications of Reinforcement Theory:

The reinforcement of the relationship between behavior and rewards is very important for maintaining motivated behavior on the part of the individual. Employees react positively when they perceive that rewards are contingent on good performance. When individuals are rewarded continually for their good performance, the employees tend to decrease their performance and motivation.

The schedules of reinforcement are found to be very effective in sustaining motivated behavior and make them high productive in their work life. The implications of these results have direct application to the reward system used by organizations.

It would be a good idea for manager to reinforce an employee on a continuous basis in the initial stages and after a while, the managers must switch over to other types of schedules such as fixed interval or fixed ratio, and subsequently the implementation

of variable schedules such as variable interval and variable ratio will be of much help to sustain the learned behavior firmly.

For the manager, the most important factor in the application of operant conditioning is that employees should be rewarded contingent on their performance, not for the factors that are nonperformance based. Managers must learn how to design and implement effective reinforcement programs that will enable employees to be productive and satisfied with their work.

11.7 Let us Sum Up

In this unit, we have learnt about the reinforcement theories and the four types of reinforcement.

11.8 Lesson End Activities

1. Explain four types of reinforcement. Is punishment useful as reinforcement techniques?
2. What is meant by Shaping? Give an example of shaping by giving some work life examples.
3. Describe the four types of schedules of reinforcement and its application in work life situation.
4. What are the five steps in behavior modification?

11.9 References

LESSON – 12

CONTENT THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Contents

- 12.0 Aims and Objectives
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 - 12.2.1 Mallow's need hierarchy
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- 12.3 Let us Sum Up
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12.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

In this lesson, the five major content theories of motivation are discussed with its application in work life. Further, the comparison of these theories by highlighting the similarities and differences among the theories will be of much help to implement the appropriate models in different situations. After the completion of this lesson, the students are able to:

- i) Understand the meaning of motivation concept and its dynamics in work life situations
- ii) Explain the meaning of various motivational theories and its application in organizations
- iii) Distinguish the key components of different motivational models and able to use in different contexts.
- iv) Identify the need levels of individuals and its relevance in motivating employees.

12.1 INTRODUCTION

Motivation is defined as individual's intention or willingness to put maximum effort in his/her work to reach organizational goals and enhance ones ability to satisfy some individual needs. The cyclic process of motivation starts from Unsatisfied needs → Tension → Drives → Search Behavior → Satisfied Need → to end with Reduced Tension. There are three major elements related to motivation: Effort, Goals and Needs.

Effort:

It refers to an individual's intensity in reaching the stated goal. The intensity varies from individual to individual and also depends upon the extent to which individual assigns

importance to various goals. If these efforts are channeled in proper direction consistent with organizational goals, the organization will maximize its profit and reach a state of excellence in their field.

Need:

It refers to some internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive. It is also a state of deficiency and the organism tries to restore this deficiency to make it as equilibrium. An unsatisfied need creates tension that stimulates drives within an individual. These drives direct the individual in different directions or searching in different places to find a particular goal, If the goal is attained the organism will satisfy the need and reduce the tension.

Goals:

Human behavior is always goal directed. Once the desired goal is satisfied, individuals will always restate the goals or look for other goals to get satisfied. Goals will always be changing from one level to another. In order to motivate an individual, managers must ensure to set a goal in such a way which stimulates him or her to put more effort in their work. An effective way to set goals is to follow the SMART approach, which states that goals should meet five characteristics:

1. Specific
2. Measurable
3. Achievable
4. Relevant
5. Timely or Time Limited

If the chosen goal has these characteristics, the employee will have a highest level of motivation.

12.2 CONTENT THEOREIS OF MOTIVATION

12.2.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow formulated one of the most popular theories of human motivation. Maslow's theory is based on the following propositions.

- The needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance, ranging from the lowest need to highest need level
- All needs are never fully satisfied
- Once a need is fairly well satisfied, it no longer motivates behavior
- The needs are interdependent and overlapping

Maslow's theory of motivation explains five levels of needs.

Physiological Needs

The need for sunlight, sex, food, water and others, which are basic to human survival, are called physiological needs. At work level, this need can be met through by providing good working conditions, attractive wage or salary, subsidized housing, free catering etc.

Safety Needs

The safety needs include the need for freedom from threat caused by the environment, animals and people. It also includes the need for shelter, security and peace. At work level, this need can be met by providing private health insurance cover, attractive pension provisions, safe working conditions etc.

Love and Belonging Needs

These needs cover the need of relationships, affection, giving and receiving love and sense of belonging. The manager can provide the following facilities to take care of these needs: company sports and social clubs, office parties, barbeques, outings, permission for informal activities, and encouraging open communication

Self Esteem Needs

It is also known as ego needs, which fulfill the need for strength, achievement, recognition, appreciation, respect and prestige. The managers can provide regular positive feedback, prestigious job titles, photographs in company newsletter, promotions etc.

Self-actualization Needs

These are the need for full development of one's potential. Challenging job assignments, discretion over work activities, promotion opportunities and encouraging creativity can fulfill these needs.

In terms of motivation, Maslow argued that each level in the hierarchy must be substantially satisfied before the next level is activated, and that once a need is fully satisfied, it may not motivate people. The next level in the hierarchy will be dominant only after the fulfillment satisfaction level. This theory has a lot of implication for managers. As a manager if you want to motivate an employee, first try to understand what level that person is on in the hierarchy and focus on satisfying those needs at or just above the level.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy

General Factors	Need Level	Organizational Specific Factors
1. Growth 2. Achievement 3. Advancement	Self- Actualization	1. Challenging work 2. Creativity 3. Advancement in organization 4. Achievement in Work
1. Recognition 2. Status 3. Self-esteem 4. Self-respect	Ego, Status and Esteem	1. Job Title 2. Merit Pay Increase 3. Peer/Supervisory Recognition 4. Work Itself 5. Responsibility
1. Companionship 2. Affection 3. Friendship	Social	1. Quality of Supervision 2. Compatible Work Group 3. Professional Friendship
1. Safety 2. Security 3. Competence 4. Stability	Safety and Security	1. Safe Working Conditions 2. Fringe Benefits 3. General Salary Increases 4. Job Security
1. Air 2. Food 3. Shelter 4. Sex	Physiological	1. Heat and conditioning 2. Base Salary 3. Cafeteria 4. Working Conditions

Maslow's framework:

It is based on three fundamental assumptions

1. Individuals are goals oriented whose needs can influence their behavior. Only unsatisfied needs can influence behavior; satisfied needs do not act as motivator
2. A person's needs are arranged in an order of importance, or hierarchy, from the basic (eg. Food and shelter) the complex (eg. Ego and achievement)
3. The person advances to the next level of the hierarchy, or from basic to complex needs, only when the lower need is at least minimally satisfied. That is, the individual worker will first focus on satisfying a need for safe working conditions before motivated behavior is directed toward satisfying a need for achieving the successful accomplishment of a task.

Maslow classified these five needs into two broad categories as higher order needs and lower order needs. The basic needs such as physiological needs, safety needs and love and belonging needs were classified as lower order needs, where as self esteem, self actualization needs were described as higher order needs. The distinction between these two categories was made based on a single premise whether a person assigns much

importance to the internal factors or the external factors. If a person gives much importance to the external factors such as salary, security, company policy, fringe benefits etc. the lower order needs are very dominant in him. On the other hand, if a person assigns challenging assignments, self-esteem, recognition, the higher order needs are very dominant in him. Employees, who are working in government organization likely to have fulfilled the basic needs,

Maslow took a **deprivation-gratification approach** to need satisfaction. That is, he contended that an unfulfilled or deprived need would activate a person to engage in behaviour that would satisfy or gratify that need. Once one level of need is gratified, the next level of needs will emerge as the deprived needs seeking to be gratified.

Maslow's need theory received wide recognition, particularly among practicing managers but it lacks empirical support substantially. Managers, who accepted Maslow's hierarchy attempted to change their organizations and management practices so that employees' needs could be satisfied.

Maslow's theory is built on the framework that unsatisfied needs serve as factors arouse people to behavior. When a need has been minimally fulfilled, it then ceases to be a motivator of behavior. For example, as assembly line worker may have a desire or need to become a supervisor. Through training programs or part-time studies, this employee can be promoted to a supervisory role in the factory in due course of time. The need to become a supervisor no longer exists, and therefore, the behavior of the individual is altered to a new situating.

An important point for managers to consider is that highly deficient needs, or needs that have gone unsatisfied for long period of time, serve to cause such behavioral responses as frustration, conflict and stress. Individual's reaction to frustration, conflict and stress differs from individual to individual depending upon environmental, organizational and personal factors. These reactions to need deficiency take the form of at least four different 'defensive behaviors'

1. **Aggression:** It is a physical or verbal defensive behavior that can be directed toward a person, object or the organizational. Physical aggression can take the form of such things as stealing or equipment sabotage. Verbal aggression can be the emotional outburst of an employee directed toward the supervisor concerning unsafe working conditions.
2. **Rationalization:** It is defensive behavior that takes the form of such activities as placing the blame on other or having a "take it or leave it" attitude. An employee may rationalize a small pay increase by attributing it to poor supervision or inadequate resources, when in fact it was the particular individual's unsatisfactory performance that caused the small pay increase.
3. **Compensation:** It concerns the behavior of a person going overboard in one area to make up for problems or need deficiency in another area. A person whose

need for interaction with fellow employee's goes unsatisfied during normal working hours may compensate by being extremely active in company related social, recreational or civic activities.

4. **Regression:** It is defense that significantly alters the individual's behavior. After being turned down for promotion to the position of a loan officer, the head cashier may change her behavior from being friendly and open to being tense, highly task oriented or temperamental.

These defensive behaviors can result from the inability of an employee to satisfy a personally important need. These behaviors are realities in any organizational setting, and it's the responsibility of the manager to understand the cause, and if resources are available, provide a solution to correct defensive behavior.

Implications of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

This model helps the managers to understand and deal with issues of employee motivation at the workplace. This model can be applied to motivate people at all levels in the organization. Managers who understand the need patterns of their staff can help the employees to engage in the kinds of work activities and provide the types of work environment that will satisfy their needs at work. For instance, the employees love and belonging needs can be fully satisfied by organizing yearly dinner and dance program, office week end parties, creating recreation clubs or social clubs etc. Fortunately, the workplace has the potential to offer need gratification for several different types of needs, and managers can motivate employees by giving appropriate organizational support which will gratify individual's needs. Thus, despite its drawbacks, Maslow's theory offers managers a good technique on understanding the motives or needs of individuals and how to motivate organizational members.

12.2.2 Herzberg Two-Factor Theory of Motivation

Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation suggests that there are two sets of factors which either led to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. They are Motivating factors and Hygiene factors.

Herzberg collected data from 200 accountants and engineers asking a simple question such as "Can you describe, in detail, when you feel exceptionally good about your job?" Similarly, Can you describe, in detail, when you feel exceptionally bad about your job?

Good feelings about the job were reflected in comments concerning the content and experiences of the job (e.g, doing good work or a feeling of accomplishment and challenge), bad feelings about the job were associated with context factors, that is, those surrounding but not direct involving in the work itself (e.g., salary and working condition) This study revealed two distinct types of motivational factors: satisfiers and dissatisfiers.

Herzberg resulted in two specific conclusions:

1. There is a set of extrinsic job conditions that, when not present, result in dissatisfaction among employees. If these conditions are present, this does not necessarily motivate employees. These conditions are the dissatisfiers or hygiene factors because they are needed to maintain at least a level of no dissatisfaction. These factors are related to the context of the job and are called dissatisfiers. These include:
 - a. job security
 - b. salary
 - c. working condition
 - d. status
 - e. company policies
 - f. supervision
 - g. Interpersonal supervision
 - h. Fringe benefits

2. A set of intrinsic job conditions exist that help to build levels of motivation, which can result in good job performance. If these conditions are not present, they do not result in dissatisfaction. These set of aspects are related to the content of the job and are called satisfiers. These include:
 - a. Achievement
 - b. Recognition
 - c. Work itself
 - d. Responsibility
 - e. Advancement
 - f. Personal growth and development

Motivating Factors

The presence of motivating factors always ensures job satisfaction and happiness among the employees. They are: achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, growth and the work itself. These motivating factors are relating to the work content factors.

Hygiene Factors

The other set, which leads to dissatisfaction, is the hygiene factors such as salary, company policy, supervision, status, security and working conditions. These hygiene factors are relating to the work contextual factors. Herzberg argued that improvement in the hygiene factors would only minimize dissatisfaction but not increase satisfaction and motivation.

Implications for Managers:

In order to motivate employees, the managers must ensure to provide the hygiene factors and then follow the motivating factors. Hertzberg's motivation-hygiene theory proposes

that intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction and motivation, whereas extrinsic factors are associated with job dissatisfaction.

According to Herzberg, the factors that led to job satisfaction were separate and distinct from those that led to job dissatisfaction. Therefore, managers who sought to eliminate factors that created job dissatisfaction could bring about workplace harmony but not necessarily motivation. Because they do not motivate employees, the extrinsic factors that create job dissatisfaction were called hygiene factors. When these factors are adequate, people will not be dissatisfied; but at the same time they may not be fully satisfied. They will be in neutral state. If we want to motivate people on their jobs, it is suggested to give much importance on those job content factors such as opportunities for personal growth, recognition, responsibility, and achievement. These are the characteristics that people find intrinsically rewarding.

Herzberg model sensitizes that merely treating the employees well through the good company policies is not sufficient to them motivated. Managers should utilize the skills, abilities, and talents of the people at work through effective job designing. In other words, the work given to employees should be challenging and exciting and offer them a sense of achievement, recognition, and growth. Unless these characteristics are present in the job, employees will not be motivated.

In Herzberg's framework, these managerial reactions have focused primarily on the hygiene factors surrounding the job, which has resulted in bringing individual to the theoretical "zero point" of motivation. The two-factor theory would predict that improvements in motivation would only appear when managerial action focused not only the factors surrounding the job but on the inherent in most assembly line jobs and developing jobs that can provide increased levels of challenge and opportunities for a sense of achievement, advancement, growth and personal development.

12.2.3 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor's theory is based on how a manager feels about human nature. In general, people tend to have either positive or negative assumptions about human nature. Based on these assumptions, McGregor proposed two sets of theories as Theory X (negative assumptions) and Theory Y (positive assumptions).

Theory X

Theory X represents the traditional approach to managing and is characterized by the following basic assumption about human beings.

- The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.

- Because of human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort towards the achievement of organizational objectives.
- The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

Once the team leaders tend to have the above-mentioned negative assumptions about their members, consequently, they will adopt the following strategies to influence them.

- Control measures or strict supervision are properly exercised to get results from them
- Such control can be achieved by the appropriate use of rewards and punishment.

Implications of X Theory:

The implication for a manager working in an organization with these premises is that the group will be strictly controlled and supervised. Decisions will be made largely by the manager and communicated in writing or verbally in a formal situation. Members of the group will rarely be involved in determining their own tasks. Theory X usually operates in traditional, highly centralized organizations.

Theory Y

Theory Y is more people oriented. It refers to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, particularly the higher-order needs and the motivation to fill these needs at work. It is based on the following assumptions. The following are some of the assumptions of Theory Y.

- The expenditure of physical and mental effort is as natural as play or rest.
- External control and threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the services of objectives to which they are committed.
- Commitment to objectives is a function of rewards associated with their achievement.
- The average human beings learn, under proper condition, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
- The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
- Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

Implications of Y Theory:

Leaders operating under these assumptions will be more likely to consult the group, encourage members to contribute to decision making and work without strict supervision. Communication between the group and the leader will be two of the members of the group. The acceptance of the Theory Y approach, with its tenets of participation and concern for worker morale, encouraged managers to begin practicing such activities as i) delegating authority for many decision, ii) enlarging and enriching jobs of workers by making them less repetitive, iii) increasing the variety of activities and responsibilities and iv) improving the free flow of communication within the organization.

The major criticisms are that too much emphasis was put on informal group process with knowledge of the complexities of group dynamics. Also the strategies evolved based on Theory Y may be successful in one organization and may not be successful in another.

12.2.4 ERG Theory:

Alderfer proposed a modified version of Maslow's need hierarchy and labeled as ERG theory. Alderfer's ERG refers to three groups of core needs – Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG).

Existence Needs:

These needs are all the various forms of physiological and material desires, such as hunger, thirst and shelter. In organizational settings, the need for pay, benefits, and physical working conditions are also included in this category. This category is comparable to Maslow's physiological and certain safety needs.

Relatedness Needs:

These needs include all those that involve interpersonal relationships with others in the workplace. This types of need in individuals depends on the process of sharing and mutuality of feelings between others to attain satisfaction. This category is similar to Maslow's safety, social and certain ego-esteem needs.

Growth Needs:

These needs involve a person's efforts toward creative or personal growth on the job. Satisfaction of growth needs results from an individual engaging in tasks that not only require the person's full use of his or her capabilities, but also may require the development of new capabilities. Maslow's self-actualization and certain of his ego-esteem needs are comparable to those growth needs.

ERG theory is based upon three major propositions:

- i) The less each level of need has been satisfied, the more it will be desired (need satisfaction). For example, the less existence needs (pay) have been satisfied on the job, the more they will be desired.
- ii) The more lower level needs have been satisfied, the greater the desire for higher level needs (i.e., desire strength) For example, the more existence needs have been satisfied for the individual worker (pay), the greater the desire for relatedness needs (satisfying interpersonal relationships)
- iii) The less the higher level need have been satisfied, the more the lower level needs will be desired (i.e., need frustration) for example, the less growth needs have been satisfied (challenging work), the more relatedness needs will be desired (satisfying interpersonal relationships).

Difference between Alderfer's ERG and Maslow's Need Hierarchy:

ERG theory differs from Maslow's need hierarchy in two aspects. (a) Alderfer highlighted that once an individual's higher level need is not fully satisfied or encounters difficulty in fulfilling these needs resulting in frustrations and disappointment, the person will exhibit a strong desire to regress to a lower level needs where he/she finds more comfort and satisfaction. (b) Alderfer further stated that an individual may have an intention to fulfill more than one need at the same time. In other words, individuals may be working towards fulfilling both their relatedness needs and growth needs or their existence and related needs simultaneously.

Implications of ERG Theory:

Alderfer has proposed two sets of views on individual's aspirations and fulfillment. One is satisfaction-progression and other frustration-regression. Satisfaction-progression is similar to Maslow's model in which once an individual's basic needs are satisfied, he/she will progress to the next level to satisfy the succeeding higher level to have them satisfied. Alderfer proposed yet another view of individual's aspirations and fulfillment. If people eventually become frustrated in trying to satisfy their needs at one level, their next lower level needs will re-emerge and they will regress to the lower level to satisfy more basic needs. This is called as frustration-regression. For managers, ERG theory provides a more workable approach to motivation in organization. Because of the frustration-regression approach component, it provides the manager with the opportunity of directing employee behavior in a constructive manner even though higher order needs are temporarily frustrated.

In summary, ERG theory argues that satisfied lower-order needs lead to the desire to satisfy higher-order needs; but multiple needs can be operating as motivators at the same time and frustration in attempting to satisfy a higher-level need can result in regression to a lower-level need.

12.2.5 McClelland's THREE – NEEDS THEORY

McClelland proposed three types of needs common in work life. They are Need for Achievement, Need for Power and Need for Affiliation.

Need for Achievement:

This refers to the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards and to strive to succeed. People with a high need for achievement are striving for personal achievement rather than for trappings and rewards of success. They have a desire to do something better or more efficiently than it has been done before. They prefer jobs that offer personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems, in which they can receive rapid and unambiguous feedback on their performance in order to tell whether they are improving or not and in which they can set moderately challenging goals. High achievers are not gamblers, they dislike succeeding by chance. They are motivated and prefer the challenge of working at a problem and accepting the personal responsibility for success or failure.

Implications for Need for Achievement Theory:

Too little challenge will bore them since there is no opportunity to satisfy their urge to achieve, and too much challenge would mean that the job is difficult and hence will induce the fear of failure in them. Since their need for achievement and accomplishment are high, high Need for Achievement individuals will not try to work on jobs that are so challenging that successful task accomplishment becomes doubtful. Also, high achievers avoid very easy or very difficult tasks instead they show willingness to take a moderate level of difficulty which will have much challenge in accomplishing them. They like to set goals that require stretching themselves a bit.

Need for Power:

This refers to the need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise. Individuals high in Need for Power enjoy being 'in-charge', strive for influence over others, and prefer to be in competitive and status oriented situations.

McClelland distinguished two types of power – Personal Power and Institutional Power. Individuals high in personal power like to inspire subordinates and expect that latter to respect and obey them. Such behaviors gratify their own need for power in a personal sense. Managers, who are high in institutional power, tend to exert authority and influence so as to achieve the goals of the organization rather than to gain any personal ego satisfaction. McClelland describes the institutional power managers as "organization-minded" and getting things done in the interest of the organization. That is, the institutional power manager exercises power in the interests and welfare of the organization. Institutional power managers are said to be very effective since they are

willing to somewhat sacrifice their own interests for the organization's overall well-being. McClelland feels that institutional or social power is good for the organization and personal power is detrimental to the overall interests of the organization.

Implications for Need for Power:

Persons with high need for power would naturally be turned on by holding positions of authority and influence in the organization. They like to take charge and be in control of situations. Placing such individuals in high level positions will help them to gratify their own needs as well as get many of the organization's policies and orders followed and carried out by employees.

Need for Affiliation:

This refers to the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships. Individuals high in Need for Affiliation like to interact with colleagues in the organization. They have a strong desire for approval and reassurance from others and they are willing to conform to the norms of groups to which they belong. In effect, they have needs to develop affinity and warm relationships with people in the work system. They are usually gregarious by nature and like to work with others in a friendly atmosphere. Team work, co-operative efforts, and joint problem-solving sessions, and committee assignments are all suited for those high in Need for Affiliation.

Implications for Need for Affiliation:

People high in need for affiliation are said to perform better in their jobs when they are given supportive feedback. Thus, friendly managers and supervisors can influence individuals high in Need for Affiliation and motivate them to work harder.

12.3 Let us Sum Up

In this unit, we have discussed about three major elements of motivation namely effort, goals and needs and the content theories of motivation.

12.4 Lesson end Activities

1. What are the similarities and differences between Maslow's Need hierarchies, Alderfer's ERG theory?
2. Compare and contrast Maslow's Need hierarchy with Herzberg's two factor theory of motivation
3. What does theory X mean and explain its managerial implications.
4. Explain the major contributions of McGregor in motivating employees? Outline the major assumptions of Theory Y and its implications for managers.
5. What is Need for Achievement and how does it fit with Maslow's and Herzberg's theories.
6. Explain the McClelland's trio needs and its implications for managers.

12.5 References

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LESSON – 13

PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

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- 13.4 Lesson-End Activities
- 13.5 References

13.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The various process theories of motivation are highlighted in this lesson with its implication in work life. By going through these theories, the students are able to

- i) Understand the dynamics of process theories such as Adams equity model, Expectancy model etc.
- ii) Develop the knowledge of the role of individuals' mental process in deciding various options in reaching the goal.
- iii) Design suitable comprehensive motivational design by considering the individuals cognitive aspects.

13.1 INTRODUCTION

The content theories of motivation provided managers with a better understanding of the particular work-related factors that arouse employees to motivate employees' behavior. However, these theories provide very little understanding of why people choose a particular behavioral pattern to accomplish work goals. The process theories will help understand the dynamics of cognitive aspects such as comparison, probability of maximizing benefits etc. Expectancy theory and equity theories are the two major theories that concern this approach to motivation in organization. Cognitive models of motivation are based on the notion that individual make conscious decision about their job behavior. Thus understanding the process by which individual make decision about how much effort they will put on the job will help manages to motivate people better.

13.2 PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

13.2.1 Equity Theory:

Adams proposes equity theory of motivation based on the proposition that every one tend to compare the ratio of his/her input and out come with input-outcome ratio of other person. The comparison process is highly inevitable. The reference person or comparison person will always be in the same group, class, age, category etc. For example, a manager

will always compare himself/herself with other fellow manages. A worker will always compare with other worker in the same organization. In the comparison process, if a person feels that his ratio of input-outcome is more or less equal to that of his comparison person's ratio of input-outcome, a state of equity exists. Then he perceives the situation as just and fair. If a person perceives the ratio as unequal, he will experience inequity that will lead to tension and stress.

Inequity exists under two conditions: 1. the person feels a negative inequity, when he has been rewarded less for his efforts than another and 2. The person experiences a positive inequity, when he finds himself rewarded more than another for a similar degree of effort. Both kinds' of inequities produce cognitive dissonance or internal tensions and propel people to action in order to reduce the dissonance.

Selection of Reference Person or Comparison Person:

The selection of comparison person adds to the complexity of equity theory. Research studies reveal that the type of reference person chosen plays an important role in equity theory. There are four referent comparisons that an employee can use.

1. Self-inside: An employee's experiences in a different position inside his or her present organization.
2. Self-outside: An employee's experiences in a situation or position outside his or her present organization.
3. Other-inside: Another individual or group of individuals inside the employee's organization
4. Other-outside: Another individual or groups of individuals outside the employee's organization.

Employees might compare themselves with other friends, neighbors, co-workers, colleagues in other organizations. The type of reference person or comparison person an employee chooses will be influenced by the information the employee holds about referents, as well as by the attractiveness of the referent. There are many factors which moderate the selection of reference person such as age, sex, education, tenure, nature of job etc.

The positive and negative inequities can be denoted as follows:

Positive Inequity	$\frac{\text{Outcomes for Person}}{\text{Inputs of Person}} >$	Outcomes for Other Inputs of Other
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Negative Inequity	$\frac{\text{Outcomes for Person}}{\text{Inputs of Person}} <$	Outcomes for Other Inputs of Other
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Based on equity theory, the employees who perceive inequity in the occupation may have many options to choose to restore balance

1. Changing their input by putting more effort in their job, updating skills, knowledge or talents etc.
2. Changing their outcomes by increasing their output such as producing more volume of output, high quality of output, conserving more resources. Saving more time, minimizing downtime etc.
3. Distorting self perception by rationalizing certain things such as due to sickness the amount of effort put in is very low or acquisition of some degrees or certificates will make a person feel that I am working harder than anyone else.
4. Distorting perception of the reference person by assuming that the person has more contacts with influential superiors and gets more benefits.
5. Choosing a different referent person and seeking comfort with that person. For instance, if A used B as her comparison point till now, she might after feeling negative inequity, change her comparison point to C by persuading herself that B is now bound to enjoy special favors since she has married the boss's nephew.
6. Leaving the field once for all.

There are two types of justice emphasized in equity theory such as Distributive Justice and Procedural justice.

Distributive Justice: It refers to the perceived fairness of the amount and allocation of rewards among individuals.

Procedural Justice: It refers to the perceived fairness of the process used to determine the distribution of rewards.

Research results indicate that distributive justice has a greater influence on employee satisfaction than procedural justice, while procedural justice tends to affect employees organizational commitment, trust in their boss and intention to quit.

Implications of Equity Theory:

Equity theory sensitizes managers to the fact that individuals often make equity comparisons and that sometimes the rewards given by managers may have consequences which might be reflected in subordinates' behaviors. This is especially true when visible rewards such as promotions, pay increases and bonuses are given to employees.

Managers must anticipate when the employees experience inequities and try to adjust the behavior in such a way by communicating the performance appraisal process to their employees. The proper explanation of how the performance appraisal process is being carried out must be explained to all the employees. Further, the types of rewards dispensed and creating a well established system which takes care of the anomalies in the reward systems are essential in maintaining inequity in the organization. . Felt inequities

are common in all organizations and hence it is important for managers to manage equity dynamics intelligently and carefully.

Managers should consider openly sharing information on how allocation decisions are made, following consistent and unbiased procedures and engaging in similar practices to increase the perception of procedural justice. By increasing the perception of procedural fairness, employees are likely to view their bosses and the organization as positive even if they have dissatisfied with pay, promotions and other outcomes.

Equity theory proves at least three guidelines for managers to consider:

- i) It emphasizes on equitable rewards for employees. When individuals believe that they are not being rewarded in an equitable fashion, certain morale and productivity problems may arise.
- ii) The concerning equity or inequity is not made solely on a personal basis but involves comparison with other workers, both within and outside the organization. In other words, it is not only important how much an employee is being paid, but how much he or she is being paid compared to other employees who have the same or similar jobs.
- iii) Individual reaction to inequity can include changes in inputs and changes in outcomes, with the level or direction depending on whether the inequity was perceived to be underpaying or overpaying.

13.2.2 Vroom Expectancy Model

Expectancy theory relates to choice behavior. The theory states that individuals will evaluate various strategies of behavior (eg. Working hard each day versus working hard three days out of five) and then choose the particular strategy that they believe will lead to those work related rewards that they value (eg. Pay increase). If the individual workers believe that working hard each day will lead to a pay increase, expectancy theory would predict that this will be the behavior he will choose.

The main postulates of expectancy theory are centered on the belief systems of an individual. Expectancy theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of the that outcome to the individual. There are three key concepts in Expectancy theory.

Expectancy I:

Effort→Performance Relationship: Expectancy is the perceived belief concerning the likelihood that a particular behavioral act will be followed by a particular outcome. The degree of belief can vary between 0 (complete lack of a relationship between the act and a given outcome) and 1 (complete certainty that an act will result in a given outcome). That is, the extent to which an individual's belief system links effort-performance

relationship, that is, exerting a given amount of effort will lead to corresponding level of performance. For instance, a student has a strong belief that if he puts 10 hours of reading per day, the chances of getting distinction in his examination is very high and at the same time if he believes that just putting only 2 hours of reading per day, the chances of getting a pass mark is very remote. The main emphasis is the differential levels of efforts in work will lead to differential level of outcome.

He might decide to put forth his best effort and perform an excellent job, or he might decide to put forth a moderate level of effort and do an acceptable job. If he puts in moderate effort, the final performance may be either acceptable or less acceptable. Hence, for each of the effort – performance contingencies, the individual will attach some kind of probability which would range from 0 to 1. For example, the individual might attach a probability of .7 that he would do an excellent job if he puts in superior efforts and a probability of .3 that it would end up to be only an acceptable job even when he puts in superior performance.

Expectancy II (Instrumentality) Performance → Reward Relationship:

It refers to the relationship between first and second – level outcomes. According to Vroom, instrumentality can vary between +1.0 and -1.0. If the first-level outcome (eg. High performance) always leads to a pay increase, the instrumentality would be perceived as having a value of +1.0. If there is no perceived relationship between first and second-level outcome, then the instrumentality approaches zero.

That is, the extent to which an individual's belief system links performance – reward relationship, that is, getting a desired level of performance will lead to the attainment of desired outcome. For instance, insurance agent believes strongly that getting policies worth of 10 crores will lead to getting a club membership and attractive cash incentive. The main emphasis is the differential level of performance in work will lead to differential level of reward outcome.

Valence:

Attractiveness of rewards: The degree to which organizational rewards satisfy an individual's personal goals or needs and the attractiveness of those potential rewards for the individual.

Expectancy theory helps to analyze the extent to which the belief system facilitates to maximize the amount of effort put in their work. For instance, if a person feels that his skill level is very deficient, no matter how hard he tries in his work, he is not likely to be a high performer. Similarly if a person believes if his boss is biased or partial, he expects to get a poor appraisal regardless of his level of effort. These examples suggest that one possible source of low employee motivation is the belief that no matter how hard he or she works, the likelihood of getting a good performance appraisal is very low.

Similarly if a person feels that there is a weak relationship between performances – reward relationship in their job, the chances of getting outstanding performance will be poor. The reason is that organizations reward system is not solely based on the performance criteria but on the other non-performance factors. For example, when pay rise is given to employees based on factors such as seniority, being cooperative; employees are likely to see weak performance-reward relationship and feel demotivated.

Since Vroom's initial model, expectancy theory has undergone at least four developments.

- i) The theory was extended by making the distinction between extrinsic outcomes (eg. Pay and Promotion) and intrinsic outcomes (eg. Recognition, Achievement and Personal Development). Extrinsic valence refers to outcomes that come to the individual from others because of his performance; intrinsic valences are associated with the job itself.
- ii) A further distinction was made between two types of expectancies. Expectancy I is concerned with the perceived relationship between effort and performance. Expectancy II, similar to Vroom's concept of instrumentality is concerned with the relationship between first level outcomes (eg. Performance) and second-level outcomes or reward (eg. Pay, recognition, or achievement). These expectancies have come to be known as EI (effort-performance expectancy) and EII (performance-reward expectancy)
- iii) It also concerns the broadening to the theory to include the possible effects of other work-related variable on the major variables of expectancy such as: a) the possible impact of personality variables (eg. Self-esteem and Self-confidence) in the formation of expectancy perceptions. B) the effect of past experiences on expectancy development and c) the inclusion of ability and role perception as possible moderating effects on the relationship between motivation and actual performance.
- iv) The expectancy model is also extended to include the variables of work-related satisfaction. Satisfaction is viewed as being a function of actual performance and the real rewards gained from that performance.

Implications of Vroom Expectancy Model:

As mentioned above, if the employees feel that the rewards are not so attractive to fulfill his goals, he or she may not put much effort in his or her work. For example, the employee works hard in the hope of getting a promotion but gets a pay rise instead which he is not interested in will make him demotivated. Or the employee wants a more interesting and challenging job but receives only a few words of praise. It is desirable to assess what attracts employees in their work. But some managers incorrectly assume that all employees want the same thing, thus overlooking the motivational effects of differentiating rewards.

In summary, the key to expectancy theory is the understanding of an individual's goals and the linkage between effort and performance, between performance and rewards and finally, between rewards and individual goal satisfaction.

13.2.3 Porter and Lawler Model:

Porter and Lawler proposed a comprehensive model of motivation encompassing the moderating effects of abilities and traits and role perception and accelerating roles of perceived equitable rewards and perceived Effort-Reward probability.

Fig. Porter and Lawler Model:

The model highlights two important factors which facilitate or influence to put more effort in work. They are the valence and perceived Effort → Reward probability

- (i) **Valence:** The first factor concerns the extent to which the value of reward (valence) that is likely to be received from their job influences the amount of effort. For instance, if a person is showing more interest towards the reward or expected outcome, the chances of putting more effort in his or her work will be very high. If the expected reward is not attractive enough, he will lower his effort.
- (ii) **Perceived Effort → Reward probability:** The second factor states the influence of perceived effort → reward probability. If a person feels that the probability of getting reward is very high for given level of effort, he will more likely to put high level of effort in his work.

There are other two significant factors which facilitate to maximize the amount of performance. (i) They are individual's abilities and role perception.

- (i) **Abilities and Traits:** If an individual has requisite abilities, skills and traits to perform the assigned job, he will produce more results than others who do not have such skills to such type of tasks. Traits include endurance, perseverance and goal-directedness which are relevant for doing any tasks. These abilities and traits will moderate the effort → performance relationships.
- (ii) **Role Perception:** If an individual has very clear role perception, that is, very clear job descriptions of what he is supposed to do in his tasks without any ambiguity or confusion, the person will deliver more output. The accuracy of role perception is another variable that moderate the effort → Performance relationship. That is, only those who perceived their role as it is defined by the organization will be able to perform when they put forth the required effort in their job.

Types of rewards: Performance will result in getting various rewards. This can be classified into intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards are those which are

derived within oneself by getting the feelings of job satisfaction, self-esteem, sense of competence and realizing one's own potentialities. Extrinsic rewards are those external rewards that are given by others in the work environment such as money, promotion, security, incentives etc. Both these types of rewards will result in satisfaction. Once again, the Reward → Satisfaction relationship is moderated by the perceived equitable rewards, that is, satisfaction will be experienced only when the person feels fairly and rewarded for his efforts.

Implications of Porter and Lawler Model:

Porter and Lawler's model is of great significance to managers since it sensitizes them to focus attention on the following to keep their employees motivated.

- i) Assigning right type of jobs to right types of person, ensuring perfect match between person and job.
- ii) Providing a clear job description and highlighting what a person is expected of in his work (role perception)
- iii) Assigning the proper performance levels such as quantity, waste control number of customer attended etc.
- iv) Ensuring that the rewards given to their employees are very attractive to them.

If high levels of motivation are to be induced, managers should ensure that the employees perceive a direct link between performance and desired rewards. If significant changes in performance levels are desired, the rewards given must also be significant and valued enough by the employees to change their effort levels. The Porter and Lawler model is useful in understanding the dynamic of motivation at the work place.

13.3 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have discussed about the process theories of motivation. These theories help to understand the dynamics of cognitive aspects.

13.4 Lesson-End Activities

1. What is meant by the concepts: Expectancy, Instrumentality, Valence and Force?
2. Explain Porter and Lawler Model of Motivation and how managers can benefit from understanding the model?
3. How can a manager influence an individual's perception of valence, effort-to-performance, and performance-to-reward expectancies?
4. Discuss the managerial implications of underpaying and over payment from the view point of equity theory.
5. Contrast distributive justice and procedural justice. What implications might they have for designing pay systems in different countries?
6. Explain the Adam's Equity model and its implications for managers.

13.5 References

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LESSON - 14

GOAL SETTING AND JOB SATISFACTION

Contents

- 14.0 Aims and Objectives
- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Goal setting theory
- 14.3 Job satisfaction
- 14.4 Let us Sum up
- 14.5 Lesson-End Activities
- 14.6 References

14.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

In lesson V, the goal setting theory and job satisfaction concepts are discussed. After learning this section, the students are able to:

- i) Understand the Goal Setting theory and its application such as MBO, Goal Setting Review Process
- ii) Describe the factors leading to job satisfaction and the ways to enhance job satisfaction.

14.1 INTRODUCTION

The basic framework of goal setting theory is that it deals with the relationship between conscious goals or intentions and task performance. A goal is defined as what the individual is consciously trying to do. The basic premise of the approach is that an individual's conscious goals or intentions influence his behavior. Specific, concrete or harder goals result in a higher level of individual performance than do easy goals.

Goal setting involves four steps: i) It involves the establishment of target results and the clarification of potential rewards that are associated with goal accomplishment ii) goal setting aspects such as the degree of goal difficulty and goal challenges iii) goal-setting intension made by the individual involving the acceptance and commitment to the previously established goals iv) task performer's interest, personality characteristics..

14.2 GOAL SETTING THEORY

Locke proposed that intentions to work towards a goal are major source of work motivation. The goals facilitate employees what needs to be done and how much effort will need to be put forth in their tasks. The evidence shows the work values and goals will determine strongly the performance of an individual. Actual work behavior then becomes a function of values and goals set by the individual. The manager can motivate employees between goals which jointly decided by both.

The following are the four important requirements for setting the goal in such a way to elicit a desired performance. They are: goal specificity, goal difficulty, goal acceptance and feedback.

- i) **Goal Specificity:** Setting specific goals with clear expectations both in terms of quantitatively as well as qualitatively will reduce the ambiguity or confusion among the employees. Then the employee can put forth more effort and concentrate the achievement of a well-defined output. Research findings revealed that setting specific performance goals is a better motivator and achieves better results than asking employees to do their best in general.
- ii) **Goal Difficulty:** If the goals are too easy to finish the required task, the employee will not be motivated enough and get bored in due course of time. Similarly if the goals are too difficult to complete, he will get high level of frustration and not able to complete the task in time. Hence, it is desirable to set the goal with moderate difficult level that will provide much challenge and motivate people to do work better than easy goals.
- iii) **Participation in Goal Setting Process:**
If the employees are allowed to participate in setting their work goals with clear directions, the likelihood getting full acceptance and participation in their task will be very high. Further, the goals must be so consonance with the employee's attitudes and values that is there must be a perfect harmonization of individual values system and nature of work. Once there is an acceptance and commitment to the goal, the employees will be motivated to put forth greater effort and perform well.
- iv) **Feedback on Goal Effort:** Once the knowledge of the results of their work (feedback) is known to the employees periodically, they will realize their shortcomings, errors, and adjust their work behavior accordingly to meet the required expected output. Feedback helps in as much as it keeps the employee's goal directed behavior on target and stimulates the person to put in greater efforts.

Self- Efficacy:

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he is capable of performing a task. If an individual's self-efficacy is very high, he will have more confidence in his ability to succeed in a task. So, in difficult situations, people with low self-efficacy are more likely to lessen their effort or given up altogether, while those with high self-efficacy will try harder to master the challenge. In addition, individual's high in self-efficacy seem to respond to negative feedback with increased effort and motivation, whereas those low in self-efficacy are likely to lessen their effort when given negative feedback.

Research indicates that individual goals setting does not work equally well on all tasks. The results showed that goals seem to have a more substantial effect on performance when tasks are simple rather than complex, well learned rather than novel, and independent rather than interdependent goals.

Implications of Goal Setting Theory:

The success of goal setting as a motivational technique is largely a function of designing the goals with all four characteristics. Goal setting is a powerful motivator and can be used even in service organizations where the output is not easily quantifiable. Goals can be set in such organizations in terms of servicing time, customer complaints, customer satisfaction levels, and other factors as would be appropriate to the managerial responsibilities at hand.

Management by Objectives (MBO):

It is a program that encompasses specific goals set with cooperation of employees, for an explicit time period, with feedback on goal progress. MBO emphasizes setting goals participatively that are tangible, variable, measurable, realistic and timely. The main focus of MBO is converting overall organizational objectives into specific objectives for the organizational units and individual members. The objectives are flowing from top to bottom in the hierarchy as corporate goals, divisional goals, departmental goals and individual goals in the organization. Lower unit managers jointly participate in setting their own goals. MBO works from the bottom up as well as from the top down. The result is a hierarchy of objectives that links objectives at one level to those at the next level. Each individual employee will have some specific personal performance objectives.

There are four common elements in the MBO program: They are: goals specificity, participative decision making, time frame and feedback process.

- i) **Goal Specificity:** Listing a set of goal statements of what employees are expected of in their work life. Instead of highlighting vague and general statements such as improve service or increase the quality, converting those into a specific and measurable statements such as 20 customers are attended with one hour, rejection rate or error rate in the quality must be less than 1 per 10000 pieces produced will help to achieve the goals.
- ii) **Participative Decision Making:** The objectives of MBO program are set unilaterally by the top managers. The employees are invited to share their ideas and consulted periodically to list the desired objectives. MBO replaces imposed goals with participatively determined goals.

- iii) **Time Frame:** Each objective must have a specific time period to accomplish with a strict deadline by stating the time and date. The time period can be one month, three months which facilitate to complete the tasks in time.
- iv) **Feedback on Performance.** MBO system will facilitate to provide the knowledge of results (feedback) to the concerned employees immediately by their supervisors whether it is positive or negative. In case the performance will be inferior or below the level of set objective, the same will be appraised to the employees immediately and corrective action will be taken accordingly. This can be supplemented by periodic managerial evaluations, when progress is reviewed.

Comparison of Goal Setting and MBO:

MBO directly advocates specific goals and feedback. MBO implies that goals must be perceived as feasible. Consistent with goal setting, MBO would be most effective when the goals are difficult enough to require the person to do some stretching. The only area of difference between MBO and goal setting is on the issue of participation. MBO advocates strongly the participation is part of the setting objectives, while goal setting theory states that supervisors can set and assign goals to subordinates frequently. As the participation is elicited form the employees periodically, employees can be induced to set even more difficult goals themselves.

Failures of MBO:

When MBO programmes do not work well, it is often due to one or more of the following reasons:

1. The managers unilaterally set the goals and expect the subordinates to accept them without reservation.
2. Adequate resources are not provided, lack of top management commitment
3. Feedback is not provided to the subordinates on how well or poorly the individual is making progress towards goals attainment
4. When the goals are met, the subordinates are not appropriately rewarded.

Employee Recognition Programs

Even if the nature of work is repetitive and boring such as working as waiter in fast food restaurant, attending to customer complaints in departmental stores, the employees can be motivated further and retain them within their organization by giving proper recognition.

The following are the ways to recognize the employees:

- i) Complementing regularly in front of the other employees
- ii) Displaying 'Employees of the Month' in the notice board prominently

- iii) Giving special attractive incentives – free lunch, travel, bonus etc
- iv) Employees are referred as ‘associates’ as a mark of respect for their contribution
- v) Celebrating the positive aspects of each employees work once in a month
- vi) Everyone wears same type of uniform

Linking Recognition and Reinforcement:

If the desired behavior is rewarded or recognized immediate quite often or periodically that behavior is likely to encourage its repetition. Recognition can take many forms:

- i) Sending a personal note congratulating an employee
- ii) Sending e-mail note acknowledging commendable work.
- iii) Recognize accomplishments openly.
- iv) Celebrate team success
- v) Use of suggestion system

Employee Involvement Program:

Employee Involvement: It is a participative process that uses the entire capacity of employees and is designed to encourage increased commitment to the organization’s success. The key issues involved in the involvement process are as follows:

- i) Involving workers in those decision that affect them
- ii) Increasing their autonomy and control over their work life
- iii) Opportunity to interact with customers and get adequate feedback directly from them regarding their work
- iv) Introducing a flat structure with flexible rules and regulations within the unit

The following are the various types of Employment Involvement Programs: Workers Participation in Management, Quality Circles, and Employee share ownership plans

Workers Participation in Management:

It is a process in which workers share a significant degree of decision-making power with their immediate supervisors. It promotes high level of morale and productivity within the organization. More participation can be elicited from the employees by providing some facilities such as giving adequate time to participate, issues must be relevant to their interest, and employees must have the ability (intelligence, technical knowledge, communication skills) to participate and conducive work culture supporting employee involvement.

Seeking participation is vital for the organization as the nature of job is very complex and the managers may not know everything their employees do. As the

employees know the operational difficulties and the ways to overcome, they can provide better decision than the managers. Further, the nature of tasks are interdependent requiring frequent consultation with concerned people in other departments, which demanding to form teams, committee and group meetings to resolve issues that affect them jointly. Participation also facilitates to enhance employees commitment to the collective decision. Finally, participation provides intrinsic rewards for employees and it can make their jobs more interesting and meaningful.

Instituting suitable reward system, creating flexible organic organizational structure with more flexibility will help significantly enhance participative decision-making. However, research results showed that participation typically has only a modest influence on employee productivity, motivation and job satisfaction. The following are the types of workers representation:

- a) Representative Participation: It refers to workers participation in organizational decision making through a small group of representative employees. The goal of representative participation is to redistribute power within an organization, putting employees on a more equal footing with the interest of management and shareholders.
- b) Works Council: It refers to groups of nominated or elected employees who must be consulted when management makes decisions involving personnel.
- c) Board Representative: This is a form of representative participation. Here the employees sit on a company's board of directors and represent the interests of the firm's employees.

Quality Circle:

It refers to a work group of employees who meet regularly to discuss their quality problems, investigate causes, recommend solutions and take corrective actions.

The members meet regularly typically once a week, during office time within the company premises to discuss their quality problems, investigate causes of the problem, recommend solutions and take corrective actions. The QC members take over the responsibility for solving quality problems and they generate and evaluate their own feedback. In general, management typically retains control over the final decision regarding implementation of recommended solutions.

QC concept includes teaching participating employees group communication skills, various quality strategies, and measurement and problem analysis. The formation of QC is more likely to positively affect productivity. The failure of many QC to measurable benefits has also led to abandoning of QC system. There are two possible disappointment results. i) lack of time to get full involvement among employees ii) lack of planning and top-management commitment often contributed to quality circle failures.

Employee share ownership plans: It refers to company-established benefit plans in which employee acquire shares as part of their benefits.

14.3 JOB SATISFACTION:

It is defined as an individual's general attitude towards his or job. If an individual holds a positive attitude and livingness towards various elements of job, he is likely to have more job satisfaction. It involves interaction with fellow employees and bosses, following organizational rules, and policies, working conditions, job itself, recognition from superiors etc.

14.3.1 Factors that lead to Job Satisfaction:

The following important factors such as conducive work environment such as mentally challenging work, equitable rewards, supportive working conditions, supportive colleagues, the personality-job fit etc. will enhance the level of job satisfaction.

Mentally Challenging Jobs: Employees tend to prefer jobs that give them opportunities to use their skills and abilities and offer a variety of tasks, freedom on how well they are doing. Jobs that have too little challenge create boredom. Most employees will experience more pleasure and satisfaction if they have moderate level of challenge in their work.

Equitable rewards: When pay is seen as fair and based on job demands, individual skill level and the prevailing market pay standards, job satisfaction is likely to result. Promotion provides opportunities for personal growth, more responsibilities and increased social status. Employees who perceive that promotion decisions are made in a fair and just manner are likely to experience satisfaction from their jobs.

Supportive Working Conditions: Comfortable working conditions such as temperature, light and other environmental factors facilitate to enhance satisfaction level of the employees. Most employees prefer working relatively close to home, in clean and relatively modern facilities and with adequate, safe and well-maintained tools and equipment.

Supportive Fellow Employees: Employees satisfaction is increased when the immediate supervisor understands and friendly, offers praise for good performance, listens to the employee's opinions and shows a personal interest in them.

Personality-job fit: High agreement between an employee's personality and occupation results in more satisfaction. People with personality types congruent

with their chosen vocations find that have the right talents and abilities to meet the demands of their jobs. Such people are more likely to be successful at those jobs.

Effect job satisfaction on employee performance

Satisfaction and Productivity: The general notion is that a happy employee is a productive employee. The relationship between productivity and satisfaction is very high when the employee behavior is not constrained or controlled by the outside factors.

Satisfaction and Absenteeism: Research results reported that the employees with high satisfaction scores had much higher attendance than those with lower satisfaction levels.

Satisfaction and Turnover: Satisfaction is also negatively related to turnover. People with low level of job satisfaction are likely to leave the organization. .

14.4 Let us Sum Up

In this unit we have discussed about the goal setting theory and its applications. We have learnt about the factors that lead to job satisfaction and the ways to enhance job satisfaction.

14.5 Lesson-end Activities

1. Explain quality circle and its advantages for the organization.
2. Explain the roles of employees and management in quality circles.
3. Identify five different criteria by which organizations can compensate employees. Based on your knowledge and experience, do you think performance is the criterion most used in practice?
4. What are the different types of employee involvement programs?
5. Explain the different types of workers participation management techniques?
6. What does Employee recognition program mean?

14.6 References

UNIT IV FOUNDATIONS OF GROUP BEHAVIOR

LESSON – 15 TYPES OF GROUPS

Contents

- 15.0 Aims and objectives
- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Types of groups
- 15.3 Reasons for joining groups
- 15.4 Models of group development
- 15.5 External conditions imposed on the group
- 15.6 Let us Sum Up
- 15.7 Lesson-End Activities
- 15.8 References

15.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After the completion of this lesson, the students may be able to

- i) Understand the different types of groups and advantages and disadvantages in work setting
- ii) Identify the reasons for joining groups and its stages of development
- iii) Explain the models of group development and differentiate its applications in work life situations
- iv) List the various aspects of external conditions imposed on the group.

15.1 INTRODUCTION

For the manager in an organization, the behavior and performance of group provide the primary mechanism for the attainment of organization goals, In order to provide for effective goal accomplishment, the manager must be familiar with:

- i) The process of influencing group behavior
- ii) The climate for maximum interaction and minimal conflict between group members.
- iii) The means for the satisfaction of individual needs, which may be different from individual to individual within each group.

Group is defined as collection of two or more individuals who are interdependent and interact with one another for the purpose of performing to attain a common goal or objective. The principal characteristics presented in this definition – goals, interaction and performance are crucial to the study of behavior in organizations. A group is a collection of individuals in which the existence of all (in their given relationships) is necessary to the satisfaction of certain individual needs to each. In order to satisfy certain needs relating to social interactions, employees may informally (or formally) join together to form various social, civic, or recreational groups within organizations.

15.2 TYPES OF GROUPS

Various methods are used to classify the types of groups that exist in our organizations. In organizations, the predominant operating groups are the functional groups, task or project groups and interest groups. In addition, groups are also classified as formal and informal groups.

Formal groups:

Formal groups are collections of employees who are made to work together by the organization to get the job done smoothly and efficiently. For example, if five members are put together in a department to attend to customer complaints they would be a formal group. The formal groups are those whose primary purpose is facilitating, through member interactions, the attainment of the goals of the organization. ii) Informal groups: Informal groups are groups that emerge or randomly get formed due to the formal group members' interaction with each other, and thereby develop common interest. For example, members who are showing interest in cricket will join together and share and enjoy talking about the cricket games. Informal groups provide a very important service by satisfying their members' social needs. Because of interactions that result from the close proximity of task interactions, group members play cricket together, spending their tea breaks together etc.

Functional Groups:

The functional group in an organization is a group generally specified by the structure of the organization. It involves a superior-subordinate relationship and involves the accomplishment of ongoing tasks and generally considered as formal group. Example – Manager of accounting department supported by staff accountants, financial analyst, and computer operators etc.

Task or Project Groups:

When a number of employees are formally brought together for the purpose of accomplishing a specific task – for a short-term or long term period – such a collection of individuals is called a task or project group. For example, the plant manager of a chemical processing plant may be interested in identifying potential safety problems in the plant. To provide a coordinated effort, the manager creates a four-person task force consisting of the production superintendent, maintenance superintendent, director of engineering and the safety engineer. The group members will deliberate these issues bring out suitable remediable measure for those safety problems within a deadline period. If any problems are found, the plant manager may create other task forces to work toward the elimination of the potential problems. These activities create a situation that encourages the members of the task force to communicate, interact and to coordinate activities, if the purpose of the group is to be accomplished.

Interest and Friendship Groups:

The group members formed relationships based on some common characteristics such as age, political belief, or interests. Generally, it can be considered as formal or informal

group. Employees who joined together to have their fringe benefits continued to have its implementation, to support a peer who has been fired, or to seek more festival holidays etc. they tend to unite together to further their common interest. Groups often develop because the individual members have one or more common characteristics. This is called friendship groups. For example, recreation clubs, social groups etc.

15.3 REASONS FOR JOINING GROUPS:

The most popular reasons for joining a group are related to our needs for security, identity, affiliation, power and engaging in common tasks.

SECURITY:

By joining a group, members can reduce the insecurity of being alone. The membership will make them feel stronger, gaining resistant to threats, having fewer self-doubts etc. New employees are particularly vulnerable to a sense of isolation and turn to the group for guidance and support.

STATUS:

Inclusion in a group that is viewed as important by others provides recognition and status for its members. Being a member of Rotary Club, the members feel pride and gain status and recognition.

SELF-ESTEEM:

Groups can provide people with feelings of self-worth. That is, in addition to conveying status to those outside the group, membership can also give increased feelings of worth to the group members themselves. The self-esteem is bolstered when members are accepted by a highly valued group. Being assigned to a task force whose purpose is to review and make recommendations for the location of the company's new corporate head quarters can fulfill one's intrinsic needs for competence and growth.

AFFILIATION:

Groups can fulfill social needs. People enjoy the regular interaction that comes with group membership. For many people, these on-the-job interactions at work are the primary source for fulfilling their needs for affiliation.

POWER:

For individuals who desire to influence others, groups can offer power without a formal position of authority in the organization. As a group leader he or she may be able to make requests of group members and obtain compliance without any of the responsibilities that traditionally go either formal managerial position.

GOAL ACHIEVEMENT:

There are times when it takes more than one person to accomplish a particular task- there is a need to pool talents, knowledge in order to complete a job. In such instances, management will rely on the use of a formal group.

15.4 MODELS OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT:

There are three types of Group development Model

1. Tuckman and Jenson's – Five stage life cycle model
2. Punctuated -equilibrium model.
3. Bennis and Shepard Group Development Model

1) TUCKMAN AND JENSONS – FIVE STAGE LIFE CYCLE MODEL

Five Stage Life Cycle Model: Tuckman outline five stages of group development. They are:

i) **Forming:**

At this stage, group members try to comprehend where they stand in the group and how they are being perceived by others in the group. The members are very cautious in their interactions with each other and the relationships among the group members are very superficial. Members' seldom express their feelings in the group and the individual members who are trying to understand who they are in the group have concerns about how they will fit in the group as permanent group members. This is characterized by much uncertainty about group's purpose, structure and leadership. Members are 'testing the waters' to determine what types of behavior are acceptable. This stage is complete when members have begun to think of themselves as part of a group.

ii) **Storming:**

At this stage, disagreement tends to get expressed among the group members, and feelings of anxiety and resentment are also expressed. Some power struggle may ensue at this stage to determine who should assume the informal leadership role in the group. This storming stage is also known as the sub-grouping and confrontation. This group is characterized by intra-group conflict. Members accept the existence of the group, but there is resistance to the control the group imposes on individuality. There is sometimes conflict over who will control the group. When this stage is complete, there will be a relatively clear hierarchy of leadership within the group.

iii) **Norming:**

This stage is characterized by close relationships and cohesiveness. The group sets norms, tries to attain some degree of cohesiveness, understands the goals of the group, starts making good decision, expresses feelings openly and makes attempts to resolve problems and attain group effectiveness. At this stage, members' roles get defined, and task and maintenance roles are assumed by group members. Group members' also begin to express satisfaction and confidence about being members of the group.

iv) **Performing:**

This stage is characterized by collaboration and integration. The group members evaluate their performance so that the members develop and grow. The group relationships and structures are set and accepted. Group energy has moved from getting

to know and understand each other, to performing the task at hand. Feelings are expressed at this stage without fear, leadership roles shared among the members, and the group members' activities are highly co-coordinated. The task and maintenance roles are played very effectively. The task performance levels are high and member satisfaction, pride and commitment to the group also high. Both performance and members' satisfaction are sustained indefinitely;

v) **Adjourning:**

This stage is characterized by concern with wrapping up activities rather than task performance. The group prepares for its disbandment. High task performance is no longer the group's top priority. Instead, attention is directed towards finalizing activities. As the group approaches the terminal phase, members break off their bonds of affection and stop interaction with each other. Responses of group members vary in this state. Some feel pride in what the group has accomplished. Others may be negative and critical of the way the organization has treated the group and others may be sad over the loss of friendship gained during the life of the work groups.

These five stages of group development are only a suggestive and not prescriptive. Sometimes, groups do not always proceed clearly from one stage to the next. Some times, several stages go on simultaneously as when groups are storming and performing at the same time. Under some conditions, high levels of conflict are conducive to high group performance.

2) THE PUNCTUATED-EQUILIBRIUM MODEL:

This model emphasis the degree to which the group completes its task based on how much time is left before the task must be completed. In the group development, the timings of when groups form and change the way they work is highly consistent. It is reported that the three activities such as i) direction of the group, ii) inertia and iii) major changes occur at similar times during the formation and operation of groups.

- I. **Group's direction:** During the first meetings, the members will discuss and set the group direction to achieve the assigned target. A set of behavior pattern and various assumptions will be emerging to formulate action plans during the first meeting. These lasting patterns can appear as early as in the first few seconds of the group's life
- II. **Inertia:** During this period the group tends to stand still or becomes locked into a fixed course. The group is unlikely to reexamine the course of action and always keep a fixated mind based on the earlier assumptions and behavioral pattern. New insights that might challenge initial patterns and assumptions might occur among individual members, but the group is often incapable of acting on these new insights. . This is called inertia.

III. **Transition from old pattern towards major changes or new perspectives to get results:**

At one point of time the group experiences its transition from switching the old behavioral pattern or assumptions to the new perspectives to reach the targets. This period is characterized by a concentrated burst of changes, dropping of old patterns and adoption of new perspectives. This transition sets a revised direction. During this stage, the group members are involved in a final burst of activity to finish its work, A flurry of activity occurs, with group members putting pressure on each of their time fulfill their individual roles and responsibilities. It is as if the group experienced midlife crises. This midpoint crises appears to work like an alarm clock, heightening members awareness that their time is limited and that they need to 'get on with the job'

Comparison of these two models of Group Development:

The punctuated-equilibrium model characterizes groups as exhibiting long periods of inertia, interspersed with brief revolutionary changes triggered primarily by their members' awareness of time and deadline. In the terminology of the five-stage group development model, the group begin by combining the forming and norming stages, then goes through a period of low performance, followed by storming, then a period of high performing and finally, a last meeting of pressured activity and adjourning.

The five-stage life cycle model is best known of the relationship-oriented and sequential models, while the punctuated-equilibrium model is the best researched of the outcome-oriented and non-sequential models.

This punctuated-equilibrium model helps to give a clearer picture of how groups, especially task-force and project type groups operate in the workplace.

THREE CRITICAL PERIODS DURING THE GROUP DEVELOPMENT:

Period I - Initial Period of Meetings:

During this initial period, the group has the least structure and often is dependent on the leaders, and has unclear expectations, high anxiety, and sometimes, low member participation. Initial meetings outline priorities, define member roles, establish pecking orders, and evaluation criteria.

Period II - Midpoint: Tension between outcomes and relationships, the exhaustion of group creativity, and the onset of physical and emotional fatigue seem to occur most frequently at the midpoint of group's life cycle.

Period III - Crises Point:

While the urgency of the task can accelerate the pace of task outcomes, other factors such as cohesion, conflict management, balance between relationships and task needs, effective communication and involvement are required for well-developed groups

3) BENNIS AND SHEPARD MODEL OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT:

This model focuses primarily on task or projects groups and assumes that such groups follow four stages of development

- i) **Orientation:** During this stage, the group members will be involved in the following activities: Establishing structure, rules and communication networks of the group, clarifying relations and interdependencies among group member, identifying leadership roles and clarifying authority and responsibility relationships, developing a plan for goal accomplishment
- ii) **Internal Problem Solving:** The major activities of this stage include: identification and resolution of interpersonal conflict, further clarification of rules, goals and structural relationships. Development of a participative climate among group members.
- iii) **Growth and Productivity:** In this stage, the members devote much time directing towards goal accomplishment, developing data-flow and feedback systems for task performance, growing cohesion among members of the group.
- iv) **Evaluation and Control:** During this last stage, the members, particularly leadership role emphasizes facilitation, feedback and evaluation, roles and group interdependencies are renewed, revised and strengthened, group exhibits strong motivation toward goal accomplishment.

Application of Bennis Model of Group Development: Knowing which stage of development a group is in is an important factor for manager in determining which style of leadership would be most effective for moving the group toward goal accomplishment. For example, if a group of project engineers is experiencing interpersonal conflict during the internal problem solving stage, the manager or group leader should attempt to resolve the major internal problems before sending the group on a construction site to accomplish a particular task. Unresolved internal problems may create more serious problems, which will adversely affect group performance. For the project engineers, conflict arising from questions of interdependencies may result in not completing the project on time.

15.5 EXTERNAL CONDITIONS IMPOSED ON THE GROUP

ORGANIZATIONAL STRATEGY

The type of strategy formed by an organization influences the structure of the groups. A strategy outlines the organization's goals and the means for attaining these goals. An organizations strategy might be being pioneering and innovative in their products and services offered or reducing costs as much as possible and offer low priced products, or offer a distinctive unique or customized products and services etc. The strategy will direct the organizations to reduce costs, improving quality, expanding market share etc. The strategy that an organization is pursuing influences the power of various work groups and

its structure which in turn determines the resources the organization's top management is willing to allocate to it for performing its tasks.

ORGANIZATION CULTURE

The values, attitudes, beliefs systems which bind all employees together to have common way of life are called as organizational culture. Each organization has its own written or unwritten code of conduct that defines employees' acceptable and unacceptable behavior such as dress code, quality commitment, transparency or honesty in dealing with customers etc. Certain work groups do have its own subculture which is shared by all the members. Members of work groups have to conform to the standards imposed in the organizations dominant culture if they are to remain in good standing.

ORGANIZATION RESOURCES AND TECHNOLOGY

If an organization uses a state-of-the-art modern technology in its work operations, and embraces the current information technology products and its services, such as e-mail, mobile phones, PCs, teleconferencing etc, the technical nature of the work can affect the communication style, number of people in the group, job description and reporting systems etc. There will be a virtual group consisting of member operating in remote areas and accomplishing the goals of an organization.

AUTHORITY STRUCTURES

The reporting system and the flow of authority strongly determine the structure of the group. If the structure is highly standardized, formalized, centralized, and simple in nature, the group members will be doing routine work and bound by more rules and regulations. The group member relations will vary based on the types of organizations structure.

FORMAL REGULATIONS

Organizations create rules, procedures and other forms of regulation to standardize employee behavior. The more the formal regulations that the organizations impose on all its employees, the more the behavior of work group member will be consistent and predictable.

PERSONNEL SELECTION PROCESS

The criteria that an organization uses in its selection decisions such as the importance to the merit, professional commitment, expertise, age, loyalty etc are very much influence the types of evaluation process and its reward system which in turn affects the work group performance.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION AND REWARD SYSTEMS

Instituting a proper developmental oriented performance evaluations systems providing opportunity for growth, assigning challenging assignment, offering competitive rewards etc. will have a significant impact on the work group members overall performance. Since work groups are part of the larger organizational system, groups' members' behavior is influenced by how the organization evaluate performance.

UNION INFLUENCE

Unions can affect the selection process and also influence acceptable and unacceptable behavior. Disagreements with management or the imposition of work conditions which the group considers unfair are often dealt with by the union. Managers often moderate what they require of a group because of concern for the union's reaction.

PHYSICAL WORK SETTING

Physical working conditions such as physical lay out, illumination level, arrangement of equipment, work space designs particularly office furniture etc will affect the employees work behavior. Some of them may create barrier and opportunities for work group members. Even the color of the walls and equipment may have an effect on the mood of the work group.

CONCLUSION:

Various types of groups exist within the framework of organizations, from the formal functional and task or project groups, to the generally more informal interest and friendship groups. Whatever the classification – it is Important for the effective functioning of the organization that the goals of such groups be congruent with the overall goals of the organization. Groups with incongruent goals create a situation of conflict, inter personal problems and reduced effectiveness.

Although different types of groups develop at different rates, they all tend to follow a similar four-stage pattern – orientation, internal problem solving, growth and productivity and evaluation and control. Each of these stages is characterized by different types of behavior required of individual members and of the organization. Changes in the composition of the group, its task or leadership can result in the group reverting to any earlier stage.

15.5 Lesson-end Activities

1. Critically review the types of groups and its application in organization.
2. What are reasons for joining groups?
3. Explain Tuckman and Jenson's five stage life cycle model and its implication in developing groups.
4. Compare and contrast Tuckman and Jenson's Five Stage Life Cycle Model and Punctuated-Equilibrium Model.
5. Discuss the impact of external conditions on the formation of group and its development process.

15.6 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have discussed about the different types of groups and the reasons for forming groups. We have also learnt about the three types of group development model.

15.8 References

LESSON – 16

GROUP STRUCTURE AND GROUP PROCESS

CONTENTS

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16.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, the students may be able:

- understand the types of attributes and personality characteristics required for the formation of group.
- explain the structural components of group and able to design an effective group
- discuss the dynamics of process with special reference to enhance its overall effectiveness and elicit synergy among group output.
- explain the phenomenon of groupthink and the remedial measures to overcome such phenomenon.

16.1 INTRODUCTION

Individual members of groups bring with them certain individual characteristics that may have an influence on group behavior. An individual's typical behavioral patterns such as how he or she reacts to others, and his available skill and abilities will have an impact on

the overall performance of a group. The discussion of individual characteristics and group behavior includes four main components: 1) biographical and physical characteristics, 2) abilities and intelligence, 3) personality and 4) expectations.

The structure of the group provides norms, social ranking influence, and the position or role that each member occupies in the group. The following components of the group structure are important: 1) group composition, 2) norms, 3) status, 4) emergent leaders 5) role definition and 6) group cohesiveness. Research studies have shown that conformity to group norms are a function of four factors; personality of the group member; situational factors; stimulus factors; and intra-group relations. Individuals conform to group norms generally in one of the three ways: conformity, rebellion or creative individualism.

16.2 GROUP MEMBER ATTRIBUTES

A group's potential level of performance is, to a large extent dependent on the attributes that its members individually bring to the group. There are two attributes: i) knowledge, skills and abilities of an individual and ii) his personality characteristics.

KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS AND ABILITIES

Intellectual abilities, skills and abilities are predicting the group's performance more confidently. It is reported that individuals whose abilities are crucial for attaining the group's tasks tend to be more involved in group activity and more likely to emerge as the group leaders. Further, they are satisfied if their talents are effectively used by the group. Intellectual ability and task relevant ability have both been found to be related to overall group performance. Group performance is not merely the summation of its individual member's abilities. However, these abilities set the possibilities for what member can do and how effectively they perform in a group.

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS

There is a high level of relationship between personality traits, group attitudes and behavior. It is reported that personality traits tend to have a positive connotation in our culture and tend to positively related to group productivity, morale and cohesiveness. These include traits such as sociability, self-reliance and independence. The magnitude of the effect of any single characteristic is small, but all together the consequences for group behavior are of major significance. Therefore, the personality characteristics of group members play an important part in determining group behavior.

16.3 GROUP STRUCTURES

FORMAL LEADERSHIP

Formal leader of the group:

He is its principal representative and is the one individual who can legitimately exert formal influence on the activities of the group. The leader is responsible for the direction and goal accomplishment of the group and can reward or punish individual member when

they do not comply with the directions, orders or rules of the group. Without a leader, the group will never have direction and spirit to proceed further. Due to this, an organization supports the leaders influence, and ensures that the leader has the power to make the group members comply with directives.

Informal Group Leaders:

Informal group leaders generally are individuals who are respected by other group members and who have acquired special status. The informal group leaders generally:

- i) Aids the group in directing its activities toward goal accomplishment
- ii) Embodies the values of the group
- iii) Acts for the group in presenting their viewpoint when interacting with management or other groups
- iv) Facilitates the activities of the group by initiating group actions and assisting in resolving group conflict.

The informal group leadership role can and often does change from person to person, depending on the particular conditions that exist. An individual who is not able to maintain the respect, status, and prestige of the group can be replaced by others who embody the needed characteristics. To remain an informal leader person must have the necessary qualifications, knowledge, and skills needed to aid and guide the group toward goal accomplishment.

ROLES

Role refers to a set of expected behavior patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit. Roles are classified into three ways:

Expected Role:

It refers to the expectations of supervisors towards their subordinates on the type of behavior or actions in their job. This expected role can be specified by giving a detailed job description, position, title or by other directions from the organizations.

Perceived Role:

This concerns the set of activities or behaviors of the group that an individual believes he or she should do. Most of the time, the perceived role corresponds to the expected role. Many factors may be present in a situation that can distort the individual's perception and thus make the perceived role inaccurate.

Enacted Role:

This refers to the way in which the individual group member actually behaves. The enacted role is generally dependent on the perceived role

If there is any differences exist between or among these roles, a considerable level of role ambiguity or role conflict exists. Role ambiguity is the lack of clarity regarding job duties, authority and responsibility that the individual perceives in his role. It can be caused by a number of factors such as lack of clear job description, occupational levels with complex

set of duties, lack of training, experience and clear job responsibilities, lack of self confidence and other personalized factors. Role conflict occurs when multiple demands and directions from one or more individuals create uncertainty in the worker's mind concerning what should be done, when or for whom. Employees must receive directions or expectations only from one source. But in recent times, the employees have multiple roles and therefore can receive multiple directions. Two different types of role conflict exist; i) intra-role conflict and ii) inter-role conflict.

Intra-role conflict: It is created by many different directives sent simultaneously to some one occupying one role, making it impossible for the individual to satisfy all directives at the same time. For example: Production supervisor experiences role conflict by getting conflicting demands from four sources such as i) production manager is demanding greater emphasis on steady production levels and attention to cost control ii) Sales manager asking not only for a greater variety of products, but also different qualities of products for select customers ii) Maintenance managers demanding him to shutdown the plant to do repair work. iv) Workers want more overtime, better working conditions and less interference in their work from supervisors.

Inter-role conflict: It is created by many simultaneous roles presenting conflicting expectations. It exists when an individual finds that compliance with one role requirement may make it more difficult the compliance with another. At the extreme, it would include situations in which two or more role expectations are mutually contradictory.

All of us to face role conflict at various times. The critical issue is how the different role expectations imposed by organizational requirements affect our behavior. Certainly they increase internal tension and frustrations. There are a number of behavioral responses to resolve such conflicts by following the organizational rules, regulations and procedures that govern organizational activities. Other behavioral responses may include withdrawal, staffing, negotiations, etc.

NORMS:

Norms act as standards of behavior and performance. Norms can be described as shared belief among group members as to what behaviors are appropriate if one desires to be a part of and belong to the group. It refers to acceptable standards of behavior that are shared by the group members. Norms direct employees on what they ought and ought not to do under certain circumstance. When agree to and accepted by the group, norms act as means of influencing the behavior of group members with minimum of external controls. Norms become unwritten rules, or implicitly understood codes of conduct for group members. Interestingly, norms become explicit only when they are broken. For instance, if the norms of a group include punctuality in attendance, and if group members come late, the other members are likely to react to this behavior in several subtle or not so subtle ways. Some of the types of norms are as given below:

- i) Performance related norms: Setting targets such as number of units produced per day, number of calls attended etc will be performance related norms
- ii) Non-performance related norms: Formal dress code, visiting office during weekends, accepting transfers to distant locations etc, will be non performance related norms.
- iii) Informal Social Arrangements: These norms come from informal work group and primarily regulate social interactions within the group. These norms influence friendships on and off the job, whom group members eat lunch with, and social activities.
- iv) Allocation of Resources. This is related to fixing pay, assignment of difficult jobs, and allocation of new tools and equipments etc.
- v) Norm Conformity: An important issue facing all the managers of group is the degree to which employees conform to group norms. There are certain factors which strongly influence members to conform to group norms. They are as follows:
 - i) **Personal factors:** It is reported that more intelligent individuals are less likely to conform than are less intelligent individuals and that the more authoritarian an individual is, the less likely that he or she will conform to group norms.
 - ii) **Situational factors:** The size, structure of the group, social contexts etc strongly influence the norm conformity. As the size of the group increase beyond certain limit say more than 10-12, the conformity to norm is likely to decrease.
 - iii) **Stimulus Factors:** The more ambiguous the stimulus, the greater will be the conformity to the group norms. The uncertainty will force the members to work together to minimize its level and attain clarity in the work roles.
 - iv) **Intra-group relationship:** The types of intra-group relationships such as the kind and extent of group pressure exerted, the rate of success achieved in reaching group goals, the degree of identification with group goals etc. strongly influence members to conform to the group norms.

Norms are thus learnt by members through observation, and through reinforcement (being rewarded when one conforms to valued norms and punished when one violates valued norms), if an individual consistently transgresses the norms, ignoring the signals sent out by members, the worst punishment will follow. He or she will sooner be totally ignored and devalued as a member of the group, thus losing status in the group.

Establishing Norms

Norms are developed based on the following four ways:

- i) Explicit statements made by a group member: Ensuring that no personal telephone calls will be entertained during the office hours and getting acceptance from all the employees will help to create an order
- ii) Critical events in the group's history: The accident occurred to a visitor of factory premises due to his negligence will help to enforce certain guidelines and becomes norms to every one.

- iii) Primacy: The initial behavior pattern exhibited by the group will become a norm and difficult to change.
- iv) Carry-over behavior from the past situations: New members expectations, experiences will help reformulate or revise certain norms to meet the current requirements.

The advantages of group- norms:

Enforcing group norms will help the organization in so many ways. Some of the advantages are

- i) It facilitates the group's survival
- ii) It increases the predictability of group member's behavior
- iii) It reduces embarrassing interpersonal problems for group member
- iv) It allows members to express the central values of the group and clarify what is distinctive about the group's identity.

Groups attempt to perform at a level equal to their established performance norms. The degree of socializations will affect not only the level of performance of individual group members, but whether the individual will remain as a group member.

STATUS:

Status is defined as a social ranking within a group and is assigned to an individual on the basis of position in the group or individual characteristics. Status can be a function of the title of individual, wage or salary level, work schedule mobility to interaction with others with or outside the group, or seniority. Status also refers to the importance and reference that people give to others. People at higher levels of the organizations and those who have accomplished much are ascribed or bestowed higher status. People perceive those high status persons as having more control, being more competent and as having more influence over group decision than low status individuals. Members having charisma, a high level of experts and access to the organization's resources will be accorded higher status than those who do not have them. Demographic factors such as gender, age, educational level and length of service in the organization will have an effect on the status enjoyed by the member of a group. Group characterized by high status congruence tend to perform better than the groups in which there is status incongruence,

Formal and Informal Status:

Formal Status: The hierarchical position, job title, perks assigned to these positions is formally assigned to the job holders. By virtue of holding such position, a person is viewed as high.

Informal Status: Status may be informally acquired by such characteristics as education, age, gender, skill or experience.

Status Equity: Maintaining status hierarchy in equitable manner is essential to keep the moral of the employees. When inequity is perceived, it creates disequilibrium that results in various types of corrective behavior. This is noticed in such occasions – promotions, overseas job assignments etc.

Status and Culture: Different cultures assign different weightings to the status. French people are highly status conscious than Latin Americans. Status for Latin Americans and Asians tends to be derived from family position and formal roles held in organizations.

SIZE:

The size of the group is an important determinant of overall effectiveness of the group. But it is depending upon the objective of the group. If the group is interested to generate creative solutions, the larger the size of the group will be more ideal. If the group is interested to get more cohesiveness and try to get quick output, the smaller the size will be more ideal. Groups of approximately seven members tend to be more effective for taking quick action. The size of the group is linked with social loafing.

Social Loafing: It is the tendency of group members to do less than they are capable of individually, resulting in an inverse relationship between group size and individual performance. The more the number of employees assigned to do a task, the lesser will be the amount of their effort than they normally tend to carry out in performing their tasks individually. For instance, in group rope pulling task, it is expected that the groups' effort would be equal to the sum of the efforts of individuals with in the group. That is, three people pulling together should exert three times as much pull on the rope as one person. The result, on the contrary, showed that three members in a group exerted only two times the average individual performance, lesser than the individual level effort. The primary reason is the diffusion of responsibility as the results of group cannot be attributed to any single person.

COMPOSITION AND DIVERSITY:

Group composition refers to the degree to which members of a group share a common demographic attribute such as age, gender, race, educational or length of service in the organization and the effect of this attribute on performance, satisfaction and turnover. The composition of a group may be an important predictor of productivity, satisfaction, and turnover. Group composition will be based on homogenous or heterogeneous characteristics of the members.

Homogenous Groups:

In homogeneous groups the compatibility with respect to needs, motives and personalities has been found to be conducive to group's effectiveness because it facilitates group cooperation and communication. Although the homogeneity tends to reduce the potential for conflict, it also can create an overabundance of conformity, resulting in unproductive group activity. Groups composed of individuals with similar and compatible characteristics may be expected to behave in similar ways and will perform more effectively on tasks that are routine and less effectively on tasks that are complex and require a diversity of problem solving approaches.

Heterogeneous Groups:

In heterogeneous groups, the variation in individual characteristics help to produce high performance levels and a high quality of problem solving because members stimulate the intellectual abilities of one another. The heterogeneity of individual characteristics in such groups can create situations in which the potential for conflict is great. Heterogeneous groups can be expected to perform more effectively on tasks that are complex and require creative or innovative approaches to the problem, but less effectively on tasks that are routine and require a high level of individual conformity and coordination. For example, a group of research scientists are attempting to develop a new product of petrochemical. The nature and complexity of the task requires a diversity of talents, knowledge, and creative approaches which is provided more effectively by a heterogeneously composed group.

Homogeneous groups perform well on tasks that are uniform and routine. Homogeneity, while reducing the potential for dysfunctional conflict to arise, may be detrimental to performance if there is an overemphasis on conformity. Heterogeneous groups perform well on tasks that are complex and non-routine and that require a diversity of talents and view points. However, heterogeneity can create conflict.

16.4 GROUP PROCESS**SYNERGY**

Synergy refers to the cumulative effect of two or more substances which is different from the individual summation of those substances. It connotes the creation of a whole which is greater than the sum of the individual parts. For example, synergy is obtained when $2 + 2$ is not merely 4, but can be made to add up to more than 4. For example, three engineers are given the tasks of solving a problem. The ideas generated jointly by these three engineers will be richer and more creative than if the three engineers individually generated their own ideas without any interaction among them. The ideas generated jointly will be better than the individually generated ideas because the three now jointly and creatively explore several different alternatives, discuss the pros and cons and develop integrated thoughts which are more innovative, thus arriving at a much more powerful solutions than what they would have been able to achieve individually. The group has developed synergy by merely interacting with each other using their combined wisdom to generate integrated solutions. This is positive synergy.

Social loafing represents a negative synergy where the whole is less than the sum of the parts where individuals are likely to reduce their effort due to diffusion of responsibility.

Social Facilitation Effect: The mere presence of others also affects the performance of individual. It reported that the presence of others tend to improve performance when the tasks are relatively simple and well rehearsed. This Positive effect is termed as Social Facilitation Effect.

Social inhibition effect: This leads to a detrimental effect which occurs when an individual is asked to perform a complex task with which he is unfamiliar or in which he is unskilled to do any work.

GROUP COHESION:

Cohesion refers to the extent of unity in the group and is reflected in the members' conformity to the norms of the group, feelings of attraction for each other, and wanting to be co-members of the group. Attraction, cohesion and conforming to norms are all intertwined. The more the members feel attracted to the group, the greater will be the group cohesion. The greater the cohesion, the greater the influence of group members to persuade one another to conform to the group norms. The greater the conformity, the greater the identification of the members with the group, and the greater the group cohesion. Cohesive groups work together to achieve the group goals. They can be considered as valuable assets to the organization if the group's goals coincide with the organization's goals.

Factors increasing Cohesiveness: The following factors can facilitate to increase the cohesiveness of the work group.

- i) **Agreement on Group Goals:** If the group agrees on the purpose and direction of its activities, this will serve to bind the group together and structure interaction patterns towards successful goal accomplishment
- ii) **Frequency of Interaction:** When group member have the opportunity to interact frequently with each other, the probability for closeness to develop will increase. Managers can provide opportunities for increased group interaction by calling frequent formal and informal meetings, providing a common meetings place or physically designing the facilities so that group members are within sight of one another
- iii) **Personal Attractiveness:** Cohesiveness is enhanced when members are attractive to one another if mutual trust and support already exists. Personal attraction also helps group members to overcome obstacles to goal accomplishment and personal growth and development.
- iv) **Inter-group Competition:** Competition with other groups, both written and external to the organization is a mechanism that acts to bring groups closer together for attaining a common purpose.
- v) **Favorable Evaluation:** If a group has performed in an outstanding manner, some recognition for its performance by management serves to elevate the prestige of the group in the eyes of the group members and other members of the group. Favorable evaluation helps make group members feel proud about being members of the group.

- vi) **Group Size:** As the size of the group increases, the frequency of interaction each member has with other group members decreases, thus decreasing the probability that cohesiveness will develop. Past studies have shown the groups of four to six members provide the best opportunity for interaction.
- vii) **Pleasant experiences with the group:** When group members are attracted to each other or there is a full trust and cooperation, interaction may become a pleasant experience resulting in high level of cohesiveness in the group.
- viii) **Lack of Domination:** When one or few members dominate the group, cohesiveness cannot adequately develop. Such behavior can create smaller “cliques” within the group or identify individual members as isolates or deviates.
- ix) **Gender of Members:** It is reported that women tend to have greater cohesion than men. A possible reason is that women are more likely to be feeling types than thinking types.
- x) **Previous Success:** If a group has a history of success, it builds an esprit de corps that attracts and unites members. Successful organizations find it easier to attract and hire new employees than unsuccessful ones.
- xi) **Humor:** Humor has been linked to increased cohesion in several studies.

It is reported that the greater the cohesion, the greater the influence of the group over the behavior of members and subsequently group performance. As groups are composed of individuals who are attracted to the goals of the group and to each other, one would expect to find a strong relationship between cohesiveness and group performance.

The major difference between highly cohesive and low cohesive groups would be how closely members conformed to the group norms. Further, the group performance would be influenced not only by cohesion, but by the level of group norms.

16.5 Group Decision Making

Groups offer excellent techniques for performing many of the steps in the decision-making process. They are a source of both breadth and depth of input for information gathering. If the group is composed of individuals with diverse backgrounds, the alternatives generated should be more extensive and the analysis will be more critical.

Strengths of Group Decision-making:

The following aspects identified the main advantages that groups offer over individuals in the making of decisions.

- i) **More information and knowledge:** By aggregating the resources of several individuals, the group brings more input into the decision process.

- ii) Increased diversity of views: Group brings heterogeneity to the decision-making process and this opens up the opportunity for more approaches and alternatives to be considered
- iii) Increased acceptance of a solution: The group acceptance facilitates higher satisfaction among those employees required to implement it.
- iv) Increased legitimacy: The group decision making process is consistent with demographic ideals and therefore may be perceived as being more legitimate than decisions made by an individual.

Weakness of group decision making:

Some of the main disadvantages are:

- i) Time-consuming: It takes time to assemble a group.
- ii) Pressures to conform: The desire by group members to be accepted and considered as an asset to the group can result in squashing any overt disagreement, thus encouraging conformity among viewpoints.
- iii) Domination by the few: Few people will try to dominate the group discussion. If such people are happened to be mediocre, the group overall effectiveness will suffer.
- iv) Ambiguous responsibility: In group decision, the responsibility of any single member is reduced.

16.6 Group Think and Group Shift

Group Think

Groupthink refers to a situation where group pressure for conformity deters a group from critically evaluating unusual, unpopular or minority views. It is phenomenon that occurs when group members become so enamored of seeking concurrence that the norm for consensus overrides the realistic evaluation of alternative course of action and the full expression of deviant, minority or unpopular views. It describes deterioration in an individual's mental efficiency, reality testing and moral judgment, as a result of group pressures.

The results of groupthink are often such that poor quality decisions are taken and inappropriate responses are made to situational needs. The following are the antecedents of Groupthink:

- i) Excessive group cohesiveness
- ii) Insulation of group from external information and influence
- iii) Lack of impartial leadership and of norms encouraging proper procedures
- iv) Ideological homogeneity of members
- v) High stress from external threat and task complexity

These antecedents are relating to basic structural faults in the group and to the immediate decision making contexts.

The following are some of the symptoms of groupthink:

- i) Feelings of invulnerability and unanimity
- ii) Unquestioning belief that the group must be right
- iii) Tendency to ignore or discredit information contrary to group's position
- iv) Direct pressure exerted on dissidents to bring them into line

- v) Stereotyping of out-group members
- vi) Ignore external information
- vii) Overestimate its own abilities and capabilities to make good decision
- viii) Rationalize or reject data that tend to disconfirm its original views and judgments
- ix) Apply direct pressures on those who momentarily express doubts about any of the group's shared views
- x) Those who have doubts or different view point keep silent about misgivings and even minimizing to themselves the importance of their doubts.

In a group where the groupthink phenomenon operates, members constantly monitor and censor themselves to ensure that they are going along with the group's opinion and not deviating by expressing a different viewpoint. Too much cohesion has the built-in danger of group member falling into the trap of groupthink, which in turn, compromises good decision-making, especially in complex situations.

Group Shift

It is reported that group is willing to take greater risks than when the same members make decision individually. In case more financial commitment is involved, individuals tend to be very cautious and make conservative decisions. However, when the same kinds of decisions are made by groups, the decisions made are less conservative. Groups feel more at ease and comfort in making riskier decisions. Higher risk taking behaviors in a group are probably a function of the responsibilities for the consequences of the decision making shared by all the group members rather than one individual assuming more burdens by himself. This phenomenon for groups to take greater risks while making critical decisions when compared to individual decision making is known as the Groupshift.

The most plausible explanation of the shift towards risk seems to be that the group diffuses responsibility. Group decisions free any singly member from accountability for the group's final choice. Greater risk can be taken because, even if the decision fails, no one member can be held wholly responsible. .

16.7 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have discussed about the attributes of group members, structural components of group and group decision making.

16.8 Lesson-end Activities

1. Explain the role of personality characteristics and member attributes in enhancing the group cohesiveness.
2. What are the key structural components of the group? Design an affective work group for an R&D organization which is assigned to develop a new product.
Explain the group dynamics and emphasize the various methods of eliciting synergy in getting group output.
4. What are the symptoms of groupthink and group shift and the ways in which such symptoms can be overcome?

16.9 References

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LESSON -17

INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

Contents

- 17.0 Aims and Objectives
- 17.1 Introduction
- 17.2 Factors affecting inter-group relations
- 17.3 Methods for managing inter-group relations
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17.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

17.1 INTRODUCTION:

Understanding inter-group relations is important for two reasons: i) it is through the interaction and performance of various groups that the goals and objectives of the organizations can be accomplished. It is therefore important for managers to develop an understanding of the major influence on inter-group behavior and to improve their skills in diagnosing and evaluating inter-group process. Second, the discussion of inter-group behavior will serve as a foundation for our discussion of the larger structure or design of the total organization.

17.2 FACTORS AFFECTING INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

Interdependence:

Pooled Interdependence:

When two or more groups are combining their inputs together to form an organizational goal, it is following pooled interdependence. All other things are being equal, coordination requirements between or among groups linked by pooled interdependence are less than with sequential or reciprocal interdependence. For example, the resources of various departments in hospital such as blood bank, anesthesia, nursing, pharmacist, house keeping, surgical section etc are utilized to treat a patient and making them recovered from illness. Similarly in new product development, the manufacturing of new model is being interdependent in a pooled manner with research, development, engineering, and marketing functions during the applied research stage.

Sequential Interdependence:

When one group's output is used by another group as input, it is called as sequential interdependence. For example, in assembly line the output of one department is input for another department. Similarly, in product development, there are a number of sequential interdependence between research and development and engineering departments. The

initial laboratory work in the research laboratory is transferred to the larger scale development engineering pilot plant for further testing and developments. The inputs for the development engineering work are the output of the research function. With sequential interdependence, there is an element of potential uncertainty exist. The input element is dependent on the output element for accurate and timely data and information. Readjustment must be made when an output element performs improperly or fails to meet the expectation of the input element. If the research function does not interact frequently with the development function or if data is inaccurately transferred or delayed, the performance of the development engineering function will be hampered. Good planning and communication between the concerned departments are necessary to coordinate their tasks.

Reciprocal Interdependence:

Where groups exchange inputs and outputs in order to complete their business activity, it is following reciprocal interdependence. For example, the manufacturing and maintenance departments of a plant are mutually interdependent. The manufacturing department cannot function unless the machines are properly serviced by the maintenance department. The maintenance department will not be able to prioritize its servicing activities unless the production department indicates which of the machines gives them the most trouble and provide a schedule of times when it will be most useful for the production department to remain idle and let the maintenance crew walk in to do the repair jobs. Constant dialogue, mutual adjustment and cooperative behavior are necessary for the two groups to function effectively and achieve the overall goals of the organization.

For inter-group performance, it is important for managers to understand that as one progress from pooled to reciprocal, the three types of interdependence require greater interaction, and it also becomes increasingly difficult to coordinate toward task accomplishment. That is, when advancing from pooled interdependence to sequential interdependence, and finally to reciprocal interdependence, there must be an increased awareness by everyone involved that the activities of the one group are dependent on the action and behavior of the other groups. Inter-group performance is a direct result of how this interdependence is successfully controlled and coordinated.

Task Uncertainty:

The nature of task is varying from highly certain to highly uncertain. In those jobs where the level of uncertainty exists at high level, it requires more processing information. Tasks with low uncertainty tend to be standardized. Further, groups that do such tasks do not have to interact much with other groups. In contrast, groups that undertake tasks those are high in uncertainty face problems that require customized responses. This leads to a need for more and better information. For example, in marketing research professionals are required to interact much more actively with other departments such as marketing, sales, product design, advertising etc than would people in manufacturing department.

The degree of task uncertainty varies with two factors such as i) task clarity and ii) the task environment.

Task clarity:

It is the degree to which the requirements and responsibilities in the group are clearly stated and understood. Generally task clarity refers to the extent that rules, procedures and policies are used by groups to direct the every day activities of members. In manufacturing a standardized product in assembly line, the task clarity such as quality, quantity, equipment maintenance etc are very much required to meet the goals. In research and development department, a high degree of creativity and innovation are required in day to day operations. Rules and procedures are generally not available, but usually developed as the development progress. One can see the variation of task clarity in these two extremes of job situations.

Task Environment:

These are the factors which, either internal or external, are relevant or significantly affect the level of the performance of a group. For example, the manufacturing department is relying too much on maintenance, quality control, purchase, finance departments to meet its goals. They also interact with elements external to the parent organization such as raw material suppliers, transportation, and marketing, legal professionals' etc. Task uncertainty also varies with two factors such as i) the number of different elements, units, or groups and ii) the stable-dynamic nature of the environment.

Time and Goal Orientation:

Two particular work orientations can influence inter-group performance: i) time orientation, and ii) goal orientation.

Time Orientation:

It is the time span required to obtain information or results relating to the performance of a task. For example, in our product development illustration, manufacturing and marketing managers deal with situations or problems that provide rapid feedback about results. The manufacturing manager is concerned with hourly quality control and productivity data, whereas the marketing manager may focus his attention on weekly or bimonthly reports of sales volume. The research scientist tends to have longer-range project which may likely to get results only after a year or two.

Goal Orientation:

It focuses on the particular set of task objectives or goals that are of major concern to individuals in organization. To be effective, managers should focus their attention clearly on goals and objectives that are directly related to their work. Production managers focus on such goals such as raw material costs, processing and storage costs, quality of finished products, where as the marketing manager tend to concentrate on increasing sales volume and revenue, market share and penetration and customer satisfaction. The research scientist's goals involve developing new product, or translating knowledge into potential market applications.

The different goal orientation provides a basis for establishing criteria for evaluating the performance of the particular group or unit. It is expected that the primary criteria of performance for production department would focus on quality, quantity and costs considerations (techno-economic), sales volume and market share are prime issues for marketing department (market), and the number of new products and contribution to scientific knowledge for research and development (science)

Inter-group Performance:

The major elements of interdependence, task uncertainty and time and goal orientation establish three requirements that influence the quality of inter-group performance.

- i) **The type of interdependence:** The type of interdependence between units or groups influences the nature of the interaction requirements. Interaction requirements refer not only to the frequency and quality of interaction required for task accomplishment, but also to the number of levels or individuals in each group that are required to interact with counterparts in others groups. Interaction requires increase as interdependence moves from pooled to sequential to reciprocal interdependence.
- ii) **The degree of task uncertainty:** The degree of task uncertainty inherent in one or more of the interacting groups influences the degree of information flow requirements that are necessary for task accomplishment. Information flow requirements are the amount of information that must be processed between interacting groups. For example, in R & D work, the high level of uncertainty expect to have a great amount of information to flow between these units during the pilot plant or product refinement stage of development.
- iii) **Time and goal orientation:** Time and goal orientation introduces the concepts of differentiation and integration. Differentiation is the degree to which organizational units differ from one another in time (short term to long term) and goal orientation (techno-economic, market or science). On the other hand, integration deals with the degree of collaboration, cooperation, and mutual trust and understanding required and achieved between the various interacting organizations groups. In the early stages of the group development process, there is a high degree of differentiation between the research units and the marketing unit because of differences in time orientation (long term verses short tern) and goal orientation (science versus market)

17.3 METHODS FOR MANAGING INTER-GROUP RELATIONS

Rules and Procedures:

The most basic or simplistic method for managing inter-group performance is to specify in advance, through rules and procedures, the required activities and behavior of group

members. Interacting employees learn that when certain situations arise there is a particular set of actions that should be used.

The principle benefit of rules and procedures is that they eliminate the need for extensive interaction and information flow between groups or units. Rules and procedures also provide a means of stability to the organization. Employees may come and go, but the procedures remain for future interaction.

Rules and procedures are limited methods for managing inter-group performance. They are most applicable when inter-group activities can be anticipated in advance and when the responses or required behaviors can be developed. Where there is a high degree of task uncertainty and therefore increased information flow requirements, rules and procedures may prove to be inadequate as in inter-group management strategy.

Hierarchy:

When the use of rules and procedures prove inadequate for effective inter-group performance, the use of hierarchy or common supervisor becomes the primary inter-group managerial strategy. The basic assumption for using the hierarchy or common supervisor as an inter-group managerial strategy is that higher level of managers has the power and authority to make these decisions. Whenever interaction, information flow, and integration requirements increase, the manager's time may be totally taken up for resolving these exceptions or problems of inter-group relations. Less time can be devoted to more pressing issues, such as planning the construction of a new plant.

Planning:

As the problems between interacting units or groups develop beyond the control of rules, procedures or hierarchy, organizations increasingly use planning activities to improve inter-group performance. Planning activities involve setting goals or targets that can lead to task accomplishments.

The task of constructing a building can be effectively accomplished through the use of plans because the complexities can be controlled and the majority of the future interaction can be programmed. On the other hand, the inter-group processes involved in developing a new product from the laboratory to full-scale market introduction cannot be totally planned. The planning process involves a high level of interaction because of the many varied groups that are involved and because such events as scientific knowledge generation and the pattern of consumer reaction cannot be fully spelled out in advance. Certain inter-group relations are well adapted to the use of plans; other inter-group activities can use plans to manage only selected interactions between units or groups. These inter-group activities must develop and use other strategies to manage their interactions.

Liaison or Internal Boundary Spanning Roles:

When the number of interactions and volume of information between two or more units or groups grow, it may become necessary to establish a specialized role to handle these requirements. Such a role has been variously termed a liaison, or more formally, an internal boundary spanner.

Individuals who operate in this role provide lateral communications and facilitate interaction between the two functions in a number of areas. One important area is the coordination of activity directed toward ascertaining the potential of a new product developed by the applied research unit. The effective interaction provided by the liaison role may enable the group to progress to the development stage more quickly or may force the applied research scientists to revise their work in light of a negative evaluation from the market research unit. In such cases, decision related to the new product may be made earlier than if a liaison role had not been established.

These liaison or boundary spanning roles in organizations serve a number of purposes.

- i) they can facilitate the flow of information between two or more interacting units. The normal flow of information between units usually is based on formal, time consuming mechanisms, such as memos and formal meetings. The liaison role provides a more informal mechanism that can reduce the time necessary for accurate information flow.
- ii) Due to frequent interactions, the liaison person is generally well acquainted with the nature of the work of each of the interacting groups. This knowledge can provide such benefits such as (a) ability to assist in the coordination of various complex activities; (b) ability to provide the interacting units with a better understanding of each other's functions and responsibilities; and (c)

providing a continuous way of keeping each interacting unit aware of the current progress of inter-group relationships and day-to-day decision making.

Task Forces:

When the complexities of interaction increases, such as when the number of interacting units grows in size beyond two or three groups, the coordinating or decision-making capacity of the liaison role becomes overloaded. One mechanism to overcome these problems is to establish a 'temporary' task force consisting of one or more representatives from each of the interacting units. Task forces exist only so long as the problem of interacting units remains. When a solutions is reached, each member returns to his or normal duties. Selected members of the interacting groups are brought together to form a task force. Task forces generally coordinate inter-group activities for a specific period of time, thus they are temporary in nature. They are also limited to an advisory role, leaving the final decision making to higher level managers.

In order to resolve typical problems of developing a new product, the task force can be constituted by nominating member from manufacturing, shipping sales, research and development. The task force is charged with identifying the source of the quality problem, developing and selecting alternatives solutions, and implementing whatever solutions is chosen. When the problem has been remedied, the task force disbanded and each member returns to his or her respective groups.

Teams:

Similar to task forces, teams are a collection of individual member used to manage inter-group activities where there are more than two or three interacting units. The distinguishing aspects of the team concept are that the problem to be solved usually is long term in nature, requiring a relatively permanent formal assignment to the team. Team members maintain a dual responsibility, one to their primary functional unit and the second to the team. When the team has accomplished its task, each member returns full-time to the functional assignment.

Integrating Departments:

As the degree of interaction, information flow, and integration requirements increase, the frequency and magnitude of inter-group relations may grow beyond the capacity of plans, task forces or teams. In response to this situation, organizations may seek more permanent, formal and authority based mechanisms that represent the general manager's perspective. Such mechanisms are known as integrating departments.

In its basic form, an integrating department consists of a single person who carries a title such as product manager, project manager, branch manager or group manager. These managers rarely supervise any of the actual work required in inter-group interactions. They are held responsible for the effective integration of inter-group activities. Their

decision-making authority is acquired through direct reporting relationships to a higher management position.

This authority can be increased in two ways: i) the department head may be given a number of subordinates or staff specialists who report directly to his or her. Collectively, they form a true integrating department. ii) the second way to increase the authority of the integrating department is to give it a major influence in decision making for the inter-group activities. This can be done by including the integrating department in any decision made by functional unit or by giving it a major voice in the budgetary process.

These provide the most formal strategies for managing inter-group performance. The department manager generally reports to the highest management level and may be given great decision-making authority, consisting of a large staff and budgetary responsibility.

Superordinate Goals:

Common goals that transcend the immediate goals pursued by individual groups can be termed as a superordinate goal. That is, two or more groups work towards common ends which cannot be achieved by the individual efforts of each of the groups alone. At times of crises situations, the two conflicting departments can set aside their differences and may extend full cooperation to each other to accomplish a common goal. This superordinate or a higher order common goal articulated by the Managing Director of that company will force the two departments to put aside their individual differences and jointly develop common strategies to achieve the common goals of the company. Reward systems can be developed to motivate the interdependent groups to work together to achieve superordinate goals. Profit sharing, gain sharing and other types of incentives offered to the groups help them to focus their energies in achieving superordinate goals.

17.4 Let us Sum Up

In this unit, we have learnt about the factors affecting inter-group relations and the methods for managing inter-group relations.

17.5 Lesson-end Activities

1. Describe the three types of interdependence in work related activities and outline its advantages and disadvantages.
2. What are the various methods in which inter-group relations can be managed?
3. Explain the boundary spanning activities in managing external environment and coordinating the link between organization and environment.
4. Differentiate task force and teams in managing the inter-group relations activities. Outline the contexts in which these two techniques are employed.
5. What does it mean by Superordinate Goal? How does it help to coordinate inter-group relations with suitable examples?

LESSON – 18

TYPES OF TEAMS

Contents

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18.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

18.1 INTRODUCTION

Both intra-group and inter-group effectiveness can be increased through teambuilding, a technique which uses a series of steps to bring the group members together, make them share their perception of each other and understand each other's point of view. These efforts help members to resolve their problems and work together in a cooperative and collaborative mode. Teams require individuals with technical expertise, as well as problem-solving, decision-making and interpersonal skills and high scores on the personality characteristics of extroversion, agreeableness, conscientious and emotional stability. Effective teams are neither too large nor too small- typically they range in size from five to twelve people. They also have adequate resources, effective leadership and a performance evaluation and reward system that reflect team contribution. Effective teams have members committed to a common purpose, specific team goals, member who believe in the team's capabilities, a manageable level of conflicts and a minimal degree

of social loafing. Team building process and its interventions strategies are discussed in this section.

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TEAMS

18.2 TYPES OF TEAMS

There are four common types of teams:

i) **Problem-solving Teams:**

The primary goals of these teams are improving quality, efficiency and the work environment. The members share ideas or offer suggestions about how work process and methods can be improved. Quality circles are one of the problem solving teams where the work group members meet regularly to discuss and solve problems. The team members use tools and techniques to examine these problems and to present to management solutions and the costs and benefits of solving a problem.

ii) **Self-managed Teams:**

This refers to a team of employees who perform highly related or inter-dependent jobs and to take on many of the responsibilities of their former supervisors. Typically this includes planning and scheduling of work, assigning tasks to members, collective control over the pace of work, making operating decisions and taking action on problems. Self-managed teams meet their own goals and measure their own performance once top management sets the overall objectives. Fully self managed work teams even select their own members and have the members evaluate each others performance.

iii) **Cross-functional Teams:**

This refers to a type of teams where employees from about the same hierarchical level, but from different work areas, who come together to accomplish a task. Examples of Cross functional include task force to resolve emergency cases, committee composed of members from across departmental lines etc.

iv) **Virtual Teams:**

Teams that use computer technology to tie together physically dispersed member in order to achieve a common goals. They allow people to collaborate on-line using communication links such as wide are networks, video conferencing or e-mail. The three primary factors that differentiate virtual teams from face to face teams are: i) the absence of Para verbal and non-verbal cues, ii) limited social context and iii) the ability to overcome time and space constraints. In virtual teams the members will never have an opportunity to have an access of Para language and non-verbal communication. And also suffer social support and less direct interaction among members.

Difference between work group and work teams:

Work group: A group that interacts primarily to share information to make decision to help each group member perform within his or her area of responsibility. Work groups have no need or opportunity to engage in collective work that requires joint effort.

Work team: A group whose individual effort results in a performance that is greater than the sum of the individual inputs. A team gets a greater degree of individual commitment

towards the common shared goal. The efforts of the team members result in more synergy and may achieve a better total performance.

18.3 TEAM ROLES:

There are three categories of team roles. They are i) Unhelpful individual blocker roles, ii) Group building and maintenance roles, iii) Group task roles.

Unhelpful individual blocker roles

Benne and Sheets identified a number of ways in which individuals will try to disturb the effective functioning of a group. They are:

- i) **Dominator:** Team members try to take over a meeting to assert authority, to exercise undue influence over group decisions or to manipulate the group. The leader gives direction authoritatively and interrupting the contributions of others and asserting superior status.
- ii) **Blocker or Topic Jumper:** Members or leaders stubbornly disagreeing or rejecting other's views and raising petty criticisms or points of order. The members attempt to maintain or bring back an issue after the group has rejected or by-passed it.
- iii) **Aggressor:** This refers to criticizing other members personally, disagreeing aggressively with reasonable arguments put forward by others, ready for a fight, or forming anti-authority cliques. The members deflate the status of others and express disapproval of the values, acts or feelings of others.
- iv) **Recognition Seeker:** Team members try to show their own importance by boasting or excessive talking, being unduly conscious of status, being the 'devil's advocate' who is in effect more devil than advocate. The members report their own personal achievement and acting in unusual ways to show the superiority.
- v) **Special Interest Pleader:** The members show some bias towards some special group such as grassroots community, sales department etc and speak for their cause. They usually show their own prejudices or biases in the stereotype which best fits his individual need.
- vi) **Self-Confessor:** The members take undue advantage in expressing their personal, non-group oriented ideas, feelings and insights etc. in the group meetings. They try to draw attention to their own concerns, talking irrelevantly about their own feelings and problems.
- vii) **Playboy:** The members waste the group's time in showing off, telling funny stories, making a fun of the situations etc. The members exhibit cynicism, nonchalance, horseplay and other less stupid forms out of school behavior.

- viii) **Withdrawing:** Members may be present physically, but not in mind by indulging some activities such as reading papers without looking up, refusing to participate in discussions, passively taking self-appointed notes or carrying on private conversations within the group.
- ix) **Help-seeker:** This type of member's attempts to call for sympathy response from other members or whole group, through expressions of insecurity, personal confusion or depreciation of himself beyond reason.

Group building and maintenance roles

Benne and Sheats highlighted the kinds of behavior necessary for group maintenance and for ensuring effective working as team. These activities can be carried out by the team leader or by any member of the team to facilitate to have an effective team building.

- i) **Encourager:** The team members agrees with and accept the contribution of others by expressing warmth, solidarity in their attitude towards other group members, by understanding and accepting other points of view, ideas and suggestions.
- ii) **Harmonizer:** The team member ensures effective relationships among members and mediates the differences between other members. Also, he/she attempts to reconcile disagreements over the critical issues and relieves tension in conflicting situations through humor or entertainment.
- iii) **Compromiser:** The Team leader admits the shortcomings or limitations of himself/herself and offer compromise by yielding status. Also, he/she disciplines himself/herself to maintain group harmony or by coming halfway in moving along with the group.
- iv) **Gatekeeper-expeditor:** The team leader keeps the communication channel open by encouraging or facilitating the participation of others regularly. The leader monitors both the incoming and outgoing flow of information with and ensures that the information is not exceeding the limits.
- v) **Standard Setter:** The leader fixes certain limits as standard or bench marking and effectively applies those standards in evaluating the quality of group process.
- vi) **Group Observer:** The leader keeps in touch with the regular progress of the group and keeps a record on their achievements, difficulties, shortcomings etc. The feeding of such a data will be of much help in assessing the overall growth of the group activities.

- vii) **Follower:** Sometimes, the leaders move along with the group by accepting the views of others and serving as audience in-group discussion. The primary reason is to ensure that the group must achieve its goals.

Group task roles

These group task roles are related to some of the activities relating to achieving the goals of the team, facilitating and coordinating the group problem solving activities. There are twelve categories of group task roles.

- i) **Initiator-contributor:** Team leader takes initiative in giving new ideas or new definition of problem to group members. He/she proposes new procedures, ways of handling some difficulty or forms of organization.
- ii) **Information Seeker:** Team leader solicits more information from the group members to ensure the accuracy of factual information, and those relevant to the problem and also seeks clarification on some critical issues.
- iii) **Opinion Seeker:** Team leader is seeking some critical suggestions and clarification from all the members or outside group's members relating to the group task.
- iv) **Information Giver:** Using his/her experiences in the related field, the leader offers some additional facts and makes worthwhile generalizations, which are more or less correct in those situations.
- v) **Opinion Giver:** The leader expresses his/her belief or opinion very openly to a suggestion given at the meeting and gives some alternative solutions to the problems.
- vi) **Elaborator:** Team leader highlights some specific examples or illustrations for relevant points and offers reasons for suggestions and tries to deduce consequences of following them.
- vii) **Co-ordinator:** The leader attempts to get information from various sources and co-ordinates the activities of those people. Further, clarifies the relationships among various ideas and tries to pull them together to achieve the group results.
- viii) **Orienter:** Team leader delineates the position of the group with respect to its goals and summarizes the past achievements, the present tasks and future goals. The leader often raises some critical questions upon the direction in which the group is taking.
- ix) **Evaluator-Critic:** Team leader sets the standards and critically evaluates the performance of the group against those standards or norms.

- x) **Energizer:** Team leader takes initiative in stimulating or energizing the members to achieve the results in time and arouse the group to 'greater' or high 'quality' activity.
- xi) **Procedural Technician:** Team leader performs the roles as providing necessary information and materials to execute the day-to-day functions such as providing stationary, raw material to the members etc. and perform the routine tasks to achieve the set goals.
- xii) **Recorder:** Team leader prepares a detailed record of group decision and writes down the suggestions given by all the members and acts as group memory.

18.4 TEAM BUILDING PROCESS AND EFFECTIVENESS

Once all the members know the roles as well as the responsibilities, the leader can maintain the psychological balance of the team by ensuring the additional skills or competencies required by some members and enriching them accordingly so that every one of the members possess the required skills to achieve the results. The leader must follow the nine steps to improve the way a team or work group functions and to get the required results from them. The members must be consulted and involved in all the nine stages

- i) **Goals:** Team leader must identify the team's goals and ensures that every one of the members share the vision of the team's goals. These goals must be stated in simple terms that are achievable to all the members. The goals must be realistic and agreed by the team.
- ii) **Strategies:** Identification of the suitable strategies relevant to those stated goals is a very important task of the leader. Different goals require different strategies and approaches. The leader must display flexibility in exhibiting different alternatives depending upon the difficulty levels of goals. Sometimes a new approach can produce a sudden leap forward growth within a short span of time. For example, a change of slightly altered specification of a particular product may cater to a new market segment in the future.
- iii) **Competencies:** Team leader must audit the competency level of the members to pursue those strategies. The leader must ensure whether the people have the basic knowledge and skills to undertake those specific tasks and what they want to know to do those assigned tasks. The competency audit can be done on the following aspects:
 - a. **Technical Knowledge:** Proper assessment on the specific types of knowledge or specialized skills needed for the members.
 - b. **Interpersonal Skills:** Proper assessment on the specific types of skills needed for dealing with people such as customers, suppliers, colleagues, subordinates

and some specific interpersonal skills such as listening skills, communicating skills, conflict management skills, decision-making skills etc.

- c. **Process Skills:** These processes are very much essential to organize the work, project planning, chairing the meetings etc. Some of the process skills, which are required to do the routine activities, are as follows: time management skills, presentation skills and negotiation skills etc.
 - d. **Project-Specific Skills:** These are some unusual skills, which are very much required to fulfill the specific assignment such as ability to read a foreign language or to use a particular software package.
 - e. **Team Roles:** The team members are required to play different roles to discharge the required duties and responsibilities. The successful team will need people to play the nine key roles.
 - f. **Team Functions:** The assessment of basic functions of team will help identify the specific skills needed to do the various function of the team. The team members are required to contribute the basic functions of providing emotional support, coordination, interaction, etc.
 - g. **Stages of Development:** The team leader must assess the stages of development of the team to facilitate to reach the performing stage at the earliest possible time. And nurture the specific skills to maintain the performing activities.
- iv) **Gap Analysis:** In this stage, the team must assess the gap between what the members have at present and what they wanted to have to carry out the necessary functions. This can be done by routine performance appraisal and counseling procedures. Offering a series of training and development programs can minimize the gap.
- v) **Prepare Schedule for Training:** In consultation with the members, the leader can draw a schedule for the individual components of the training and development program. Obviously the various inputs will need to be strengthened over a period of time for the team to be able to assimilate them. Some organizations follow the just-in-time principle to the timing of training programs, so that the participants undergo a course just prior to the actual requirement. The training must be an on-going program for all the members.
- vi) **Follow Flexible Methodology:** The leader must identify the proper and suitable methods for organizing training program. There are different types of training methods such as lecture method, self-study packages, case study method, mentoring, formal academic course training, coaching, self-help study groups, computer aided training etc. While choosing the suitable training methods, the trainer or team leader must take into account of some of the key aspects such as

the culture of the organization, learning style, competency or maturity level of the members, the difficulty level of the subjects. The team leader or trainer must be flexible in choosing the appropriate methods of training based on the specific requirement.

- vii) **Allocate Resources for the Training:** The team leader must identify the available resources and future requirements such as audio visual aids, course materials, qualified trainers, and classroom facilities etc. to conduct a series of required training programs. The trainer or leader can negotiate with other department for equipment, materials, expert knowledge and necessary services for organizing programs. Sometimes, the team itself should be involved as much as possible in these decisions. Determining the methods of training and allocation of resources are the key activities. Once again, the whole team should be involved as much as possible in these decisions.
- viii) **Check the Plan Agreed with the Team for Realism:** The leader must ensure that the training plan for the whole team must be realistic and acceptable to the team members in terms of content, duration, methods and overall evaluation of the training program. At the same time the leader must ensure to get a good approval for the use of certain resources from higher-level managers, specialist staff or staff in other departments.
- ix) **Build in Review Meetings:** The organization of periodic review meetings will facilitate to upgrade the content and overall quality of the training program. Also, the team can assess the unexpected developments, fluctuations in team progress and so on.

18.5 A SYSTEM MODEL OF TEAM BUILDING

This model can be a very useful and practical way to analyze the success of a team and to help it develop in the areas of most need. This model of team effectiveness was developed based on the characteristics of the group. The key components making up effective team can be categorized into four aspects such as Work design, Composition, Context and Process.

Work Design: This category includes variables such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. It is reported that these characteristics enhance member motivation and increase team effectiveness. These work design characteristics motivate because they increase members' sense of responsibilities for and ownership of the work and because they make the work more interesting to perform.

Composition: This category covers such as ability, personality, roles and diversity, size, flexibility, preference for teamwork

Context: The three contextual factors that appear to be most significantly related to team performance are the presence of adequate resources, effective leadership and a performance evaluation and reward system that reflects team contributions.

Processes: The final category related to team effectiveness is process variables. These include member commitment to a common purpose, establishment of specific team goals, team efficacy, a managed level of conflict and the reduction of social loafing.

18.6 STARTING A NEW TEAM

While setting up a new team for any project or for on-going activity, the following factors must be considered.

- i) **Team size:** The team leader must ensure that adequate number of people is assigned to do the required work and the type of team and its capabilities to discharge the duties and responsibilities.
- ii) **Team Relationship:** The team leader must maintain very good interpersonal relations among the team members to ensure the harmonious and effective coordination and achieve the results in time.
- iii) **Team Strengths and Weaknesses:** It is advisable to identify the strength and weaknesses of the team members and make a proper tabulation for taking a suitable corrective action. Such an exercise will facilitate to discover whether there is any major shortcoming within the team and in which way those will be hindrance to the team.
- iv) **Team Leadership:** The team leader must choose the appropriate leadership style based on the team members wants and desires. There must be compatibility between the styles of leadership and the maturity level of the followers.
- v) **Team Members Work Style:** The team members work style may differ from individual to individual. The leader must ensure that there must be some uniformity against some standards or norms. Assessing and identifying the preferred work style of members will help to form some common standards.
- vi) **Team members Expectation:** It is desirable to clarify the team members wants and desires and the ways in which those things can be fulfilled.
- vii) **Team Tasks and Functions:** One of the primary tasks of the team leader is to assign the duties and responsibilities for all the members and ensure that the members adhere to them as closely as possible.

- viii) **Team Organization:** The overall organization of the team is to achieve the success such as planning, allocation of tasks, grouping of the tasks, accountability etc, which will help to achieve the goals of the team.

18.7 TEAM BUILDING

It is defined as planned interventions facilitated by a third-party consultant that developed problem solving procedures and skills, increase role clarity, solve major problems and improve effectiveness of work groups. Experts have clustered team-building activities into four general types such as interpersonal process, goal setting, defining roles and problem solving.

- i) **Interpersonal Process:** The resolution of conflicts between and among the team members by creating a system of open communication by providing training on listening skills, negotiation skills etc.
- ii) **Goal Setting:** Focusing on shared understanding of the mission and goals of the team. During this activity the team members clarify general goals and define specific tasks and sub goal to be accomplished within a specific time with set measurement criteria and reporting mechanisms.
- iii) **Defining Roles:** The members must define the roles without any ambiguity and ensure that instructions are very clear. The responsibilities, norms and expressions and requirements of each role are clarified.
- iv) **Problem Solving:** The member must identify the problem and must follow steps such as gathering and analyzing data, finding causes, understanding solutions, choosing solutions, planning an action and implementing and evaluating the action.

18.8 Let Us Sum Up

In this Unit, we have discussed about the types of teams, and categories of team roles. We have also learnt about team building process.

18.9 Lesson-end Activities

1. Suggest suitable strategies to overcome the behavioral characteristics of 'unhelpful' individual roles.
2. Your team is assigned to develop a new product in line with the existing one.
 - a. Write down the objective for which you are accountable
 - b. List the competencies, which you need in order to meet the objectives. These can be in the areas of technical needs, team roles or interpersonal skills.

- c. Identify the training needs for the team members.
- d. Indicate the required recourses in order to meet the training needs and when and where you would need them.

Competencies needed	Resources needed	When?	Where?

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LESSON – 19

CONFLICT PROCESS

Contents

- 19.0 Aims and Objectives
- 19.1 Introduction
- 19.2 Conflict Process
- 19.3 Types of Conflict
- 19.4 Conflict management techniques
- 19.5 Let us Sum Up
- 19.6 Lesson-End Activities
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19.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

19.1 INTRODUCTION

The manner in which organizations view and treat inter-group conflict has changed measurably during the last three decades. There are two different views – traditional and contemporary views of inter-group conflict to deal with the conflicting situations. The old line, traditional approach views inter-group conflict is dysfunctional to the organization and should be avoided. This view emphasizes that conflict is caused by personality differences and a failure of leadership. Further, it reiterates that conflict is resolved by physical separation or the intervention by higher management levels. The contemporary approach views inter-group conflict as an inevitable consequence of organizational interactions, caused by primarily by the complexities of our organizational systems. Through such mechanisms, the solutions of conflict may help to bring about positive organizational change.

19.2 CONFLICT PROCESS

The conflict process can be categorized into five stages. They are as follows:

Stage I: Potential opposition or incompatibility:

This covers the present condition that creates opportunity for conflicts to arise. This may be one of the conditions responsible for the occurrence of conflict. The major sources of conflict can be further categorized as communication, structure and personal variables.

Communication: It is reported that word connotations, jargon, insufficient exchange of information and noise in the communication channel are all barriers to communication and potential antecedent conditions to conflict.

Structure: It is reported that the size and specialization act as forces to stimulate conflict. The larger the group size and the more specialized its activities, the greater the likelihood

of conflict. The potential for conflict tend to be greatest when group members are younger and when turnover is high.

Personal variables: The evidence indicates that certain personality types such as highly authoritarian and dogmatic people who demonstrate low self-esteem lead to potential conflicts.

Stage II: Cognition and personalization:

Perception or sense making plays a major role in the resolving conflict. Conflict may either be perceived or felt in nature. Perceived conflict is defined as awareness by one or more parties of the existence of conditions that create opportunities for conflict to arise. Felt conflict is defined as emotional involvement in a conflict creating anxiety, tenseness, frustrations or hostility. Negative emotions have been found to produce over simplification of issues, reductions in trust, and negative interpretations of the other party's behavior.

Stage III: Intentions:

Using two dimensions – cooperativeness (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy the other party's concerns) and assertiveness (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns) – five conflict handling intentions can be identified. There are as follows: i) competing (assertive and uncooperative), ii) collaborating (assertive and cooperative), iii) avoiding (unassertive and uncooperative), iv) accommodating (unassertive and cooperative) and v) compromising (mid-range on both assertiveness and cooperativeness).

Stage IV: Behavior:

All conflicts manifest in behavior somewhere along with continuum ranging from no conflict or minor conflict such as minor disagreements or misunderstanding, overt questioning or challenging of others, to annihilatory conflict such as threats and ultimatum, aggressive physical attacks or overt efforts to destroy the other party.

Stage V: Outcomes.

The outcomes of conflict may be functional or dysfunctional. Conflict is constructive when it improves the quality of decision, stimulates creativity and innovation, encourages interest and curiosity among group members, provides the medium through which problems can be aired and tensions released and fosters an environment of self-evaluation and change. The evidence suggest that conflict can improve the quality of decision making allowing all points particularly the ones that are unusual or held by a minority people. The dysfunctional consequences of conflict on a group or organization's performance are generally well known. Among the more undesirable consequences are retarding of communication, reduction in group cohesiveness and subordination of group goals to the primacy of infighting between members. At the extreme, conflict can bring group functioning to a halt and potentially threaten the group's survival.

19.3 TYPES OF CONFLICT

In organizations, conflicts can be interpersonal, intra-group, inter-group or intra-organizational in nature. Intra-organizational conflict encompasses vertical, horizontal, line-staff and role conflict.

Vertical Conflict:

It refers to conflicts that occur between individuals at different levels. Conflict between the superior and subordinate is an example of vertical conflict. Such conflicts could happen because of perceived transgression of psychological contract, inadequate or ineffective communication, selective perception, misperception, incongruence in goals, values, cognition, affect and behavior etc.

Horizontal Conflict:

It refers to tensions between employees or groups at the same hierarchical level. Horizontal conflict occurs because of interdependence among the parties concerned in the work situation or the common pooled resources shared. For example, sharing personal computers among the various departments is likely to produce tensions among the departments. Incompatibility of goal and time orientations often results in horizontal conflicts. Conflicts will take place between the units due to the misunderstanding and frustration experienced by both parties. Horizontal conflict increases as: i) functional interdependence increases among people or groups at the same level ii) more units depend on common resources that have to be shared raw materials and iii) the fewer the buffers or inventories for the resources shared.

Line and Staff Conflict:

It refers to the conflicts that arise between those who assist or act in an advisory capacity (staff) and those who have direct authority to create the products, process, and services of the organization (line). Staff managers and line managers usually have different personality predispositions and goals and come from different backgrounds. Staff managers have specialized skills and expertise acquired through training and education and have greater technical knowledge which is intended to help the line manager who are basically money maker for the organization. Staff people serve as advisor for the line people in as much as they have the expertise to streamline methods and help in cost-cutting mechanisms. Line managers may feel that the staff people are unnecessarily interfering in their work by always telling them how to do their job and thrusting their ideas and methods. Staff people often get frustrated that the line people do not consider all the ideas put forth by them and thereby fail to benefit.

Role Conflict:

It arises because different people in the organization are expected to perform different task and pressures build up when the expectation of the members clash in several ways. There are two types of conflict.

- i) Inter-sender role conflict: This occurs when different role senders (bosses) expect the individual to perform different things and these expectations and the messages conflict with each other

- ii) Inter-role conflict: This occurs when role requires associated with members in one group conflicts with role requirements stemming from members in another group.

SOURCES OF INTER-GROUP CONFLICT:

There are three basic sources of inter-group conflict: i) goal incompatibility, ii) decision-making requirements and iii) performance expectations.

Goal incompatibility:

It is defined as the lack of agreement concerning the direction of group activity and the criteria for evaluating task accomplishment, is the most frequently identified source for inter-group conflict. Two critical elements which contribute to goal incompatibility are: i) time and goal orientation and ii) barriers to goal accomplishment.

Different time (short versus long term) and goal (techno-economic, market and scientific) orientation create a state of differentiation between two or more interacting groups. When two widely differing groups, such as manufacturing (short-term and techno-economic orientation) and research (long-term and scientific orientation) interact, this state of time and goals orientation differentiating can act as a source of conflict. If goal attainment by one group is seen as preventing other groups from achieving their goals, barriers to goal accomplishment arise.

Decision-making requirements:

This concerns the particular requirements for decision-making used by each of the interacting groups. Two aspects that are related to decision-making requirements are i) degree of task uncertainty and ii) the availability of resources.

Degree of task uncertainty: It refers to one of the basic characteristics of inter-group behavior. The nature of the particular task being performed by each of the interacting groups may require different amounts of information flow before a decision can be reached. The greater the task uncertainty inherent in each task, the greater the need for additional information.

Availability of Resources: This causes conflict when there is a struggle between interacting groups for limited resources needed to accomplish their goals. An organization must divide limited financial, equipment and manpower resources among different groups in what they believe is the most efficient and equitable manner. This conflict situation can result in such negative consequences as withholding information, disruptive behavior, and similar dysfunctional activities that can adversely affect the organization's overall performance.

Performance Expectations:

The third source of inter-group conflict concerns the situation in which the activities or performance of one group affects the subsequent performance of other groups. For example, in hospitals, surgeons perform their function after the anesthesiologists have successfully performed their role; on assembly lines, tires are placed on automobiles after workers have installed the brakes etc.

Performance expectations in inter-group behavior are directly related to the type of interdependence existing between groups. The nature of the three types of interdependence are pooled, sequential, reciprocal pose a respectively potential for conflict between interacting groups. That is, as inter-group relations progress from pooled to reciprocal interdependence, there is an increasing dependence of one group on another to perform their particular task. When one group acts improperly or fails to meet the performance expectation of the other group, a potential conflict situation can arise. The potential for conflict is greatest with reciprocal interdependence due to the intensity of the interactions between groups.

19.4 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

The various strategies for minimizing and resolving conflicts can be classified into five categories: i) Avoidance, ii) Accommodating, iii) Compromise, iv) Competition and v) Collaboration.

Avoidance:

This strategy involves a general disregard for the causes of the conflict and the person might diplomatically sidestep a conflicting issue, postpone addressing it till later, or withdraw physically or psychologically from a threatening situation. Avoiding mode is used when the individual is both unassertive and uncooperative – that is, the person has a very low concern for his own and his opponent's needs. The individual follows the following three methods

- i) Non-attention: The manager totally avoids or ignores the dysfunctional situation. Individuals tend to “look the other way” or disregard hostile action in hopes that the situation will resolve itself in time
- ii) Physical separation: It involves moving conflicting groups physically apart from each other. The rationale is that if the groups cannot interact, conflict will diminish.
- iii) Limited interaction: Groups are allowed to interact only on formal situations.

Avoidance style can be very beneficial under the following conditions:

- When the issue involved in the conflict is trivial,
- When more pressing issues are to be handled by the individual with a limited time frame.
- When one's power is very low and there is no chance of satisfying one's concern
- When more information is needed to make a good decision
- When someone else can resolve the conflict more effectively
- When you require time to regain more strength and look into different perspective

Accommodation:

Accommodation is a negotiation style where one party is willing to oblige or adapt to meet the needs of the other party. That party that accommodates loses and the other party

wins. Accommodation is useful for negotiation on minor matters. The negotiation parties may not look for creative, new solutions. Accommodation might take the form of selfless generosity, or obeying another's order rather unwillingly or giving in to another person's point of view. In all these cases, the individual neglects his or her own concern to satisfy the concerns of their other party. There is an element of self-sacrifice.

Accommodating is useful in the following situations:

- Where the individual realizes that he or she is wrong
- By yielding, the person indicates to the other conflicting person that he is reasonable
- When an issue is much more important to the other person than to the individual
- By being accommodating, the person maintains good will and a cooperative relationship and also build social credits so that the other person gives in when a later issue becomes important to this individual.
- When preserving harmony and avoiding disruption are especially more important
- When continued competition would only damage one's cause because one is **outmatched** and is losing.

Competition:

Competition occurs when one party negotiates to maximize its results at the expense of the other party's needs. Competition leads to one party gaining the advantage over the other. One party wins while the other party loses. Although it is quick and can be used as counter against another person, this option usually produces a win-lose result. Competing is a power oriented mode of resolving tensions and one uses whatever power one has or can muster such skills, knowledge, abilities, rank being well-connected etc to win.

Competing is useful in the following situations:

- When the resources are limited and the system has to be pruned
- When quick and decisive action has to be taken during emergencies
- When one has to take unpopular decision such as enforcing discipline, unpopular rules, cost cutting measures
- When issues are vital to the survival of the company where one is aware of the right solutions.

Thus, while competing mode is useful in certain situations, people have to be careful not to surround themselves with yes-men and not to foster ignorance and duplicity in the system. People low on this mode can learn to use their power more and enhance their own as well as their organization's effectiveness.

Compromising:

Compromise is the settlement of differences through concessions of one or both parties. In compromising, the party tries to find some expedient, mutually acceptable solutions with partially satisfies both parties, though neither is fully satisfied. A compromising stance addresses the issue without avoiding it, but does not explore the alternative in a way that would be completely satisfying to both parties as in the case of collaboration.

Compromising involves “splitting the difference”, exchanging concessions and seeking quick middle-ground solutions.

Compromising is a useful mode in the following situations:

- When the goals pursued are important, but not so important that it is worth potential disruptions by taking very assertive or unyielding positions.
- When two parties with equal power are strongly committed to mutually exclusive goals such as in labor-management bargaining situations
- When interim solutions are required till a more thorough and permanent solutions to the problem can be found.
- When solutions have to be arrived at under extreme time pressures
- When both collaboration and competition fail to work effectively in resolving conflicts.

Thus, compromise as a conflict resolution mode might offer an easy way out, but is also likely to produce adverse overall effects for the organization if that is the main or only approach to conflict resolutions taken by managers in the organization.

Collaboration:

Collaboration occurs when people cooperate to produce a solution satisfactory to both. Collaborating involves an attempt to work with the other person to find solutions that would be satisfying to both parties. Here, the underlying concerns of both parties are explored in depth, the disagreements examine in detail and resolutions arrived at by combining the insights of both the parties. A creative solution usually emerges because of the joint efforts of both the parties who are keen on both gaining from the situation without hurting the other.

Collaboration is useful in the following situations:

- When two goals of the two parties are both too important to be compromised
- When the commitment of both parties is essential for important projects to succeed
- When the objectives of the parties are i) to learn ii) to merge insights that different people bring to a problem because of their backgrounds, training, discipline or orientations iii) to work through hard feelings which are interfering with a desired interpersonal relationship

Thus, in collaborating, the intention of the parties is to solve the problem by clarifying differences rather than by accommodating various points of view. Examples include attempting to find win-win solutions that allow both parties' goal to be completely achieved and seeking a conclusion that incorporates the valid insights of both parties.

19.5 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have discussed about the conflict process and the five stages of conflict process. We have also learnt about the types of conflict.

19.6 Lesson-end Activities

1. State the different types of conflict
2. Explain the strategies for resolving conflicts.

UNIT V

DYNAMICS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

LESSON – 20

COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Contents

- 20.0 Aims and Objectives
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- 20.2 Communication process
- 20.3 Functions of communication
- 20.4 Barriers to effective communication
- 20.5 Overcoming barriers to communication
- 20.6 Directions of communication
- 20.7 Formal and informal communication
- 20.8 Let us sum up
- 20.9 Lesson-End Activities
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20.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

On completing this lesson, the students may be able:

- i) Understand the communication process and discuss the different types of communication.
- ii) Identify the barriers to communication and the ways in which one can overcome those barriers in communication process
- iii) Discuss the formal and informal type's of communication and its functions within the organization.
- iv) Outline the role of communication in the workplace

20.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication is the sharing of ideas, knowledge, feelings and perceptions. Within the workplace, communication takes place for a number of direct and indirect reasons. Primarily it is necessary for passing information between people studying or working in the same organization and between the organization and other. Competent communicators know and understand the elements and rules of communication. Their ability to communicate is reflected in the quality and range of their communication skills. Communication, written, spoken or even nonverbal, is also used by leaders and managers for evaluating performance, directing or instructing staff and motivating others. People who are working as part of a team or department with an effective communicator are generally more confident and competent because they understand what they are doing

and what is required of them. They are able to work together in a purposeful, supportive and flexible manner.

20.2 COMMUNICATION PROCESS

The process models of communication contain seven main elements such as i) sender, ii) message, iii) receiver, iv) feedback, v) channel, vi) context or setting and vii) noise or interference. As communication occurs, sender and receiver interact by encoding/sending and decoding/receiving messages. Encoding means putting the message into words or diagram or nonverbal signals so that it can be transmitted. The receiver hears, reads or looks in order to decode or interpret the message.

Sender:

Communication begins with sender, the individual who reacts to situations from a unique vantage point, interpreting ideas and filtering experiences through their own perception. Sender conceives his ideas based on the accumulated attitudes, experiences, skills and cultural conditioning.

Message:

The message is the idea of feeling transmitted from the sender to the receiver to achieve understanding. It makes a connection between the sender and the receiver and may be made up of signs, words and movement. The tone of voice, inflection, the rate of speech, facial expression, touching and body movement may be misinterpreted by the receiver, or poorly constructed message may lead to misunderstanding. The message the sender meant to send is not always the message received.

Receiver:

The receiver decodes or interprets the message to achieve understanding. In doing this, the receiver also acts as an individual from a unique vantage point, interpreting the idea according to a particular personal perception of the message. This perception is also the result of the receiver's unique background of experiences, beliefs and concerns. Interpretation of the same message may vary between people. This is because individual perception is influenced by experience, attitudes, and beliefs and a range of acquired skills or expectations. For example, one person may perceive the color blue as cool, peaceful and confronting while another may perceive blue as old fashioned and formal. The particular or specific meaning is influenced by past experience. Even the context or setting of the communication affects perception.

Feedback:

Feedback is an essential part of successful interpersonal communication. It is the receiver's response to the sender's message, telling the sender how their message is being received and helping the receiver confirm whether their perception of the message is correct. It can be intentional or unintentional. Feedback:

- Provides continuity in the communication
- Indicates effective understanding or misunderstanding of the message
- Stimulates further communication and discussion.

Channel:

A communication channel is the means of techniques used to signal or convey a message – for example, a conversation, letter, telephone call, e-mail or television program. Sometimes these channels are internal to the organization; other channels are outside the organization and are thus external channels. An appropriate channel suits the communication purpose, the need of the sender, the message and the needs of the receiver. Different lines or channels of communication are used inside an organization. Horizontal channels operate between colleagues at the same level within the organization's structures, while vertical channels move communication up and down between different levels in the organization.

Context:

Context is the situation or setting within which communication takes place or the circumstances that surround a particular piece of communication. There are three dimensions in the context – physical, social-psychological and the temporal. The physical environment contains the tangible or concrete items in the environment. The roles, norms and mores of the society make up the social-psychological dimension. The temporal dimension describes the time in history as well as the position of the communication in the sequence of events.

Context plays an important part in how a message is encoded and decoded. The same message can have a completely different meaning depending on the situation, since emotions and reactions to ideas and events vary in different situations. For example, the context at an international peacekeeping conference will have different physical, social-psychological and temporal dimensions from the context of a formal meeting in a company office. The communication process will use different language, relationships and authority to achieve the different communication purpose in each context or situation.

Noise:

The message received is not necessarily the same as the message sent. Something other than the intended message is received because noise or interference interrupts the intended message. Noise or interference that interrupts the message or communication flow between sender and receiver can lead to misunderstanding or to confused or ambiguous communication.

20.3 FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION

There are four major functions of communication. They are: Emotive, Motivation, Information and Control

Emotive:

Through communication, employees can express their frustrations and satisfactions to each other and to management. In addition, communication provides a mechanism for

individuals to compare attitude and resolve ambiguous about their jobs, their roles and areas of conflict between groups and individuals. If an employee is dissatisfied with his pay, he will often communicate with others informally, to determine whether the feelings are justified or not.

Motivation:

A second major function of communication is to motivate, direct, control and evaluate the performance of organizational members. Leadership is an influence process by which supervisors attempt to control the behaviour and performance of subordinates. Communication is the major vehicle of such control available to leaders. Hence, leadership activities, such as issuing orders, rewarding behavior and performance, reviewing and evaluating performance, making job and task assignments, and training and developing subordinates all involve communication.

Information:

Communication serves a vital information function for decision-making. It is based on technological orientation and facilitates information processing activities and ways to improve the accuracy with which communication channels carry information going into individual, group and organizational decisions.

Control:

Organizations are attempting to control the activities of individuals through the design and use of formal communication channels. Most types of programs or standard operating procedures have a large communication component to them. Hence, formal communication channels represent a major structural means of control within organizations.

20.4 BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Semantic Problems:

The use of inappropriate language, symbols, and words may affect the understanding capacity of the receiver. The sender must ensure that the proper words and language are chosen to communicate the intended message so that there is no room for misinterpretation or confusion as the receiver decodes the message exactly as it was encoded. Many words commonly used in communication carry quite different meanings for different people. Two general kinds' of semantic problems present barriers to communication. i) Some words and phrases are so general or abstract that they invite varying interpretation. ii) Semantic problem arise when different groups develop their own technical language. For example, some one says that I require 10 PCs to solve this problem. A soft engineer may think 10 personal computers; A police inspector may think 10 Police Constables. People may interpret the same words or letter in differently.

Status Effects:

Status effect also hinder communication in as much as people occupying higher positions in the organization have a tendency to tell a lot to the subordinates but not to listen. When

people do not listen, they do not understand each other and thus effective communication is blocked. Thus, the superior-subordinate status comes in the way of effective communication taking place.

Physical Distraction:

When people communicate with each other, noise may also enter in the form of various types of distraction. Distractions may occur because of situational factors such as constant telephone interruptions, people walking in and out of the room, or loud noises in the background. Apart from these physical noises, certain peculiar mannerism of the speaker may also be distracting to the listener and hide effective listening.

Information Overload:

This refers to too much volume of information which is beyond the level of a person to comprehend. Communication may be ineffective when too much information is transmitted at one time or when complex information is presented within a short time frame. The problem is compounded if the individual also has limited attention span and poor memory retention. Managers are literally drowned in communication and unable to attend to them fully. This includes variety of information received from different mode such as e-mail, memos, official letters, reports, instructions, circular, telephone, meetings etc. is required to attend

Time Pressures:

Time is always short, and this fact often leads to distortion in communication. A major temptation when pressed for time is to short-circuit formal communication channels. Because of time pressures, many messages are hastily and inadequately communicated by managers, leaving the listener with much ambiguity and confusion as to what has been said and what action should be taken. Since managers have to deal with a large number of people on an ongoing basis within limited periods of time, giving incomplete information and verbally transmitted short, telegraphic message seems inevitable.

Cultural Differences:

Words, colors and symbols have different meanings in different cultures and sometimes even between sub-cultures within a national boundary.

Trust Level:

When there is lack of sufficient trust between the communicating parties, selective listening takes place, resulting in ineffective communication. Complete information is seldom exchanged under such circumstances and the withholding of information by one or both parties will further aggravate the trust issue and impersonal problems. Evaluating tendencies develop selective listening increases further and messages get distorted.

Selective Perception:

People have a tendency to listen to only part of a message and “block out” other information for a variety of reasons. One of the most important of aspect is a need to avoid or reduce cognitive dissonance. Thus, people have a tendency to ignore new information

that conflicts with or denies already established beliefs, values, and expectations. Selective perception occurs when the receiver values the context of the communication including the role, identity, values, mood and motives of the sender. Perceptual Distortion

Self-Concept:

An individual's motives and personality strongly influence the decoding or symbolic interpretation process. An employee who has a highly felt need for advancement in an organization and whose personality tend be to quite optimistic might read a smile and casual comment from a supervisor as an indication that he is being groomed for promotion. A person with low need for advancement and a pessimistic disposition may read nothing more than a casual comment unrelated to anything else into the supervisor's comment.

Absence of Two-way Communication:

If communication is only one way – from top to bottom or from superior to subordinate – without any feedback, would hinder communication from taking place in an effective manner. For instance, the receiver might decode the message in a way that was not intended. Neither the receiver nor the sender will then realize that the message was misinterpreted until it becomes too late to rectify the situations. For example, An examination question is one way communication which could easily get misinterpreted by some students since attempts by students to seek clarifications in the examination hall is usually discouraged.

20.5 OVERCOMING BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

There are number of ways managers can minimize a number of communication barriers. In general, communication can be improved in two ways. First, the manger must sharpen his or her skills in manipulating symbols, that is, process of encoding. This implies that the sender must take as much care as possible in choosing symbols and establishing the context within which the message is transmitted. There are number of techniques that are commonly employed by managers to accomplish these ends.

Active listening:

It implies that the receiver of information engages in the following patterns of behavior. a) stop talking since it is impossible to talk and listen at the same time, b) remove the distracting elements as much as possible c) is patient and lets the other person say whatever needs to be said, d) appreciate the emotion behind the speaker's words and is empathic, e) is attentive, f) creates a positive listening environment f) uses feedback mechanisms to check understanding g) withholds judgment h) asks questions, i) reacts to the message and not he person. Active listening takes a lot of energy and be perfected by conscious and constant practice.

Follow up and Feedback:

The process of feedback makes communication a two-way process. In face-to-face situations, the sender should try to become sensitive to facial expressions and other signs

that indicate how the message is being received. It is often important to solicit questions of clarification from the receiver. When more formal communication is involved, the writer may specify specific forms and times for responding to insure feedback.

Parallel Channels and Repetition: A major principle of communication technology is to provide parallel channels of communication that reinforce each other. Thus, a verbal request may be followed up with a memo. In this way, the sender has ensured getting the attention of the receivers and also ensured that the sender will have a record to refer to in case he or she forgets in its order.

Timing:

A manager may ignore a memo or request simply because other problems are pressing in at the same time. Two kinds of actions can be taken by management to ensure the accurate reception of communication through timing. i) they may want to standardize the timing of specific messages, ii) many organizations establish “retreats” or time away from normal job pressures to transmit material, ideas and instructions to employees. This action insures the undivided attention of the receivers.

Be patient and paying adequate attention:

When choosing a style of language, the sender must give a due consideration to the listener’s intention, and his background. Effective use of language consists of tailoring one’s message for the context of the receivers in order to maximize overall between the intended and received messages.

Information Communication and Information Centers:

Running parallel to formal communication channel in an organization is an informal network commonly called grapevines. They tend to be a universal fact of life in all organizations. They have been used to serve not only informational functions but also motivational functions as well. A number of employees needs are served by the powerful reinforcer. Effective communicators often combine formal and informal (grapevine) channels of communication. Thus a manager may reinforce information received through formal with an off-the record talk with key subordinates. In reverse directing, he or she might reinforce and clarify a formal written with an informal chat session among employees.

Exception principle and need to know:

In order to deal effectively with the information overload problem many organizations try to establish certain principles for actually limiting the extent of communications. Many firms implement an “exception principle” in communication channels. This principle orders that only communications regarding exceptional derivations, from orders, plans, and policies be communicated upward on a routine basis. Hence, upper levels of management will receive only that information which truly demands their attention.

A closely related principle involves downward communication. Here, managers should be selective and transmit information on a “need to know” basis. In this way, lower level personnel receive only communication that is immediately critical to carrying out their

tasks. The success of these two principles depends on the type of organization within which jobs are carried out. They will be most effective in highly structured organizations where tasks are relatively simple and routine. In less formal organization, in which work is rather complex and not highly structured, communication needs to be as open and unrestricted as possible.

Being empathetic in understanding:

Good communicators are able to reduce the chance of communication barrier and the associated problems by communicating with empathy – a feeling and awareness of the other person and their point of view. A good communicator is able to recognize emotions in others and respond appropriately. It is reported that empathy as the foundation for the quality of a relationship. In a satisfying relations both parties have empathy for the other person's point of view and are also willing to provide appropriate and sufficient feedback to achieve the understanding.

Using feedback mechanisms:

Since feedback involved both receiver and sender, it is important to understand the conditions under which feedback session will be more effective both from the sender's and receiver's perspective. For feedback to be most effective, the person giving the feedback must:

- a) give specific and not general or vague feedback
- b) give feedback immediately or soon after the event has taken place rather than long after the event has occurred
- c) give feedback on aspects that the receiver can rectify rather than on aspects over which the individual has no control
- d) Be descriptive than evaluative
- e) Give feedback on a few critical issues where improvement is most urgently expected rather than on a wide range of problem areas
- f) Examine your own motivation in giving the feedback
- g) Be sure that the receiver is ready to receive feedback
- h) Be non-threatening and disregard you superior status while offering feedback.

Minimize Physical distraction:

Taking due care in minimizing the external noise, interruptions, awkward mannerism, unusual and unwanted incidences etc facilitate to heighten the attention levels of the members

20.6 DIRECTIONS OF COMMUNICATION:

There are three broad patterns of communication:

Downward communication:

It refers to the flow of communication from supervisor to the subordinate. To improve downward communication, managers can present job instructions clearly to subordinates, explain why things need to be done in a particular way so that people who perform the

jobs understand better. For example, clear staff regulations, rules, handbooks, procedures manual etc are the good examples of downward communication.

Upward communication:

It refers to the flow is from the subordinate to the superiors. To improve upward communication, screen upward messages so that the more relevant aspects of the information are received by top management, provide the climate in which members can communicate both positive and negative messages, detect biases when they occur, reduce status difference and wherever possible, require quantified data to be submitted rather than provide subjective information for decision making. For example, instituting suggestion scheme, union leader voicing their demands to management, etc

Lateral Communication:

It takes place between or among members who are at the same level in the organization. For example, two supervisors of the same department or different department are discussing work matters with each other. To improve lateral communication, it is desirable to establish openness and trust among members of various department, develop reward systems that facilitate inter-departmental cooperation, learn that what the other departments are doing by getting involved in interdepartmental meetings and, if possible design the organization structure in such a way so that greater opportunities of interdepartmental contact exist.

20.7 FORMAL AND INFORMAL COMMUNICATION

Formal network:

Formal network are typically vertical, follow the authority chain and are limited to task-related communications. There are three formal network structures in communication. There are chain, wheel and all channels. The chain structure rigidly follows the formal chain of command. The wheel relies on the leader to act as the central conduit for the entire group's communication. The all-channel network permits all group members to actively communicate with each other.

Informal network:

Grapevine is an organizations informal communication network. The grapevine has three main characteristics. i) It is not controlled by management. ii) it is perceived by most employees as being more believable and reliable than formal communication issued by top management. iii) it is largely used to serve the self interests of those people within it and it is one of the quickest means of communication.

It is frequently assumed that rumors start because they make an interesting gossip. Rumors have at least four purposes. i) to structure and reduce anxiety, ii) to make sense of limited or fragmented information, iii) to serve as a vehicle to organize group members and possibly outsiders, into coalitions and iv) to signal a sender's status or power.

20.8 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have discussed about the communication process and the different types of communication. We have also discussed about the barriers to communication and the formal and informal types of communication.

20.9 Lesson-End Activities

1. Differentiate formal network from informal network of communication process.
2. Explain the directions of communication process with suitable examples
3. Describe the types of communication barriers exist within the organization and the suitable methods to overcome such barriers.
4. Outline the various steps in the communication process.
5. What are the major functions of communication?

LESSON – 21 NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

21.0 Aims and Objectives

21.1 Introduction

21.2 Non-Verbal Communication

21.3 Aspects of Non-Verbal Communication

21.4 Role of Non-Verbal Communication

21.5 Let us Sum Up

21.6 Lesson-End Activities

21.7 References

21.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

On completing this lesson on nonverbal communication, the students may be able to:

- describe three types of nonverbal messages
- describe how cultural norms affect the nonverbal part of the message
- identify seven aspects of nonverbal behavior
- explain the purpose of nonverbal communication
- interpret and use ones own nonverbal communication appropriately

21.1 INTRODUCTION

There are few situations where words alone send the message. The nonverbal communication accompanying the words reinforces and adds meaning to words. Our impressions and images of others are affected by our perception of their verbal and nonverbal communications. Reactions to the nonverbal communications of others have an impact on liking, disliking and responsiveness and the way in which we respond and

relate to one another. The ability to focus on non-verbal communication lets people plan and deal with situations to a purposeful and positive way and to send a clear message. This in turn let others respond more easily as this type of communications or self-disclosure lets them know the sort of persons they are dealing with and how that person is likely to respond to situations.

In reality, the nonverbal aspects of communication are so intermingled with the verbal that it is difficult to separate them. People combine the verbal and nonverbal messages and the context in which the communication takes place and interpret the total message.

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21.2 NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Types of Nonverbal communication

Non-verbal communication consists of that part of a message that is not encoded in words. This nonverbal part of the message tends to be less conscious and reveals the sender's feelings, likings and preferences more spontaneously and honestly than the verbal part. If the verbal message does not match up with the nonverbal communications there is a tendency to believe the nonverbal part of the message.

There are three types of nonverbal message:

- i) Personal to the individual
- ii) Common to a group of people or culture
- iii) Universal to human kind

Personal nonverbal communication:

It is the use of nonverbal actions in a way that is personal or unique to that person. Personal nonverbal communication is influenced by conditioning in the socialization process and identification with others who are trusted and respected. Over period of time, people develop preferences for certain patterns of nonverbal communication based on experience. A person's style of dress or image is a form of communication personal to the individual. Statements about self are made through appearance and clothing.

Cultural nonverbal communication:

It is a characteristic of or common to a group of people. Cultural groups may evolve on the basis of nationality, gender, age or religion. Non-verbal communication is learnt unconsciously by observing others in the society or group. Attitudes, beliefs, values and norms regulate communication (verbal and nonverbal) and interactions between those in the culture.

Social influence is the process by which others affect our perceptions, attitudes and actions. People learn the meaning of nonverbal behaviors and those accepted through direct instructions or by modeling and imitating the behaviors of others in the group because they wish to belong to the group. In order to belong they share and conform to the attitudes, beliefs, values and norms and follow the group's patterns of behavior as they interact and communicate. The behavior of members of the culture or society is used as a standard against which individuals are able to measure their own behavior. Acceptable patterns of behavior are established and modified by the responses between people within the society or group.

Universal nonverbal communication.

It is the behavior that is common to human kind.. Morris found that some gestures are highly localized in a culture, while other cross national and linguistic boundaries. A person smiling with widespread arms and upturned, open hands communicates welcome universally. Universally, facial expressions and gestures are indicators of emotion. Darwin suggested that emotions have evolved as part of our biological heritage. An

emotion such as displeasure or puzzlement is expressed through a pattern of muscular facial movement that we call a frown. Universal nonverbal message often show happiness, sadness or deep-seated feelings, for example a smile or tears. Their basis is physiological change related to emotions rather than rituals stylized by a society.

21.3 ASPECTS OF NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

People communicate nonverbally with body movements and with personal relationship behavior. They rely heavily on nonverbal communication to transmit the message and to modify, change or complement the verbal communication. Nonverbal communication is more powerful than verbal communication in conveying emotions, attitudes and reactions. Nonverbal communication always exists in a context or framework. The context often determines the meaning of the nonverbal behavior. On different occasions the same nonverbal gesture may have a completely different meaning from another setting. If nonverbal behavior is separated from its context and the spoken words that accompany, it is almost impossible to interpret with any accuracy.

The types of nonverbal communication can be classified into seven categories:

- i) Body movements or kinesics
- ii) Physical characteristics
- iii) Touching behavior
- iv) Vocal qualities or paralanguage
- v) Use of space or proximity
- vi) Artifacts
- vii) Environment

Body movements or kinesics:

Body movements such as those of the hands, head, feet and legs and posture, eye movements and facial expressions all affect the message. Body posture – the way a person stands, leans forward or backward moves the head- have an impact on the message. A person leaning forward, pointing and shaking a finger at someone is seen as trying to dominate the other person. Holding the head too high may project arrogance, while fear and uncertainty are suggested when the head is held down low. Fiddling with jewellery, pen or a paperclip may convey nervousness and insecurity. Leaning forward displays curiosity and interest and direct eye contact shows confidence. The way body movements are received by others and the type of response or feedback, determines how the communication will flow.

Physical Characteristics:

Physical characteristics such as body shape, general attractiveness, body and breath odors, weight, and hair and skin color are important parts of nonverbal communication. Because people react and respond to them they are influential in determining the responses in interpersonal encounters. First impressions and images of others can be associated unconsciously with past experiences of people with similar physical characteristics.

Touching behavior:

Stroking, hitting or guiding the movement of another person are examples of touching behaviors that communicates nonverbally. Each of these adds a different meaning to message. Touching can console or support the other person and shows feelings such as affection, sexual interest or dominance. Hand gestures demonstrate feelings and put thoughts and words into movements. A handshake, for example, can suggest dominance or equality. A pat on the arm can convey intimacy or control.

Vocal qualities or paralanguage:

It is that part of language associated with the use of the language, but is not the word system. It comprises the voice quality and vocalization that affect how something is said rather than what is said. Voice qualities include:

- pitch range
- pitch control
- rhythm control
- tempo
- articulation control
- resonance

Vocalization also gives clue to total message. The nonverbal components of spoken communication are an important part of the total message. They include the tone of voice, rate of speaking and voice inflection. A tired person, for example, will speak more slowly than usual; a disappointed person may speak with a flat tone; the tone of voice of a person excited about a coming holiday reflects this excitement. A higher voice pitches than usual is interrupted as dishonesty or discomfort. A salesperson who speaks too quickly may be greeted with suspicion. Some one who raises their voice at the end of a sentence may sound uncertain and less authoritative than one who ends a sentence with a lower voice pitch.

Use of space or proximity:

It refers to nearness in place. It is influenced by the nature of the encounter, the type of relationship and cultural factors such as gender or nationality. As well as varying in formal, informal and intimate contexts, the use of space indicates how people feel about their role and status.

There are four different distances that people maintain between themselves and others.

- intimate distance (0 – 18 inches)
- personal distance (18 inches to 4 feet)
- social distance (4 to 12 feet)
- public distance (12 feet and above)

Intimate distance allows close physical contact and is most often used in emotional and close relationships. Personal distance is used when people interact and share personal concerns in less intimate relationships. Social distance is used in impersonal and more formal interactions.

Artefacts:

Artefacts are objects used to convey nonverbal messages about self-concept, image, mood, feelings and style. Many artifacts are common to the group but it is possible to use an artifact such as style of dress as a form of communication that is personal to the individual. Perfume, cloths, lipstick, glasses, hairpieces projects the personal style as well as the mood of the wearer. They are an important and highly visible part of nonverbal communication. They also make a statement about image and may create positive or negative first impressions. A police badge, an army uniform, advocates gown are all appearance signal. Some of these artifacts reflect power or no power in a situation. If a plain-cloths police officer shows a police badge at an accident there is an immediate perception of authority by those who see the badge.

Environmental Factors:

Environmental factors can influence the outcome of a communication. For this reason, organizations spend time designing office space, factory lay out and the sales area and place for conference carefully. The ideal environment puts people at ease and matches their expectations. An unsuitable environment can produce 'noise' that acts as a barrier and interferes with communication. Certain instincts such as the need for privacy, familiarity and security need to be satisfied. Careful design of the workplace can help to meet these needs and in so doing improve communication, productivity and moral. Natural and artificial light, color, temperature, tables, chairs, desks, lounges, plants, sound, artwork magazines, floor and wall coverings all have an impact on people's perception of the organization.

In the workplace, attention to punctuality or a disregard for it can be a powerful nonverbal communicator. A disregard for punctuality may, like a sloppy appearance, merely reflect a casual attitude. However, deliberate decisions to keep a contact waiting may be a way to communicate a negative message. While punctuality is a matter of courtesy, attitude towards its importance vary between cultures.

21.4 ROLE OF NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

Words alone are not enough to convey the message. Nonverbal communication adds meaning, and modifies or changes the spoken words. Six ways of doing this are as follows:

- i) **Repeating:** This is shown by pointing fingers while giving directions
- ii) **Contradicting:** This is shown by looking at your watch and backing away while telling someone, I'm very much interested in what you are saying
- iii) **Substituting:** By using facial expressions as a substitute for words such as to show pleasure, disappointment and range of emotions.
- iv) **Complementing:** Some of the gestures may supplement or convey the right intentions, for example, a person who disrespects another may stand in a

causal way or use a tone of voice that conveys a lack of respect when talking with this person.

- v) **Accenting:** Some actions such as moving the head and hands are used to emphasize parts of the verbal message, for example, shaking the head as you say No.
- vi) **Controlling the flow of information:** Gestures such as nodding the head or changing position can indicate to the speaker to continue or to give the other person a turn.

21.5 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have learnt about the aspects and role of non-verbal communication.

21.6 Lesson-End Activities

1. Visit the library and observe a student studying and a librarian working. Compare the behavior of the librarian and the behavior of the students on each of the seven aspects of nonverbal communication such as body motion, physical characteristics, touching behavior, vocal qualities, use of space, artifacts environment.
2. What were the main differences in the nonverbal behavior of the librarians and the student? Can you give reasons for the differences?
3. Non verbal communication should be inferred in context. What does this mean?
4. Nonverbal communicating can complement, enhance, replace or contract verbal communication. Discuss this statement in a small group and provide examples of situations in which each has happened.
5. Why and when it is important to check out in the meaning of the nonverbal part of the message?

LESSON – 22

LEADERSHIP THEORIES

CONTENTS

22.0 Aims and Objectives

22.1 Introduction

22.2 Leadership Theories

22.2.1 Trait Theories

22.2.2 Behavior theories

22.2.3 Situational or contingency theories

22.2.4 Transformation leadership

22.2.5 Sources of power

22.3 Let us Sum Up

22.4 Lesson-End Activities

22.5 References

22.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

On completion of this lesson, the students are able to:

- i) Describe the role of a leader of a group and select different types of styles
- ii) Analyze the situational leadership styles and different models of situational leadership style
- iii) Differentiate between various types of power and the mechanisms to acquire the power base in the organization
- iv) Understand the dynamics of transformational leadership and differentiate transformational leadership from transactional leadership.

22.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership is defined as the process of influencing others to get the job done more effectively over a sustained period of time. Leaders play a critical role in influencing the work behavior of others in the system. For example, Marketing managers influence their sales force personnel to influence to meet the targeted sales volume. If he is more influential, his style will have an impact on the behavior of the subordinates. There are three processes by which people can be influenced-compliance, identification and internalization or some combinations of these.

Compliance: It occurs when people are influenced to do something against their will because they have been coerced into doing it otherwise, they may likely to face sever consequences which cost them heavily. In most authoritarian organizations, managers will influence subordinates through the process of coercion which, often elicits reluctant and half-hearted compliance.

Identification: It occurs when people do things that the leader wants them to do because they like him or her and what to put forth the effort to accomplish the things that

the leader would like them to do. Subordinates simply follow their managers just because he is so attractive or likable or who acts as a role model. Such leaders tend to have more charisma and possess some qualities that are more valued and admired by others in the organization.

Internalization: It occurs when followers are convinced that acting in a particular way as directed by the leader is in their own interests. This is the highest level, wherein the amount of influence exerted by the managers is very limited. The employees will realize the type of action what they have been asked to do will be providing more benefits in future. Having internalized the values or opinions of the leader because of their high trust in the individual's judgment and expertise, the employees willingly do whatever needs to be done.

22.2 THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP:

There are three major approaches to leadership: a) trait theories, b) behavioral theories, c) situational theories. Trait theories highlight that there exists a finite set of individual traits or characteristics that distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders. Behavioral theories highlight that the most important aspect of leadership is not the traits of the leader, but what the leader does in various situations. Successful leaders are distinguished from unsuccessful leaders by their particular style of leadership. Situational theories outlines that the effectiveness of the leader is not only determined by his or her style of behavior, but also by the situation surrounding the leadership environment. Situational factors include the characteristics of the leader and the subordinates, the nature of the task and the structure of the group.

22.2.1 TRAIT THEORIES:

Some of the significant characteristics of leaders are categorized as follows:

- Physical Characteristics – age, appearance, height, weight
- Social Background – Education, social status, mobility
- Intelligence – Intelligence, ability, judgment, knowledge, decisiveness, fluency of speech
- Personality – Aggressiveness, alertness, dominance, enthusiasm, extroversion, independence, creativity, personal integrity, self-confidence
- Task-related Characteristics – Achievement drive, drive for responsibility, initiative, persistence, enterprise, task orientation
- Social Characteristics – Administrative ability, attractiveness, cooperativeness, popularity, prestige, sociability, interpersonal skill, tack and diplomacy

The list of important leadership traits is endless and grows with each passing year. It has not yet been shown that a finite set of traits can distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders. For example, successful research administrators are usually inquisitive, independent, perspective, and experts within their field. Successful sales managers are usually high-need achievers, gregarious, enthusiastic and project a professional stature, What may be important traits for one occupation may not be important for other roles in the same organization. Uniformity of traits across all levels is thus questioned. Trait

identifies who the leader is, not the behavioral patterns he or she will exhibit in attempting to influence subordinate actions.

22.2.2 BEHAVIORAL THEORIES:

The foundation for the style of leadership approach was the belief that effective leaders utilized a particular style to lead individuals and groups to achieving certain goals, resulting in high productivity and morale. Unlike trait theories, the behavioral approach focused on leader effectiveness, not the emergence of an individual as a leader. There are two prominent styles of leadership such as task orientation, and employee orientation. Task orientation is the emphasis the leader place on getting the job done by such actions as assigning and organizing the work, making decision, and evaluating performance. Employee orientation is the openness and friendless exhibited by the leader and his concern for the needs of subordinates. Two major research studies directed toward investigating the behavioral approach to leaderships is i) Ohio State University Studies and ii) University of Michigan Studies.

Ohio State Studies: Initiating Structures and Consideration: They identified two independent leadership dimensions.

- Initiating Structure: This concerned the degree to which the leader organized and defined the task, assigned the work to be done, established communication networks and evaluated work-group performance.
- Consideration, which was defined as behavior that involves trust, mutual respect, friendship; support and concern for the welfare of the employee. Consideration refers to an emphasis on an employee orientation leadership style. Their findings indicated that a mixture of initiating-structure and consideration leader behavior, which are achieved the highest effectiveness, depends largely on situational factors.

Michigan State Studies: Two distinct styles of leadership were developed from their studies:

- Job-centered leaderships style, which focused on the use of close supervision, legitimate and coercive power, meeting schedules and evaluating work performance.
- Employee-centered style, which is people oriented and emphasis delegation of responsibility and a concern for employee welfare, needs, advancement and personal growth. Their findings reported that employee centered and job centered styles result in productivity increase. However, job centered behavior created tension and pressure and resulted in lower satisfaction and increased turnover and absenteeism. Employee-centered style is the best leadership style.

Leadership's style is too complex to be viewed as unidimensional, but more than two dimensions may complicate the interpretation of leadership behavior. The measurement of leadership style for each of the approaches was accomplished through the use of questionnaire. This method of measurement is both limited and controversial. Further, in search of the most effective leadership's style, the research findings suggested that a universally accepted best style was inappropriate to the complexities of modern organizations.

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Managerial Grid:

The five basic approaches to management identified by Black and Mouton are based on the two dimensions of concern of people and concern for production that are associated with leaders. A managerial grid is formed based on these two dimensions which are rated on 9 point scale. If manager is securing the lowest score on these two dimensions I,I is identified as impoverished style of managers who are low on both their concern of people and production, 1,9 or country club style is designated to those managers who are having high concern for people but low concern for production. The 5, 5 or the middle-of-the-road style concerns the moderate levels of concern for both people and production. The 9,1 or task management style is one where there is a high concern for production but very little concern for people and finally, 9,9 or team management style is one where the manager has high concern for both people and production. According to Black and Mouton the one best style for all managers is the 9,9 or team management style.

Likert's System Four Model:

Rensis Likert suggests that managers operate under four different systems.

System I – Exploitative Authoritative: The manager believes in very authoritarian manner and actually exploits the subordinates

System II – Benevolent Authoritative: The manager takes a paternalistic approach while still being autocratic. Behaving as benevolent autocratic, the leader maintains strict control over the subordinates albeit in a paternalistic manner.

System III – Consultative: The manager consults the subordinates and still maintains the right to make the final decision.

System IV – Participative Groups: The manager uses a democratic style and makes decision by consensus and majority vote.

Likert feels that the best way for all organizations to manage employees is to move towards System IV.

22.2.3 SITUATIONAL THEORIES:

Situational approaches to leadership take the position that there is no “one best way to lead in all the situations. Effective leadership style will vary from situations to situation, depending on several factors such as the personality predisposition of the leaders, the characteristics of the followers, the nature of task being done and other situational factors. Tannenbaum and Schmidt reported that the use of authority by the manager (boss-centered leadership style) or the area of freedom given to subordinates (subordinate centered leadership) is a function of the following factors such as i) forces in the manager – value system, confidence in subordinates, leadership predispositions and feelings of security and insecurity), ii) forces in the subordinates (their needs for independence or dependence, readiness to assume responsibility, tolerance for ambiguity, abilities, knowledge and experience and inclination to participate in decision making) and iii) forces in the situation (type of organization, group effectiveness, time pressures and the nature of the problem itself)

Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership:

Fiedler developed a model to predict work group effectiveness by taking into consideration the best fit between the leadership style and the degree of favorableness of the situation. The following three factors are considered to check whether the situation will be favorable or unfavorable. These factors are i) Leader- Member relations, ii) Task structure of the group, iii) Perceived position power of the manager.

Leadership Style Assessment – Least Preferred Coworkers Scale:

Fiedler developed a scale to rate the type of relationship a supervisor holds towards the least preferred coworkers on a twenty-item questionnaire. The supervisor is asked to describe the person with whom he has worked least well in accomplishing some task. The model postulates that a low LPC score (unfavorable avoidable evaluation) indicates the degree to which a leader is ready to reject those with whom he cannot work. Therefore, the lower the LPC score, the greater the tendency for the leader to be task oriented. On the other hand, a high LPC (favorable evaluation) indicates a willingness to perceive even the worst coworker as having some positive attributes. Therefore, the higher the LPC score, the greatest the tendency for the leader to be employee oriented.

Favorable Situation:

The situation is considered as highly favorable if it possess a high level of positive interpersonal relations between leaders and members, a well defined task structures and a leaders perceive that they are bestowed with strong perceived positional power. In such type of situation the leader will have a great deal of control over situations and will simply have to make sure that he gives the necessary instructions to get the task done. There is no need for him to waste time talking to each employee in order to be perceived as friendly. A task-oriented style will be effective in such situation.

Unfavorable Situation:

The situation is considered as highly unfavorable if it possesses a low level of interpersonal relationship between leaders and members, a poorly defined task and a relatively a weak perceived power. The leader of a task-force committee which is appointed to solve problems encountered in the work setting is likely to find him in such a situation. In such type of situation, the leader is in highly vulnerable situations and there is no other way to enforce a strict discipline and order to bring the situation in normalcy than following relationship oriented style.

Moderately Favorable Situation:

Here the leader might find herself in a mixed situation. For instance, a manager might have good relationship with her workers, but the task structure and position power of the leader may be low. For example, a bank officer may have a good relationship staff member, but the task structure or the power to control the staff members (either to reward or punish members) is not strong enough. In such situations, the manager will be very successful and get the desirable results if he follows more of relationships oriented style than task oriented task style.

The major findings of fielder are that the task-oriented leaders perform better than relationship oriented leaders in both extreme situations that are very favorable and those that are unfavorable. Relationship oriented leaders tend to perform better than task-oriented leaders in situations that are intermediate in favorableness. These findings suggest that each of the leadership style can be effective in certain situation. Fiedler also suggests that the organization can change the effectiveness of the group's performance by changing the favorableness of the situations or by changing the leader's preferred style through education and training.

Fiedler's contingency model has proven to be major addition to the study of leadership in organizations for a number of reasons. First, the contingency model was one of the first approaches to leadership that included situational factors within its theoretical framework. The model will probably continue to be an important source of new ideas, propositions and hypotheses about situational leadership. Second, it provides the subtle but important implication that one should not speak of leadership as being either good or poor. Rather, a more realistic viewpoint would be that a manager's style of leading may be effective in one situation but not in another. Finally, leadership effectiveness is a function of the leader's style and the interaction of situational factors. The organization may improve the effectiveness of a particular work environment either modifying the situational factors or attempting to change the manager's leadership style.

Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness:

A second situational theory of leadership has been proposed by House and Evan. The principle function of the leader is facilitating to increase valence perception of their subordinates and clarify and increase expectancy probabilities of them. This will in turn make them to put greater amount of effort and derive higher level of satisfaction and performance in their work. The theory is composed of two basic propositions such as i) role of the leader and ii) dynamics of the situation. The two main aspects of this model are as follows:

Leadership Role: Leader behavior is acceptable and satisfying to the extent that subordinates perceive such behavior as a source of satisfaction or instrumental to future satisfaction. There are four styles of leadership:

- **Directive Leadership Behavior:** This deals with planning, organizing, controlling and coordinating of subordinates activities by the leader. It is similar to the traditional dimension of initiating structure in that the leader's emphasis is on letting the subordinates know what is expected of them.
- **Supportive Leadership Behavior:** This concerns giving support consideration to the needs of the subordinates, displaying concern for their well-being and welfare and creating a friendly and pleasant environment.
- **Participative Leadership Behavior:** This deals with sharing of information and an emphasis on consultation with subordinates and use of their ideas and suggestions in reaching group-related decision.

- **Achievement-Oriented Leadership Behavior:** This deals with setting challenging goals, expecting subordinates to perform at the highest level, continually seeking improvement in performance. The leader wants good performance, but at the same time displays confidence in the ability of his subordinates to do a good job.

Dynamics of Situation:

The leadership style is determined by the situation in which the leader functions. Two main factors that influence the situational effectiveness of the leader's behavior are: a) the characteristics of the subordinates and b) the characteristics of his work environment, including task, work group and other organizational factors. The theory proposes that leader behavior will be perceived as acceptable to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behavior as either an immediate source of satisfaction or as needed for future satisfaction.

Characteristics of Subordinates:

Subordinates characteristics are seen to partially determine this perception. The following are the characteristics:

- **Ability:** This refers to the subordinates perception of his or own ability
- **Locus of Control:** This deals with the degree to which an employee believes that he or she has control of what happens to him. People who believe that they controlled their environment and who believe what happens to them occurs because of their behavior are called internal. People who believe what happens to them is not under their control and occurs because of luck or fate are externals.
- **Need and Motives:** A subordinate's dominant needs may affect the impact of leader behavior. For example, individuals with high safety and security needs may accept an instrumental leader style, but employees with high affiliation and esteem needs may react more positively to a supportive leader.

Characteristics of Work Environment:

There are three broad aspects work environment such as i) task structures, ii) primary work group and iii) formal authority system.

Path-Goal theory states that leaders can exercise four different kinds of styles such as directive leadership, supportive leadership, participative leadership and achievement oriented leadership. The Path-Goal theory postulates that any of the four styles can be used effectively by the leader, depending upon situational factors such as subordinate characteristics (ability internal or external locus of control, needs and motives), and attributes in the work setting (task characteristics, authority system and the nature of the primary work groups). If there is a good fit between the leadership style and the situational factors in the work setting, then subordinates will experience job satisfaction, accept and value the leader as a dispense or valued rewards and will engage in motivated behavior because they will know that their effort will lead to performance and that performance will lead to valued rewards.

The rationale behind the theory is that leader can help the subordinates to achieve their goals by providing what is missing in the situation. Employees are helped by the leader to see the path by which their efforts will lead to performance and performance to desired rewards. The leader can take care of the missing links in the situation and facilitate to fulfill the needs of the subordinates. This suggests that leaders should involve their subordinates as much as possible in goal setting. This will enhance a person's sense of control over the organization's goal and have significant benefits in terms of job satisfaction, self-esteem and self-efficacy as well as productivity improvement for the organization. Goals need to be difficult enough to be challenging and yet realistic and achievable. Goal setting needs to be consistent across everyone and over time.

Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle Model of Situation Leadership:

Hersey and Blanchard developed a situational model focusing on the followers characteristics. Successful leadership is achieved by selecting the right leadership style, which is contingent on the level of the followers' developmental level. It is the followers who accept or reject the leader, so that they are important factors in a leader's success.

Blanchard defined developmental level as the skill and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior. It consists of two components such as job maturity (Job competence – skills and abilities) and psychological maturity (motivation and willingness to take responsibility)

Situational Leadership Styles:

Situational leadership uses the same two leadership dimensions – task and relationship behavior. However, the situational leadership approach goes a step further by considering each as either high or low and then combining them into four specific leadership styles: Directing, Coaching, Supporting and Delegating.

- i) **Directing: (high directive – low supportive):** The leader defines roles and tells people what tasks to do and how, when and where to do them. It emphasizes directive behavior.
- ii) **Coaching: (high directive – high supportive):** The leader provides both directive behavior and supportive behavior)
- iii) **Supporting (low directive-high supportive):** The leader and follower share in decision-making, with the main role of the leader being facilitating and communicating.
- iv) **Delegating: (low directive-low supportive):** The leader provides little direction or support.

Followers Characteristics:

Besides identifying leadership behavior, the Situational Style Leadership model also identifies follower readiness or developmental level. The follower's readiness for a task is shown on a continuum ranging from D1 to D4. Two characteristics are used to identify

the level of readiness to complete the task such as i) ability and ii) willingness. The situational leadership model finds that different followers have different combinations of these two characteristics and different levels of development or readiness and capacity to complete the tasks. There are four developmental stages of followers.

- i) D1: Unwilling, insecure, and with the ability to perform the task.
- ii) D2: Willing, confident, and without the ability to perform the task.
- iii) D3: Unwilling, insecure and with the ability to perform the task
- iv) D4: Willing, confident and with the ability to perform the task.

Followers demonstrating either D4 or D3 behavior are able to direct their own behavior, whereas D2 or D1 followers need to be directed by the leader, hence, leaders need to be able to adapt their style of leadership to the situation and to the followers within their group. The leadership behavior is matched to the developmental level of the followers. As a result, no one particular style of leadership is the best. The decision to vary the style from leader-directed to task directed is dependent on the developmental level of the followers.

As followers reach high levels of development, the leader responds not only by continuing to decrease control over activities, but also by continuing to decrease supportive behavior. At stage D1, followers need clear and specific direction, the Directive style is highly suitable. At stage D2, both high directive and high supportive behavior is needed, coaching style is very much suitable. At stage D3, the followers face motivational problems that are best solved by a supportive, non-directive participative style. Finally at stage D4, the leader does not have to do much because followers are both willing and able to take responsibility.

Leader Behavior	Decision Style	Follower Behavior
D4 Delegating	Made by Follower	Willing, confident, able
D3 Participating	Made by leader and follower	Unwilling, insecure, able
D2 Coaching	Made by leader in consultation with follower	Willing, confident, unable
D1 Directing	Made by Leader	Unwilling, insecure, unable

Successful situational leadership recognizes and creates an effective combination of leadership style, the follower's developmental level and the situation. If a leader decides to change their leadership style, it is best to do this gradually. A change that is too dramatic can cause suspicion or resistance as people feel threatened by the new style. Leaders must work with followers and by their leadership style, affect the ability and willingness of others to perform. They also need to establish the support mechanism needed to let others develop their aptitude for the task, perform to their maximum ability and develop the confidence to match their level of willingness.

22.2.4 Transformation Leadership:

It is exercised when the leader intellectually stimulates the subordinates, excites, arouses and inspires them to perform far beyond what they would have thought themselves capable of. By providing a new vision, the transformational leader transforms the

followers into people who self-actualize. Charismatic leadership is central to transformational leaderships. These kinds of leaders guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements. There exists a kind of understanding between the leader and the follower that if the goals are achieved, the follower's own interests and desires will be rewarded.

This type of leader also pays attention to the concerns and developmental needs of individual followers: they change follower's awareness of issues by helping them to look at old problems in new ways; and they are able to excite, arouse and inspire followers to put extra effort in order to achieve group goals. In essence, most transformational leaders are also charismatic leaders because they are seen as heroic and as having a profound and extraordinary effect on their followers.

The following are the typical characteristics of Transformational Leader:

- i) Charisma: Provides vision, and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust
- ii) Inspiration: Communicates high expectations, use symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simple way
- iii) Intellectual stimulation: Promotes intelligence, rationality and careful problem solving
- iv) Individual Consideration: Gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches, advises.

The following are the typical characteristics of Transactional leaders.

- i) Contingent Reward: Contracts exchange of rewards for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognizes accomplishments
- ii) Management by exception: Watches and searches for deviations, form rules and standards, take corrective action
- iii) Laissez-faire: Abdicates responsibilities, avoided making directions.

22.2.5 Sources of Power:

Power is defined as the capacity to influence, the possession of delegated authority or an ability to act. According to French and Raven, individuals have five different social bases of power depending upon how they position their relationship with others. They are reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power and expert power. The first three types of power can be exercised because of the position in which one finds oneself in the organization and can be referred to as position power and the last two can be attributed more to the characteristics of the individual and referred to as personal power.

Legitimate Power:

It is held because the organization has given power and authority to the position held by the leader. This stems from the belief that the superior has the right to command the subordinate and expect that his or her orders will be obeyed. The employees accept the rights of persons holding higher offices to command because of the legitimate authority bestowed on the individual by the organization.

Reward Power:

It is held because the leader has the opportunity through the control of resources, either to give or withhold things wanted by others. A leader can use reward power well to reinforce effective behavior or badly to manipulate the behavior of others. The greater the rewards that the leader is perceived as having within his or her control to dispense to others, the greater will be the individual's ability to influence others through reward power.

Coercive Power:

It can be described as power which is exercised to manipulate the behavior of another by threatening to withhold desired rewards or punish the individual if the latter fails to comply with the wishes of the leader. In order to avoid the negative consequences, the individual will unwillingly obey the orders of the superior and perhaps develop a hostile attitude towards their leader. The strong presence of unions in organizations will restrict or weaken this power base.

Referent Power:

Its base is identification with a person who has desirable resources or personal traits. If a person has admirable, charismatic, attractive, and extraordinary characteristics, he can exercise power over others to get things done. The followers identify with the leader and more attracted towards his or personal charisma and they are pleased to act in ways desired by their leader.

Expert Power:

It is held because of the leader's knowledge, aptitude and ability. It comes from an individual's ability to direct another's behavior because of special knowledge or expertise that one person may be perceived to possess which others need and look for. An experienced software engineer will be able to influence his colleagues to things in a particular way because the staff members will look up to this software engineer as some one possess the knowledge, experience and judgment that the staff member lacks.

French and Raven make a distinction between expert power and information power. They describe information power as the influence that an individual exercises over another mainly because he has been able to logically convince another on the basis of coherent arguments or self-evident facts. They state that expert power is based the credibility accorded to the leader for his expertise whereas informational influence is based on the characteristics of the type of information.

Reward and coercive power will both lead to compliance. The former would result in satisfaction for person who complies if rewards are dispensed, and the latter will result in dissatisfaction. Referent power will lead to identification with these sources of influence and both parties are likely to experience satisfaction. Expert and legitimate power, on the other hand, help individuals to internalize the desired values. The behavior of individual will then be sustained even when the leader is not present in the setting.

22.3 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about leadership as a process of influencing others to get the job done effectively. We have also discussed about the theories of leadership and sources of power.

22.4 Lesson-end Activities

1. What are the major sources of power and its capacity to influence the followers?
2. Describe Hersey and Blanchard's Life Cycle Model of situational leadership style.
3. Explain the Path-goal model of leadership style and the effect of two intervening variables in choosing the appropriate styles of leadership.
4. Describe the trait theories and behavioral theories of leadership with suitable examples
5. Outline Fiedler's contingency model of leadership and its relevance in today business environment.

LESSON – 23

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE PROCESS

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23.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

On completion of this lesson, the students are able to:

- i) Understand the dynamics of change process and identify the various external and internal forces for the change process
- ii) Describe the various individual and organizational factors which are resisting the change process
- iii) Outline the strategies to overcome the resistance to the change process and its benefits to the organization.
- iv) Describe various approaches to managing organizational change process.

23.1 INTRODUCTION

Changes are constantly taking place in our environment. Changes occur outside organization that requires internal adaptation. The manager has to ensure that individual and groups in organizations, and structures, process and behaviors of sub-systems must adapt to the changing external and internal environments. In effect, the manager is a change agent who facilitates changes to occur in the various subsystems of the organization needed. Changes at the individual level can be facilitated by offering special training to particular employees to handle a new assignment. At group level, team building efforts can be initiated to operate interactively in a smooth and harmonious fashion so as to increase their effectiveness. Changes can be brought at the technological level through implementation of sophisticated and more effective machines or by better ways of doing things. At the structural level, job can be redesigned or new policies initiated which serve the needs of both employees and the organization. Changes at the

perceptual, attitudinal and behavioral levels can be brought about by changing the organizational climate. By being able to scan the internal and external environment of the organization and deciphering how changes in these environments are likely to widen the gap between desired and actual state of affairs (performance, productivity, customer satisfaction, employee satisfaction etc), the manager can become an effective change agent for introducing planned changes.

23.2 ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE PROCESS

23.2.1 FORCES FOR CHANGE

There are both external and internal forces that result in pressure for change,

External Forces:

The external forces that create the need for change come from various sources. Some of them are as follows:

Competitive Market Force:

Competition is changing. The global economy means that competitors are as likely to come from across the ocean as from across town. Heightened competition also means the established organizations need to defend themselves against both traditional competitors that develop new products and services and small, entrepreneurial firms with innovative offers. Successful organizations will be the ones that can change in response to the competitor.

Government laws and regulations:

These are frequent impetus for change. Creation of special economic zones and foreign direct investment in India sparked off major changes in the IT Industries, Insurance, and Car manufacturing industries. More foreign automobile industries are setting up manufacturing plants and generating more employment opportunities in India.

Technology:

It creates the need for change. For example, technological developments in sophisticated and extremely expensive diagnostic equipment have created significant economy of scale for hospitals and medical centers. Assembly-line technology is under going dramatic change as organizations replace human labor with robots. Even in the greetings card industry, electronic mail and internet have influenced the way people send greetings.

Labor Markets:

The fluctuation in labor markets forces managers to change. For instance, the demand for webpage designers and website managers made it necessary for organizations that need those kinds of employees to change their human resources management activities to attract and retain skilled employees in the areas of greatest need.

Economic Changes:

Economic changes affect almost all organization. The appreciation of rupee value against the US dollar affects the export prospects of knitwear products from India to America as

those products cost more to Americans. But even in strong economy, uncertainties about interest rates, government budgets deficits and current exchange rates create conditions that may force organizations to change.

Internal Forces:

Internal forces can also stimulate the need for change. These internal forces tend to originate primarily from the internal operations of the organizations or from the impact of external changes.

Structural factors:

A structural force would be the inability to transmit important information from the top of the organization to the lower level cadre. Because of numerous layers in the hierarchy, information moves slowly from one level to the next. This could be viewed as a process or a behavioral problem involving a failure to communicate effectively.

Strategy:

A redefinition or modification of an organization's strategy often introduces a host of change. The strategic move of Reliance Industries in getting into retail business in urban and rural markets made them to introduce a change in the managerial approach as well as the human relations approach to gain acceptance from the different cross section of the customers.

Organizations Workforce:

In recent times, the work force composition is varied and is not very static. Its composition changes in terms of age, education, sex and so forth. In a stable organization with a large pool of seasoned executives, there might be a need to restructure jobs in order to retain younger managers who occupy lower ranks. The compensation and benefit system might also need to be adapted to reflect the needs of an older work force

Technology:

The introduction of new equipment represents another internal force for change. Employees may have their jobs redesigned, they need to undergo training on how to operate the new equipment or they may be required to establish new interactions patterns with their work group.

Employee Attitudes:

Employee attitudes such as increased job satisfaction may lead to increased absenteeism, more voluntary resignations, and even labor strikes. Such events will often lead to changes in management policies and practices.

23.2.2 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

In planning for change, the team leaders must take into consideration the various factors on which the members exhibit their resistance to implement the change process. For example, the company wanted to install a new software program in cash counter computer terminals to facilitate the fast movement. But some employees may not respond favorably and display their refusal to cooperate by increasing absenteeism, sub-standard

work, joining of union increased labor turn over etc. Resistance to change can also be a source of functional conflict. For example, resistance to a reorganization plan or a change in a product line can stimulate a healthy debate over the merits of the idea and result in a better decision.

Resistance can be overt, implicit, immediate or deferred. It is the easiest for management to deal with resistance when it is overt and immediate such as employees strike, work slowdown etc. The greater challenge is managing resistance that is implicit or deferred. Such as loss of loyalty to the organization, loss of motivation to work, increased errors or mistakes increased absenteeism etc. .

Individual Resistance

Individual sources of resistance to change lie in basic human characteristics such as perceptions, personalities and needs.

- **Habit:** The team members are habituated or conditioned to do their job or activity in a particular way. When they are asked to do differently, they tend to respond to resist change. When employees are asked to move to new office building across the town, they are likely to change their routine habits like waking up ten minutes earlier, finding new parking place, adjusting to new office layout, developing new lunch time routine etc.
- **Security:** The team members with a high need for security are likely to resist change because it threatens their feelings of safety. When Indian Railway introduced new online booking for their reservations, employees may have similar fears.
- **Economic Factors:** If the members feel that the new changes result in lower pay, they may likely to resist change process. Changes in jobs or established work routine can also arouse economic fears if people are concerned that they won't be able to perform the new tasks or routines to their previous standards, especially when the pay is closely tied to productivity.
- **Fear of the Unknown:** The cashiers or secretaries might fear the new activities due to lack of knowledge in operating the new software program. They might develop a negative attitude towards working with new programs or behave dysfunctionally if required to use them. Employees in organizations hold the same dislike for uncertainty. For example, if an organization introduced TQM, the production employees will have to learn statistical process control techniques. Therefore, they may develop a negative attitude towards TQM or behavior dysfunctionally if required to use statistical techniques.
- **Selective Information Processing:** Once the team members shape their world through their own way, they prefer to do their work based on their perceptions. If the change process demands to follow the new method, the members tend to resist. So individuals are guilty of selectively processing information in order to keep their perception intact. They hear what they want to hear. They ignore information that challenges the world they have created.

Organizational Resistance

Some organizations prefer to follow their routine and reluctant to venture new things or follow any new methods of doing. Government agencies want to continue doing what they have been doing for years, whether the need for their service changes or remains the same. Six major sources of organizational resistance have been identified. They are as follows:

- **Structural Inertia:** Organizations have built in mechanisms to produce stability. For instance, the training and orientation programs reinforce specific role requirements and skills. Formalization provides job descriptions, rules and procedures for employees to follow. Once the routine has been established, organization is very reluctant to adapt to new changes. When an organization is confronted with the change process, the team members tend to resist.
- **Limited Focus of Change:** The change process is interlinked. One activity cannot be changed with out affecting the others. If change is introduced in technology without considering the structural changes, the change in technology is not likely to be accepted. Organizations are made up of number of interdependent subsystems.
- **Group Inertia:** Some times the group norm or standards could act as a constraint. For example, the union norms may dictate resistance to change process.
- **Threat to Expertise:** The change process could threaten the expertise of team members of the groups. Once the members feel that they are forced to learn something new, they tend to resist. The introduction of decentralized personal computers, which allow managers to gain access to information directly from a company's mainframe, is an example of a change that was strongly resisted by many information system departments in the 1980s. Because of decentralized end-user computing was a threat to the specialized skills held by those in the centralized information system departments
- **Threat to Established Power Relationship:** The change process can threaten long-established power relationships within the organization. Due to this reason, the members can resist the change.
- **Threat to established resource allocation:** The group, which enjoys sizable resources, may not like to accept the change process that facilitates reduction in their budget.

23.2.3 OVERCOMING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

John Kotter and Leonard Schlesinger offered six ways of overcoming resistance to change, which are highly situation dependent. More than one of these techniques may be used in any given situations.

- **Education and Communication:** If the logic and advantages of the change are explained early to the team members, resistance can be reduced. This can be achieved

through one-to-one discussions, memos, group presentations, or reports. This tactic assumes that the source of resistance lies in misinformed or poor communication. If the team members received the full facts and have their misunderstanding cleared up, their resistance will subside. Once people have bought into the idea, they will implement the change. The only problem is that this could be a very time-consuming process, if too many people are to be communicated with.

- **Participation and Involvement:** Resistance to change can be reduced or eliminated by having those involved participate in the decision of the change through meetings and induction. It is difficult for individuals to resist a change decision in which they participated. Once people have had an opportunity to contribute ideas and become a part of the change process, they will be less inclined to see it fail. However, working in committees or task forces is a time-consuming activity, and hence it will take a longer time to bring about changes.
- **Facilitation and Support:** Easing the change process and providing support for those caught up in it is another way managers can deal with resistance. Retraining programs, allowing time off after a difficult period, and offering emotional support and understanding may help. This emotional support can be given through empathic listening, offering training and other types of help. Such facilitation and emotional support help individuals to deal more effectively with their adjustment problems. This process can be time-consuming and there is no guarantee that it will always work.
- **Negotiation and Agreement:** It is sometimes necessary for a team leader to negotiate with potential resistance or exchange something of value for a lessening of the resistance. For instance, if the resistance is from a few powerful individuals in the team, a specific reward package can be negotiated that will meet their individual needs. Though in some instances this may be the relatively easy way to gain acceptance, it is possible that this could be an expensive way of effecting changes as well. Also, if the use of this strategy becomes public knowledge, others might also want to try to negotiate before they accept the change.
- **Manipulation and Co-optation:** The team leader seeks to 'buy off' the key members who are resisting by giving them an important role in the change decision. The team leader's advice is sought, not to arrive at a better decision but to get their endorsement. Some of the co-opting tactics include selectively sharing information and consciously structuring certain types of events that would win support. This can be a quick and relatively easy and inexpensive strategy to gain support. However, the purpose will be defeated if people feel they are being manipulated.
- **Explicit and Implicit Coercion:** The team leaders can force the members to go along with changes by threats involving loss or transfers of jobs, lack of promotion, etc. Such methods, though not uncommon, are more difficult to gain support for future change efforts. This strategy can be particularly resorted to when changes have to be speedily enforced or when changes are of a temporary nature. Though speedy and

effective in the short run, it may make people angry and resort to all kinds of mean behaviors in the long run.

23.2.4 APPROACHES TO MANAGING ORGANIZATION CHANGE

Kurt Lewin argued that successful change in organizations should follow three steps

- i) Unfreezing the status quo
- ii) Movement to a new state
- iii) Refreezing the new change to make it permanent.

Unfreezing:

It is actually the process of preparing the system for change through disconfirmation of the old practices, attitudes, tendencies, or behaviors. This is the initial phase where those involved in the change experience a need for something different and a sense of restlessness with the status quo. In essence, the feeling that the system is hurting itself badly now and desperately requires a change to survive, is sensed by all. Initiative for changes efforts are taken to overcome the pressures of both individual resistance and group conformity.

Movement to a new state:

Changing or moving is the phase where the changes that have been planned are actually initiated and carried out. Changes could relate to the mission, strategy, objectives, people, tasks, work roles, technology, structure, corporate culture, or any other aspects of the organization. Well thought out changes have to be carefully implemented with participation of the members who will be affected by the change. Changes incorporated too quickly without adequate preparation will result in resistance to change.

Refreezing:

It is the last phase of the planned change process. Refreezing ensures that the planned changes that have been introduced are working satisfactorily, that any modifications, extra considerations, or support needed for making the changes operational are attended to, and that there is reasonable guarantee that the changes will indeed fill the gap and bring the system to the new, desired state of equilibrium. This necessarily implies that the results are monitored and evaluated, and wherever necessary corrective measures are taken up to reach the new goal. If the refreezing phase is neglected or temporarily attended to, the desired results will not ensure and the change may even be total disaster.

Forced Field Analysis:

Kurt Lewin stated that there are two types of forces operating in the change process. I) Those forces which prepare or make the system ready for changes to occur, are called as driving forces, ii) Those forces which oppose or operate against changes taking place in the system, are called as restraining forces. If the two sets of forces are equal in strength, then the systems is in a state of equilibrium and changes will not occur. If the driving forces are stronger than the restraining forces, then the system will be changing to find a new equilibrium as the gap to be filled gets narrowed down. A more viable option is to

reduce existing resistance by dealing with and minimizing the forces that resist the change. In practice, a combination of both strategies – reducing the restraining factors and increasing the driving forces often ensures best results.

23.2.5 EMOTIONAL RESPONSES TO CHANGE:

The four emotional phases people experience when going through change are as follows: denial, resistance, exploration and commitment.

Denial:

During the initial stages, the members deny the need for change and remain in a state of numbness. They work as usual and there is no progress exists. Employees focus on the known and neglecting themselves future. The way or need to change is not explored. Employees have ignored the signals of the new changes and managers have not given them a real chance to register their worries and reaction. During the denial phase, managers need to provide information, to communicate clearly the details and reasons for the change, and to encourage employees to ask questions.

Resistance:

The employees experience the self-doubt, anger, depression, anxiety, frustration, fear and uncertainty that accompany major changes. They think about leaving the organization, availing sick leave, accidents occur and work-related illness increase etc. During this phase, managers need to allow people to express their negativity, their personal fears and worries and to encourage them to share their problems with other colleagues.

Exploration:

During this phase, the employees begin to think things are improving and show a renewed interest in work and cooperation begin to happen, which results in more creativity and more positive feelings within the group. Employees focus the external environment and less on internal conflict and worries. Exciting creative ideas and new bonds can emerge among employees who work together on new and powerful ideas.

Commitment:

In the commitment phase, employees often create or revitalize their mission and develop action plan to make it work. People identify with their objectives and are willing to put in extra effort to achieve them. In this final stage, it is important to develop point in systems and structures which reinforce these changes and make them permanent.

Advantages of this Model:

This model can help to predict and to understand employees' reactions during changes. It can be used to assess where individuals and teams stand in relation to the change grid. Sometimes it can be useful for top managers who are in the exploration phase to become aware that many colleagues in the organization might be in the resistance or denial phase. This model can also be used to help design a strategy to implement change.

23.2.6 IMPLEMENTING SUCCESSFUL CHANGE

In order to implement a successful change, a due care must be taken for the following factors.

i) **Pressure for Change:**

Pressure for change is necessary otherwise employees will never place a high priority on the desired change. Pressure to perform can come from external sources such as government legislation, political requirements, funding constraints, or increased competition. Major problems such as customer dissatisfaction or poor quality can result in pressure to change. Internal pressure can come about from CEO setting new directions or employees indicating dissatisfaction by leaving the organization. Without this pressure, the change will become low priority change.

ii) **A clear, shared vision:**

This helps the employees to understand the purpose for the change and to gain a commitment to it. Employees need to feel a sense of involvement and to identify with the vision, rather than just being dictated to them. Managers must find ways to communicate the vision clearly to all employees. If the vision is not understood or shared, employees may not be able to focus their effort in the intended direction.

iii) **Actionable first steps:**

This facilitates the employees to start the change process immediately. Even a small wins attained by the employees will be encouraged and allows employees to feel a positive sense of achievement and the beginning of the problem. They are then willing to invest more time and energy.

iv) **Capacity for change:**

This refers to the resources and skills necessary to implement the change adequately. Managers need to plan and budget for the implementation of the change. Adequate time is allowed to the employees to participate in the change program.

v) **Model the way:**

This refers to the leader and manager of the organization putting into practice the values and behavior that reflect the vision. The managers' action must be consistent with his works; otherwise the employees will become cynical and distrustful. Managers need to operate with integrity and sincerity so that employees see the actions of their managers as example of what is expected of them

vi) **Reinforce /solidify the change:**

Management must offer adequate rewards and appreciation to their employees for successful implementation of the changes and process and getting the

expected results. These can also involve solidifying the change by changing the procedure and process so that change becomes a regular part of the operation.

- vii) **Evaluate and improve:** The program must be evaluated thoroughly and improve the change program after it has been under way for a time. Due to negligence of this process, the change programs are sloppy or superficial. As result, programs are discontinued or abandoned based on the personal feelings or lack of budget. Surveys and baseline measure should be gathered at the beginning of the program and repeated once the program has been running for one to two years.

23.3 Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have discussed about the organizational change process. There are both external and internal forces that result in pressure for change. We have also learnt about the ways of overcoming resistance to change.

23.4 Lesson-End Activities

1. What are the key factors to be considered while implementing a successful change program?
2. Describe the various emotional responses to change process.
3. Explain Kurt Lewins' three step change process and the types of constraints in each of these stages.
4. Describe the individual level resistance factors and organizational level resistance factors which restrain the implementation of change process.
5. What are the techniques to overcome resistance to change in the hierarchical order?
6. What are the internal and external factors which force an organization to implement change process forces which force

LESSON – 24

ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION

Contents

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24.0 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

On completion of this lesson, the students may be able to

- i) Understand the importance of OD Interventions strategies for enhancing organizational effectiveness
- ii) Implement the Individual level OD Interventions to improve the self-awareness level of the employees.
- iii) Able to maintain effective interpersonal relationship between and among their colleagues once the group level OD Intervention is implemented at their work place.
- iv) Understand the MBO and Grid concepts and able to facilitate to set goals and review its process more effectively.

24.1 INTRODUCTION

Organization Development refers to all on-going developmental efforts which are oriented towards making the organization and its members effective. Organization Development connotes the continuous planned efforts that are made to enhance the structural, processual and people aspects of the system. Such systematic efforts ensure the organization's survival and growth by enhancing the quality of work life and the quality of life of the employees in general. In a sense, OD makes the difference between being and becoming. Being aspect reflects a static state of things as they currently are and the becoming aspect denotes a developmental aspect of constantly experiencing a state of growing, developing and reaching new heights. Organizations develop and grow and so do individuals, groups, and society itself. Thus, OD signifies a planned growth and developmental strategy for organization, making use of behavioral science, organization theory, comparative management, and other fields of scientific knowledge. Currently

more behavioral science knowledge and techniques are used as intervention mechanisms, that is, techniques to bring about the desired changes

24.2 Organisation Development

The OD paradigm values human and organizational growth, collaborative and participative process and a spirit of enquiry. The change agent may be directive in OD; however, there is a strong emphasis on collaboration. Concepts such as power, authority, control, conflict and coercion are held in relatively low esteem among OD change agents.

The following are some of the key values in most OD efforts:

- Respect for people: Individuals are perceived as being responsible, conscientious and caring. They should be treated with dignity and respect
- Trust and support: The effective and healthy organizations is characterized by trust, authenticity, openness and supportive climate
- Power equalization: Effective organizations de-emphasize hierarchical authority and control.
- Confrontation: Problems should not be swept under the carpet. They should be openly confronted
- Participation: The more the people who will be affected by a change are involved in the decisions surrounding that change, the more they will be committed to implementing those decisions.

24.3 OD Interventions

Potential Areas for OD Interventions:

OD efforts are useful wherever problems and tensions exist. Areas where OD interventions help encompasses the people side of the organization, the technical and job related aspects and the structural aspects. Certain OD techniques are also available to obtain information about how effective the organization is perceived to be by significant others and how its effectiveness can be increased. All these areas are interrelated. OD interventions can be at the i) individual or intra-personal level, ii) dyadic level, iii) group level, iv) family level.

Some of the OD interventions to address “people concern” are sensitivity training, transactional analysis, process consultation and third party peace making, team building, individual counseling, life and career planning, role clarification. Areas for interventions in the technical and job related aspects include the examination of workflow interdependencies, job evaluation job redesigning. OD intervention aimed at socio-technical systems cover flexible work hour’s for better productivity, offering job sharing, job evaluation and role analysis techniques..

24.4 INDIVIDUAL INTERVENTION ACTIVITIES

There are numerous individually oriented interventions techniques and activities available to managers. Among them are life and career planning programs, various training activities and sensitivity training.

Sensitivity or laboratory Training

Sensitivity training or T-groups is unstructured small group interaction form which participants learn about their personal styles, how they communicate and how they are perceived by others. This information is obtained from the feedback that group members offer. A group is initially formed and left to them to interact with each other as they sit in a circle. The primary objectives of T-group training are as follows:

- To increase understanding, insight and self-awareness about one's behavior and its impact on others.
- To increase understanding and sensitivity about the behavior of others
- To improve understanding and awareness of group and inter-group processes
- To improve diagnostic skills in interpersonal and inter-group situations
- To increase ability to transform learning into action
- To improve an individual's ability to analyze his or her own interpersonal behavior.

There are three types of sensitivity groups such as stranger, cousin and family. The stranger's group would include members who do not know each other. The cousin group consists of members of the same organization who do not work together. The family group includes member who belong to the same work unit. These groups meet with a trainer. The trainer may structure the content and discuss or may decide to follow an informal or nonstructural format, allowing the group to proceed as they desire. It stresses 'the process rather than the content of training and focuses upon emotional rather conceptual training. The group meets away from the job and engages in an intense exchange of ideas, opinion, beliefs and philosophy.

The group members then become open and talk about themselves and get feedback on how others perceive them. As the group members meet more often, they become more comfortable in opening themselves up and in giving and receiving feedback. The T-group leader or trainer simply facilitate the agenda less group sessions when the group gets struck or stays away from the main goal of learning about themselves. Different individual react differently to the T-group or sensitivity training sessions. People, who are more open to feedback, learn more about themselves in several of the lab sessions and acquire increased self-awareness. They become more attentive to the feelings of others and more sensitive to cues form others.

Life and Career Planning:

According to Super, there are five identifiable life stages that a person moves through in his life:

- i) Growth (from conception to 15 years),
- ii) Exploration (15 to 25 years)
- iii) Establishment (25 to 40 years)
- iv) Maintenance (45 to retirement form a job)
- v) Decline

The organizational career involves primarily the establishment and maintenance stage. It is during these stages that individuals utilize their sills and abilities to perform certain job related tasks. Organization can develop life and career planning programs to develop

individual's skills and abilities. The employees will be asked to do certain life and career planning exercises such as preparing life inventory of important events. Writing about themselves, etc. Such activities encourage individual to plan their careers more carefully. It appears that some type of life and career planning is congruent with the notion that clear and challenging career goals can motivate an individual.

24.5 GROUP AND TEAM INTERVENTION ACTIVITIES

In order to consistently accomplish organization and individual goals, it is necessary for people to work together. Probably the single most important interventions approach that is concerned with the effective function in groups is team-building activities. Other intervention such as survey feedback, process consultation etc are aimed at improving the team effectiveness.

Team Building:

Team building as an OD intervention strategy is aimed at improving intra and inter-group effectiveness. The team building activities may revolve around enhancing between interaction modes, sharing resources more effectively, forming temporary task forces, and acquiring skills for accomplishing the task as a team or teams of interacting members. The intra-group as well as inter-group efforts focus on such aspects as problems solving, role clarification, goal setting, improving boss-subordinates relationships, conflict resolutions, managing group process and understating the organizational culture. Extensive clarifications take place in role expectations, goals to be accomplished and resources sharing among members of a team or between them.

The consultant role in team building includes interviewing the group members in advance before working with them as a group, creating the environment to make it a constructive and psychologically safe place for members to interact and to help the group to examine its norms. Team building is both a time-consuming and exhausting interventions technique, but very useful if skillfully managed. Team building can be applied within groups or at the inter-group level where activities are interdependent. The objective is to improve coordinative efforts of members, which will result in an increase in the team's performance. Team building can also address itself to clarifying each member's role on each team. Each role can be identified and clarified. Previous ambiguities can be brought to the surface. For some individuals, it may offer one of the few opportunities they have had to think through thoroughly what their jobs is all about and what specific tasks types are expected to carry out if the team is to optimize its effectiveness.

Survey Feedback:

Survey feedback research involves the process of systematically collecting data about a group or the organization primarily through self-report questionnaire. Occasionally, interviews and records of the unit being studied are used. The collected data are analyzed and feed back to the group for analysis, interpretation and corrective action if needed. The entire process has two major components: the attitude survey and small discussion workshops. Three significant steps are involved in survey feedback.

- i) Members holding primary position in the organization plan what data need to be collected

- ii) Data are collected from all the members of the organization
- iii) Data are analyzed and feed back to the top executives and down the hierarchy in team.

These feedback sessions are done by a consultant who serves as a resource person and prepares the superior to share the data with his immediate subordinates. The group members are asked to interpret the data, what constructive changes seem necessary, and how they should be brought about. Based on these discussions with each group, the commonly recurring ones are dealt with through the help of a reconstituted group of members.

The survey feedback is a good diagnostic tool which can be used for several types of intervention such as team building. The survey technique provides useful data about the system. The feedback technique helps the organization to work with the data in a manner which helps the system. The survey feedback is an effective intervention strategy since people realize that they are working with data that they themselves have provided.

Process Consultation:

The purpose of process consultation is for an outside consultant to assist a client, usually a manager to perceive, understand and act upon process events with which they must deal. These might include workflow, informal relationships among unit members and formal communication channels. For instance, it is certainly important to specify the channels of communication in an organization system so that people know whether they can communicate only through hierarchical levels or whether they can pass on information horizontally. However, having laid down the structure, the manager cannot always expect that the expected behaviors and results will automatically follow. Attention has to be paid to the process by which communication takes place. Are people friendly with each other in communication or do they take adversative positions? How do they understand each other? etc.

Process consultation requires a combination of skills in establishing helping relationships, knowing what kinds of process to look for in organizations and intervening in ways to improve organizational process. The essence of process consultation is that a skilled consultant works with the managers, individual and groups in the system to develop their process skills – that is, diagnose, understand, and resolve process-related problems. This involves sensitizing the individual about issues such as how people get along with each other, how conflicts are resolved, styles of interactions among departments and so on. The members of the organization are made aware of organization process that enhance and obstruct their effectiveness. They also then learn how to bring about necessary changes so that the organization becomes a more effective system.

Process consultation is similar to sensitivity training in its assumption that organizational effectiveness can be improved by dealing with interpersonal problems and it emphasizes involvement. But process consultant is more task-directed than sensitivity training.

Third-Party Peacemaking:

Third-party peacemaking focuses on interventions by a third party to resolve conflict situations. The fundamental aspect of third-party peacemaking is for the consultant (third party) to make the two disagreeing parties to confront or face up to the fact that a conflict does not exist and that it is impairing the effectiveness of both. The consultant facilitates the significant issues involved in the conflict to surface by using the right intervention strategies.

By wisely choosing the place, selecting the proper environment, using effective interventions strategies, and setting an appropriate agenda for the meeting, the third party can help the parties in conflict to own up to their problems and find solutions. In case there is a dispute over scarce resources sharing, the consultant will concentrate on the parties engaging in problem solving through rational bargaining behaviors. If the conflicting situation is based on emotional issues, the consultant might have to work hard at restructuring the perceptions and facilitate understanding between the parties involved.

24.6 ORGANIZATIONAL INTERVENTION ACTIVITIES:

These are organizational change and development intervention that can have an organization-wide impact. Two of the most popular and widely used interventions are management by objectives (goal setting) and the managerial grid. Both these interventions have a common sense appeal to manage and are generally considered worthwhile endeavors for improving behavior and performance.

Management by Objectives.

Peter Druker defines MBO is process whereby the superior and subordinate manager of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibilities, interest of the results expected of him and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contributions of each of its members.

The following are the series of interrelated and interdependent steps of MBO Process.

Step I: Diagnosis for MBO Readiness: A through analysis of its people, the history of change, jobs, technology, mission, plan and strategy of the company will be carried out in advance to make the organization in a readiness state

Step II: Preparation for MBO: Initiative has to be taken to involve all the members to participate in this exercise through active interaction. Certain facilities such as proper communication system, formal training and development, establishing action plans, developing criteria for assessing effectiveness have to be created.

Step III: Objective Setting: Special attention has to be paid to clarify the objectives of individuals, departments, division and organization. The superiors and subordinates must

participate and jointly set the goals and objectives and prioritizes those objectives based on the importance and weight ages

Step IV: Intermediate Review: This review will facilitate to modify the original objectives considering the limitations or getting feedback on the process.

Step V: Final Review and Analysis of Results: An intensive analysis is taken up to review its results and initiate the next complete cycle of objective setting

Step VI: Achieving Results: The accomplishment of better planning, control, and organization through motivated involvement, based on achieved results instead of personality and popularity.

There are four key principles of MBO:

- i) MBO requires the involvement of superiors and subordinates. The subordinates may be involved in a dyadic relationship, one superior-one subordinate, or in group arrangements of one superior and more than one subordinate.
- ii) MBO relies heavily on feedback, with needs to focus on results and should be as closely connected to behavior and performance as possible
- iii) The crucial first step in any MBO program should be a thorough diagnosis of here job, the participants and the needs of the organization.
- iv) The superior must be competent in counseling the subordinate on the achieved results and the expected or agreed to results for the next cycle.

Benefits of MBO:

The following are some of the benefits of MBO program:

- i) Increased short and long range planning,
- ii) A procedure for monitoring work progress and results
- iii) Improved commitment to the organization because of increased motivation, loyalty and participation of employees
- iv) Improved communication between superiors and subordinates
- v) An improved organizational climate in general that encourages improvements in performance.

Managerial Grid:

The managerial grid model proposes two assumptions about managerial behavior (1) concern for production specifies a manager's concern for accomplishing productive task, such as quality, quantity and efficiency of output, and (2) concern for people designates a manager's interest and concern for the personal worth of subordinates, the equity of the reward and evaluation systems, and the nurturing of social relationships. In the managerial grid framework, the manager who shows a high concern for both production and people is the most effective manager in an organizational setting. Blake and Mouton display the relationship between the production and people concerns on a 9 by 9 grid, which enables them to plot eighty one possible combinations of managerial concern.

The managerial style of an executive can be assessed by a questionnaire which measures the concern for production and people. By scoring the questionnaire responses, it is

assumed that where a manager fits in the eighty one cell grid can be determined. But the emphasis is given on five major dimensions:

- i) **Impoverished Management (1, 1)** – This style displays little concern for either production or people. Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.
- ii) **Task Management (9, 1)** – This emphasizes completing jobs within time, quality and budgetary constraints. Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.
- iii) **Middle-of-the-road Management (5, 5)** – The manager attempts show at least a moderate amount of concern for both production and people. Adequate organization performance is possible thorough balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.
- iv) **Country Club Management (1, 9)** – Manager gives much attention to people while production tasks are overshadowed. Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a friendly organizational atmosphere and work tempo.
- v) **Team Management (9, 9)** – The manager using this style attempts to help subordinates satisfy self-actualization, autonomy and esteem needs; develops an atmosphere of trust and supportiveness and emphasis task accomplishment. Work accomplished from committed people, interdependence through a common stake in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

24.7 Let us Sum Up

In this unit, we have learnt about the importance of OD interventions and group level interventions.

24.8 Lesson-End Activities

1. Why the managerial grid is considered a comprehensive interventions activity?
2. Would an advocate of contingency approach to change and development support the managerial grid ideal style of 9, 9? Why?
3. What are some of the key principles to remember when considering MBO as a possible intervention activity?
4. What is the different between a sensitivity training and a team building intervention?
5. Explain the process consultation techniques and its method of implementation
6. Describe the survey feedback technique as a OD Intervention aimed at improving group process