

ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

BBA SECOND YEAR

Semester – 3

Lesson Writers

Dr. V. Tulasi Das,

MBA, MHRM, BGL, PGDPM, M.Phil., Ph.D.
Associate Professor,
Dept. of HRM,
Acharya Nagarjuna University,
Nagarjuna Nagar, Guntur.

Dr. M. Rama Satyanarayana

MHRM, M.Com., MBA, M.Phil., Ph.D.
Faculty,
Dept. of HRM,
Acharya Nagarjuna University,
Nagarjuna Nagar, Guntur.

Dr. K. Madhu Babu

MHRM, MSW, MA(Eco), PGDAS, M.Phil., Ph.D.
Faculty,
Dept. of HRM,
Acharya Nagarjuna University,
Nagarjuna Nagar, Guntur.

Dr. V. Naga Nirmala,

MBA, M.Com., MIB, M.Phil., Ph.D.
Faculty,
Dept. of HRM,
Acharya Nagarjuna University,
Nagarjuna Nagar, Guntur.

Lesson Writer & Editor

Dr. NAGARAJU BATTU

MBA, MHRM, LLM, M.Sc.(Psy), M.A.(Soc), M.Ed., M.Phil., Ph.D.
Associate Professor,
Dept. of HRM, Acharya Nagarjuna University.

Director

Dr. NAGARAJU BATTU

Centre for Distance Education,
Acharya Nagarjuna University,
Nagarjuna Nagar 522 510, GUNTUR.

Ph : 0863 - 2346208, 2346222, 2346259 (Study Material)

Website : www.anucde.info

e-mail : anucdedirector@gmail.com

BBA SECOND YEAR Semester - 3
ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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FOREWORD

Since its establishment in 1976, Acharya Nagarjuna University has been forging ahead in the path of progress and dynamism, offering a variety of courses and research contributions. I am extremely happy that by gaining a 'A' Grade from the NAAC in the year 2014, the Acharya Nagarjuna University is offering educational opportunities at the UG, PG levels apart from research degrees to students from over 285 affiliated colleges spread over the two districts of Guntur and Prakasam.

The University has also started the Centre for Distance Education with the aim to bring higher education within reach of all. The centre will be a great help to those who cannot join in colleges, those who cannot afford the exorbitant fees as regular students, and even housewives desirous of pursuing higher studies. With the goal of bringing education in the door step of all such people. Acharya Nagarjuna University has started offering B.A, and B, Com courses at the Degree level and M.A, M.Com., L.L.M., courses at the PG level from the academic year 2021-22 on the basis of Semester system.

To facilitate easier understanding by students studying through the distance mode, these self-instruction materials have been prepared by eminent and experienced teachers. The lessons have been drafted with great care and expertise in the stipulated time by these teachers. Constructive ideas and scholarly suggestions are welcome from students and teachers invited respectively. Such ideas will be incorporated for the greater efficacy of this distance mode of education. For clarification of doubts and feedback, weekly classes and contact classes will be arranged at the UG and PG levels respectively.

It is aim that students getting higher education through the Centre for Distance Education should improve their qualification, have better employment opportunities and in turn facilitate the country's progress. It is my fond desire that in the years to come, the Centre for Distance Education will go from strength to strength in the form of new courses and by catering to larger number of people. My congratulations to all the Directors, Coordinators, Editors and Lesson -writers of the Centre who have helped in these endeavours.

Prof. P.Rajasekhar
Vice –Chancellor,
Acharya Nagarjuna University

B.B.A SEMESTER – III

306 BBA21 – ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Objective of the Course structure : The course is structured in such a way that after understanding the importance of human resources management in an organization, it is also important to understand human behavior in any system. When an individual enters an organization his / her behavior as an individual in response to the new environment needs to be understood. Also his behavioural responses in a group are important, since an organization is nothing but a group of individuals working together to achieve objectives. Finally his response to the culture and systems of the organization are again significant aspects.

SYLLABUS :

Unit – I : INTRODUCTION

Introduction to Organisational Behaviour, the OB Model, Roles of Manager in OB, Challenges and opportunities for OB.

Unit – II : THE INDIVIDUAL

Foundation of Individual Behaviour : Concepts of Motivation, Personality, Values.

Unit – III :

Attitudes, Perception, Learning, Individual Decision – Making and Problem – Solving.

Unit – IV : THE GROUP

Foundation of Group Behaviour : Concepts related to Communication, Leadership , Power and Politics, Work Teams and Group Dynamics, Transaction Analysis, Johari Window Model.

Unit – V : THE ORGANISATION

Foundation of the organization : Concepts related to Organization Structure, Organization Culture, Organization Change & Deelopment, Organizational Conflict and Discipline.

Suggested Readings :

Organizational Behaviour – Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A Judge, Seema Sanghi.

Organizational Behaviour – L M Prasad.

Organizational Behaviour, Human Behaviour at work – Johm W Newstorm.

Management & Organizational Behaviour – Laurie J Mullins.

MODEL QUESTION PAPER
BBA SECOND YEAR
Semester - 3
ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Time: Three hours

Max. Marks: 70

SECTION – A

(5 x 4 = 20 Marks)

Write short answer for any **FIVE** of the following questions.

1. Write the key elements of organisational behaviour.
2. Write any five uses of studying organisational behaviour.
3. Write a brief note on personal biographical factors.
4. Write a short note on national economic man.
5. Define perception and write a brief note on perception.
6. Explain the process of communication.
7. Write about Johari window model.
8. Write a short note on organisational culture.

SECTION B

(5 x 10 = 50 Marks)

Answer the following questions.

9. (a) What are the major challenges facing today's organisations and managements?
Or
(b) Describe how O.B. is an inter – disciplinary subject.
10. (a) Why should managers give importance in understanding human behaviour?
Or
(b) Explain how motivation plays a vital role in organisational development.

11. (a) Explain the process of decision making.

Or

(b) Explain the factors that motivate learning process.

12. (a) Write an essay on group dynamics.

Or

(b) Write the barriers of communication.

13. (a) Write the reasons behind organisational conflict.

Or

(b) What factors influence the organisational change and development ?

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LESSON - 1

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To learn about Organisational Behavior
- ✓ To know the Importance of OB
- ✓ To study about the objectives of OB
- ✓ To cram the goals of OB

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Importance of Organisational Behavior
- 1.3 Major Factors of Organisational Behavior
- 1.4 Objectives of Organisational Behavior
- 1.5 Concept of Organisational Behavior
- 1.6 Models of Organisational Behavior
- 1.7 Ethical Perspective on Organisational Behavior
- 1.8 Organisational Behavior – Goals
- 1.9 Processes to Modify and Integrate Organisational Behavior
- 1.10 Organisational Behavior – Significance
- 1.11 Summary
- 1.12 Keywords
- 1.13 Self - Assessment Questions
- 1.14 Suggested Readings

1.1 INTRODUCTION :

Everything you need to know about organisational behaviour. The field of organisational behaviour deals with human behaviour in organisation.

It is the multidisciplinary field that seeks knowledge of behaviour in organisational settings by objective based on studying individual, group and organisational processes.

The role and field of organisation behaviour is not only concerned with a particular organisation. The concepts and approaches of organisation behaviour are also more concerned with the society.

According to L. M. Prasad, “Organisational behavior can be defined as the study and application of knowledge about human behavior related to other elements of an organisation such as structure, technology and social systems.”

Organizational Behavior (OB) can be defined as the understanding, prediction and management of human behavior both individually or in a group that occur within an organization. Internal and external perspectives are the two theories of how organizational behavior can be viewed from an organization’s point of view. In this tutorial, we will be learning in detail about both the theories.

1.2 IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

While working in an organization, it is very important to understand others behavior as well as make others understand ours. In order to maintain a healthy working environment, we need to adapt to the environment and understand the goals we need to achieve. This can be done easily if we understand the importance of organisational behavior (OB).

Following points bring out the importance of OB :

It helps in explaining the interpersonal relationships employees share with each other as well as with their higher and lower subordinates.

1. The prediction of individual behavior can be explained.
2. It balances the cordial relationship in an enterprise by maintaining effective communication.
3. It assists in marketing.
4. It helps managers to encourage their sub-ordinates.
5. Any change within the organization can be made easier.
6. It helps in predicting human behavior & their application to achieve organizational goals.
7. It helps in making the organization more effective.

Thus studying organizational behavior helps in recognizing the patterns of human behavior and in turn throw light on how these patterns profoundly influence the performance of an organization.

1.3 MAJOR FACTORS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

There are three major factors that affect OB. The working environment being the base for all three factors, they are also known as the determinants of OB. The three determinants are :

1. People
2. Structure
3. Technology

1. People :

An organization consists of people with different traits, personality, skills, qualities, interests, background, beliefs, values and intelligence. In order to maintain a healthy environment, all the employees should be treated equally and be judged according to their work and other aspects that affects the firm.

Example – A company offers campus placement to trainees from different states like Orissa, Haryana, Arunachal Pradesh and many more. However, during and after training, all trainees are examined only on the basis of their performance in the tasks assigned.

2. Organizational Structure :

Structure is the layout design of an organization. It is the construction and arrangement of relationships, strategies according to the organizational goal.

Example – Organizational structure defines the relation of a manager with employees and co-workers.

3. Technology :

Technology can be defined as the implementation of scientific knowledge for practical usage. It also provides the resources required by the people that affect their work and task performance in the right direction.

Example – Introduction of SAP, big data and other software in the market determines individual and organizational performance.

Environment :

All companies function within a given internal and external environment. Internal environment can be defined as the conditions, factors, and elements within an enterprise that influences the activities, choices made by the firm, and especially the behavior of the employees. While external environment can be defined as outside factors that affect the company's ability to operate. Some of them can be manipulated by the company's marketing, while others require the company to make adjustments.

Some examples of internal environment include employee morale, culture changes, financial changes or issues, and some examples of external environment include political factors, changes to the economy and the company itself.

Organisational Behavior – Basic Aspects :

In any organisation the area of behavioral and interactive aspects are much concerned with human behaviors. It is a dynamic and multidisciplinary field that seeks knowledge of

behavior in organisational structure by properly studying individual, group and organisational processes.

- (i) Organisation behavior focuses on three levels of analysis- individuals, groups and organisations. In any organisation, people frequently work together in groups and teams. The individual and group both influence the organisation and are influenced by the environment in overall society,
- (ii) Organisation behavior is multidisciplinary in nature. The field of OB is likely to consider a wide variety of approaches. These approaches are based on individual and group oriented,
- (iii) Organisation behavior and its aspects are more relevant to different disciplines. The learning areas are relevant to different disciplines like psychology, groups' dynamics, sociology, organisational culture, anthropology, interpersonal conflicts, political science, management science, etc.,
- (iv) Organisational behavior are applicable in behavioral science. OB refers to seek knowledge and behavioral patterns in organisation. It develops the process and methods of behavioral approaches.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR :

There are several objectives of organisational behaviour and some of them are briefly stated here :

- 1) To analyse different perspective and potentialities to create and develop the ethical values in an organisation,
- 2) To analyse the potentialities towards the ways and means to conduct and organise the systems, methods and approaches for organisation development in an organisation,
- 3) To analyse the potentialities to develop process, methods and approaches of formal and informal patterns of organisation and society,
- 4) To analyse how to make perspective methods and process of effective communication to formulate ethical norms in an organisation,
- 5) To analyse various aspects and factors affecting the group cohesiveness,
- 6) To analyse the ways and means to develop different ethical aspects for group dynamism,
- 7) To analyse the mutual interest of individual and group. Mutual interest is represented by the statement 'Organisation needs people, and people also need organisation',

- 8) To analyse and evaluate the role of different key elements like people, structure, technology interactive behaviour and environment etc.
- 9) To analyse and evaluate the behavioural approaches in organisation. In context of that all of them are based on 'Art' and 'Science',
- 10) To analyse different aspects of work environment which duly affects the behavioural patterns and attitudes of persons.

1.5 CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

The concept of OB is based on two key elements namely :

1. Nature of people
2. Nature of the organization

1. Nature of People :

In simple words, nature of people is the basic qualities of a person, or the character that personifies an individual they can be similar or unique. Talking at the organizational level, some major factors affecting the nature of people have been highlighted. They are –

Individual Difference – It is the managerial approach towards each employee individually, that is one-on-one approach and not the statistical approach, that is, avoidance of single rule. Example– Manager should not be biased towards any particular employee rather should treat them equally and try not to judge anyone on any other factor apart from their work.

Perception – It is a unique ability to observe, listen and conclude something. It is believing in our senses. In short, the way we interpret things and have our point of view is our perception. Example – Aman thinks late night parties spoil youth while Anamika thinks late night parties are a way of making new friends. Here we see both Aman and Anamika have different perception about the same thing.

A whole person – As we all know that a person's skill or brain cannot be employed we have to employ a whole person. Skill comes from background and knowledge. Our personal life cannot be totally separated from our work life, just like emotional conditions are not separable from physical conditions. So, people function is the functioning of a total human being not a specific feature of human being.

Motivated behavior – It is the behavior implanted or caused by some motivation from some person, group or even a situation. In an organization, we can see two different types of motivated employees –

Positive motivation – Encouraging others to change their behavior or say complete a task by luring them with promotions or any other profits. Example – “If you complete this, you will gain this.”

Negative motivation – Forcing or warning others to change their behavior else there can be serious consequences. Example – “If you don’t complete this, you will be deprived from the office.”

Value of person – Employees want to be valued and appreciated for their skills and abilities followed by opportunities which help them develop themselves.

2. Nature of Organization :

Nature of organization states the motive of the firm. It is the opportunities it provides in the global market. It also defines the employees’ standard; in short, it defines the character of the company by acting as a mirror reflection of the company. We can understand the nature of any firm with its social system, the mutual interest it shares and the work ethics.

Let us take a quick look at all these factors –

Social system – Every organization socializes with other firms, their customers, or simply the outer world, and all of its employees - their own social roles and status. Their behavior is mainly influenced by their group as well as individual drives. Social system are of two types namely –

Formal – Groups formed by people working together in a firm or people that belong to the same club is considered as formal social system. Example – A success party after getting a project.

Informal – A group of friends, people socializing with others freely, enjoying, partying or chilling. Example – Birthday party.

Mutual interest – Every organization needs people and people need organizations to survive and prosper. Basically it’s a mutual understanding between the organization and the employees that helps both reach their respective objectives. Example – We deposit our money in the bank, in return the bank gives us loan, interest, etc.

Ethics – They are the moral principles of an individual, group, and organization. In order to attract and keep valuable employees, ethical treatment is necessary and some moral standards need to be set. In fact, companies are now establishing code of ethics training reward for notable ethical behavior.

1.6 MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

There are four major models or frameworks that organizations operate out of :

1. Autocratic,
2. Custodial,
3. Supportive, and
4. Collegial.

1. Autocratic :

The basis of this model is power with a managerial orientation of authority. The employees in turn are oriented towards obedience and dependence on the boss. The employee need that is met is subsistence. The performance result is minimal.

2. Custodial :

The basis of this model is economic resources with a managerial orientation of money. The employees in turn are oriented towards security and benefits and dependence on the organization. The employee need that is met is security. The performance result is passive cooperation.

3. Supportive :

The basis of this model is leadership with a managerial orientation of support. The employees in turn are oriented towards job performance and participation. The employee need that is met is status and recognition. The performance result is awakened drives.

4. Collegial :

The basis of this model is partnership with a managerial orientation of teamwork. The employees in turn are oriented towards responsible behavior and self-discipline. The employee need that is met is self-actualization. The performance result is moderate enthusiasm. Although there are four separate models, almost no organization operates exclusively in one. There will usually be a predominate one, with one or more areas over-lapping in the other models.

The first model, autocratic, has its roots in the industrial revolution. The managers of this type of organization operate mostly out of McGregor's Theory X. The next three models begin to build on McGregor's Theory Y. They have each evolved over a period of time and there is no one best model. In addition, the collegial model should not be thought as the last or best model, but the beginning of a new model or paradigm.

1.7 ETHICAL PERSPECTIVE ON ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR :**Emergence and Ethical Perspective :**

Organisational behaviour has emerged gradually, right from inception of social organisation. The main factor which promoted the growth of OB was understanding the needs and motives of the people engaged in organisational activities. Individual's desires and wants were focused on the activities devoted to obtain material means of satisfaction of his wants.

In this context, one can observe that it has direct link between labour, capital and management. The fact that needs of the labour force have not been given adequate importance by the management. The discontent at the work places becomes severe due to bad working conditions, occupational diseases and the unhealthy atmosphere.

Poor workers had to work just for survival. There was no consideration to improve human relation to create behavioural satisfaction of the working class. The discontent at the work places becomes uncontrollable and resulted in industrial revolution in England in the latter half of the 18th century.

This action of the labour force brought them some relief in wages and relief measures in work places. In this regard, Robert Owen, a factory owner in Wales was the first person, who realised the needs of workers in his factory. He is sometimes referred to as the forerunner of Personnel Management.

The actual development of OB started from 1900 AD. The period witnessed scientific management of F.W. Taylor. He could inspire through his scientific management to a certain extent, workers to motivate their interest in work. Taylor advocated that improved working conditions can increase productivity. His approach made the initial momentum for OB. He believed in technical efficiency so much that this efforts could bring awakening among the workers.

It was during the First World War that 'Human relation movement' really got a significant support from the American Management Association, which took keen interest in the human factor in industry. This paved the way for the organisation for well-known conference in New York in 1918.

During this period Whiting Williams was conducting a research study on workers. Later on, he published his work entitled, "What is in the workers' mind?" In the year 1920, The book of Williams had awakened thinking among the entrepreneurs and the intellectuals all over the world about importance of human relations in industry.

Elton Mayo and Roithlesberger of Harvard University stressed the importance of "Human behaviour at work places." Their famous experiment of Hawthorne Electric Company helped in understanding the basic idea of social System within the working environment and the human problems to be solved by understanding in human factor at work.

During the Second World War and thereafter, this concept of human behaviour and an integrated relationship between management and workers gained much weightage amongst the industrialists and academicians. The contemporary organisational behaviour, by and large, became a full-fledged subject (Social Discipline) by the end of 1950 in the management field.

OB has contributed to management through its principles like setting of the goal in organisations, measures for assessing performance like MBO in performance appraisal, etc. In these fields, the contributions of Peter Drucker and Mc Gregor are worth mentioning.

The ethical or human conduct in organisation improved remarkably after the Hawthorne experiment. Milgrams Obedience to Authority Study and the Management Trust (MBT) by R.S. Dwivedi are of immense value to Human Behaviour Studies.

The salient features of ethical perspective are given below :

1. Higher performance criteria.
2. Subordinates have been given the freedom to control and execute the work with proper accountability.
3. Understanding and providing job security to workers and also recognising them as human beings.
4. Workers' sense of belongingness to the organisation.
5. Acknowledging that in an organisation the informal group has a great role over the ethical aspects of workers and their performance
6. To achieve objectives, the leadership has a responsibility to suitably change the behaviour pattern of the workers.
7. A shift from the unions' collective relations, OB has led to individualisation of collective relations.
8. Employees' commitment is achieved by giving more power to them by cooperative decision making.
9. Human relations to promote "Neo-unitarianism" (a new type of relation based on consensus and belief between the workers and management).
10. OB directs the employees to Quality of Work Life (QWL).

1.8 ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR – GOALS :

Organisations, for their success, give importance for the development of human factor. Researches reveal that human factor can do anything for the success or failure of an organisation. Consider our public sector undertakings (PSUs). Government of India established hundreds of business houses in manufacturing and service sectors. But after many years of operation majority of the undertakings turned sick.

It is mainly due to mismanagement. Government provided funds to operate. But the human factor at work in these organisations did not manage the units as per set methods and procedure. Because of this, economy could not grow at the expected rate. Only units identified as "Navaratnas" are functioning well and are competing with many leading companies. In these PSUs, human factor is playing a positive role and has developed organisational identity". Red tapism" was the main reason for unsuccessful growth of many PSUs.

The experience derived out of the growth path of PSUs says that human factor is critical in organisations. Graduates rolled out from universities, will have specialised in their field of study. But, they learn very little during academic pursuits on interpersonal and

intrapersonal skills which are very essential for their success in any walk of life and for the organisations they work. Practical aspects of human behaviour at work are not taught.

Only the behavioural aspects observed and retained in formative stages of the individual plays a key role in workplaces in which the person works in future. Therefore, importance is given for behaviour modeling in workplaces. Human Resources Development (HRD) in organisations have occupied the prime place compared to finance and other functional departments.

In this backdrop, what should be the goals of “Organisational Behaviour”? The main goal is to coordinate human and non-human factors for the success of the organisation. As human factors operates and controls non-human factor, further objective is to tune and fine-tune the human behaviour to suit the requirements of the organisation.

Hence, the following activities may be considered as the goals of OB :

- 1) Changing the traditional slow organisational practices to modern technology based fast workplaces.
- 2) Empowering employees through training and development to improve their productivity and quality of work.
- 3) The existing practices (traditional) cannot make workers to be dynamic and adopt new practices. The goal of OB is to make employees to behave rationally through behaviour modeling and be dynamic and visionaries. They should be prompted to analyse the changes taking place in the organisation and draw logical inferences through reasoning.
- 4) Traditional managers are “command and control” type of people. The goal of OB is to convert these type of people. The goal of OB is to convert these managers into stable leaders who work as team members along with their subordinates. Although hierarchy of positions exist, it should not be exhibited.
- 5) Many decision-makers, many a time, work on their instructions. But instructions do not work always. Therefore, the goal of OB is to make these people to take decisions after studying the problems in a systematic way.
- 6) As technology is ruling the business world today, it has made 24 x 7 global business environment more sophisticated. Hence, one of the OB goals is to design and develop fast work practices adopting technology to increase speed and efficiency of work. This leads to increased productivity of both the work force and the organisation. The

- digital divide (separation of tech-savvy and non tech- savvy people) has to be minimized or eradicated by investing on human capital.
- 7) Today's workforce comprises of more knowledge workers. Hence the organisations have to work on emotional aspects of workers which develops the creativity, innovation and enterprising spirit of each individual workers leading to better behaviour.
 - 8) The most important goal of OB is to induce workers to be ethical in their operations and in discharging assigned tasks.
 - 9) Thus, the overall objective of OB is to improve the skills of the people working in an organisations in terms of changing individual behaviour and group behaviour so that organisation becomes successful. The main goal is to make the organisation a learning organisation.

1.9 PROCESSES TO MODIFY AND INTEGRATE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR :

There are four major processes which can modify and integrate organisational behaviour, i.e., attitudes and behaviours of individuals and groups in an organization :

- (1) Managerial Style.
- (2) Positive Behaviour Reinforcement.
- (3) Job Enrich-ment, and
- (4) Organisational Development.

1. Managerial Style :

Under Theory X and Theory Y as pointed out by McGregor, we have almost diametrically oppo-site assumptions about organisational behaviour. Managerial leadership style indicates the overall pattern of manager's be-haviour while trying to fulfil managerial responsibilities. It also suggests the manner in which the superior-subordinate relation-ship is carried out. Leadership style influences productivity and employee satisfaction.

It may give special emphasis either on production or on employee satisfaction. Occasionally, manage-rial style may give equal emphasis to both and try to achieve high production as well as high employee satisfaction. Produc-tion-centred approach increases productivity at the expense of the human organisation.

The employee-centred managerial style depends on the social motivation to- achieve organisational goals and in the long run can ensure continued high rate of productivity. At

present democratic and participative leadership is employed to achieve higher productivity without sacrificing human values in industry.

2. Positive Behaviour Reinforcement :

Management rewards constructive behaviour and tries to eliminate undesirable employee behaviour and activities. Rewards reinforce positive behaviour because people tend to repeat pleasurable (rewarding) actions. Performance feedback itself can be a reward because it satisfies a human need of knowing how one is doing and where one stands.

Employee behaviour which leads to failure will be corrected. Successful behaviours are rewarded. Thus organisational behaviour can be modified by a planned programme of positive behaviour reinforcement through reward systems.

3. Job Enrichment :

A better job can often create better attitudes and greater willingness to cooperate and perform duties with enthusiasm and zeal. A better job can also offer greater employee satisfaction and provide ample opportunity for growth.

A job must be challenging and meaningful, job enlargement and enrichment can create most favourable employee behaviour and action which can also integrate the objectives of individuals and the organisation. Job enrichment provides duties which are meaningful, enjoyable and satisfying.

Acute division of labour, extensive specialisation and routinisation of jobs and tasks created dehumanised and mechanical organisation structure. Modern trend is in favour of job enlargement, job rotation and job enrichment to motivate employee behaviour in order to attain the organisational goals without sacrificing employee satisfaction and welfare.

4. Organisational Development :

A fourth method for modifying and integrating organisational behaviour is organisational development. In its complete sense organisational development (OD) allows for the humanisation of the formal organisation by minimising the obstacles to organisational effectiveness, setting members work on the problems identified, and giving feedback on the development of skills found necessary or important- all under the guidance of a trained behavioural scientist.

The emphasis is on interpersonal skills, conflict resolution and the creating of mutual trust and openness. OD develops a cooperative interpersonal climate and the development of a community of purpose or common interest.

Open communication and concentration on overall goals are the two main OD purposes. OD provides the ways and means by which members in an organisation may work together with trust and openness and' without unhealthy competition and conflict.

1.10 ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR – SIGNIFICANCE :

OB is the study and application of knowledge about predicting, understanding, and controlling the behavior in the organizational setting. It is of great importance for any organization in today's scenario. The vast changes in the organizational set up and the world economy, as well as the growing concern about the stakeholders have increased the scope of the study of OB.

Therefore, the vital role played by OB can be discussed as follows :

1. Attaining Organizational Effectiveness :

Refers to a process that acts as an indicator or a scorecard for an organization's performance. The analysis of performance can be done from individual and organizational perspectives.

2. Sustaining Changes in Business Environment :

Refers to the need of an organization to accept the changes occurring in the business environment. The dynamic external environment increases the importance of OB as a field of study, because it affects the internal environment as well, thus, forcing an organization to accept changes as survival strategy.

3. Balancing Increase in Capitalism :

Refers to the economic system that is represented by private ownership of capital and means of production. The features of capitalism make the study of OB very important because of increasing monopolists and capital-intensive industries.

4. Surviving Intense Competition :

Requires great efforts on part of an organization. You should note that an organization can face fierce competition by adopting various policies, such as capturing market share and developing human resource. The study of OB helps the organization to develop the human resource by molding their behavior for the benefits of organization.

5. Managing Global Influences :

Refers to controlling the effects of privatization, liberalization, and globalization on organizations. Global influences make the workforce of an organization more diverse in nature, thus makes the study of OB more important.

6. Fulfilling Human Needs :

Refers to managing and enhancing the skills of employees.

For developing these skills, a manager must be capable of :

- i. Understanding human aspirations.
- ii. Building coordination among employees.
- iii. Imparting timely training to employees.
- iv. Motivating them so that they willingly utilize their abilities towards attainment of organizational goals.
- v. Communicating the goals successfully to employees so that they would know what is expected of them.
- vi. Introducing new and innovative ideas.

Employees also expect the organization to understand their needs and provide them with right impetus to grow both financially and professionally. Thus, knowledge of OB helps the management to understand and fulfill these needs of employees.

7. Managing the Complexity in the Structure of Organizations :

Refers to controlling the complexity that may arise in the organizational structure due to dynamic business environment. As an organization grows, its structure becomes complex because its command chain expands, the scope of authority becomes multifaceted, and the responsibilities of employees keep changing.

8. Managing the Presence of Labor Unions :

Refers to monitoring and controlling the activities of labor unions. These unions persuade the management of an organization to give importance to human relations. Therefore, organizations lay emphasis on the study of OB to take care of human aspects.

1.11 SUMMARY :

Organizational behavior is the study of both group and individual performance and activity within an organization. This area of study examines human behavior in a work environment and determines its impact on job structure, performance, communication, motivation, leadership, etc.

1. 12 KEYWORDS :

- 1. Alienation :** The experience of being isolated from a group or an activity to which one should belong, or in which one should be involved.

2. **Ethics** : Moral principles that govern a person's behavior or the conducting of an activity.
3. **Organizational behavior** : The study of the actions and attitudes of individuals and groups toward one another and toward the organization as a whole.

1.13 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Define Organisational Behavior and tell about the importance of OB?
2. Discuss the role of OB in industry?
3. Explain the concept and objectives of OB?
4. What are the major factors of OB?

1.14 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Organizational Behaviour By Pearson, Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A. Judge, Neharika Vohra, ISBN-13 - 978-9353067038, Published by Pearson Education. Year 1 November 2018.
2. Organizational Behaviour Concepts Skills And Best Practices, by Moody L, Published by Kaufman Press, ISBN - 9781666888225, Publish Year January 2022.
3. Organizational Behavior Includes latest Indian case studies and research Eighteenth Edition By Pearson, 31 May 2022, by Neharika Vohra Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A. Judge, ISBN-13 - 978-9356064270.
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Dr. Nagaraju Battu

LESSON - 2

THE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR MODEL

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To know the OB models
- ✓ To learn about the types of OB models
- ✓ To study the usages of OB
- ✓ To read the challenges of OB models

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Types of Organizational Behavior Model
- 2.3 Autocratic Model
- 2.4 Custodial Model
- 2.5 Supportive Model
- 2.6 Collegial Model
- 2.7 System Model
- 2.8 Characteristics of Organizational Behavior Model
- 2.9 Usages of OB Models
- 2.10 Challenges and Opportunities for Organizational Behavior Models
- 2.11 Improving People's Skills
- 2.12 Summary
- 2.13 Keywords
- 2.14 Self - Assessment Questions
- 2.15 Suggested Readings

2.1 INTRODUCTION :

Meaning of Organizational Behavior Model : – Organizational behavior model is a basic structure that shows the relations between employees at different levels in the organization. Organizational behavior model reflects the behavior of the people and management all together, it is considered as field study not just a discipline. Organization analyze behavior of employees into three basic levels known as OB Model, they are : – Individual level, Group level and Organizational system level.

Organizational behavior is a rather general term that indicates the attitude and behavior of individuals and groups within the organization, with respect to the systematic study of the attitudes and behaviors, both personal and interpersonal concerns, in the context of the organization (Roberts, 1987). Organizational behavior is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within organizations. Organizational behavior has the goal of helping managers make new paradigm transitions. Some of the new paradigm characteristics include the coverage of second-generation information technology and total quality management such as empowerment, reengineering and benchmarking, and learning organization for managing the diversity of work (Praveen, 2011). Based on both opinions, organizational behavior is an important aspect that influences the individual role in an organization. Organizational behavior is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structures have on behavior within organizations for the purpose of applying such knowledge to improve organizational effectiveness (Robbins and Judge, 2015). Human behavior is a function of the interaction between the individual and his or her environment; the interaction means that an individual and his or her environment affect each other and can determine the behavior of both. The intended environment can be either a group or an organization.

An organizational behavior model is a management mechanism of an organization that shows the skeleton and the arrangement of the embodiment of a fixed pattern in the relationship between functions, parts, and positions; and the behaviors of those who show the position and the assignment of authority and responsibility is different in an organization. Several organizational models often adopted today are :

- 1) Autocratic model,
- 2) Custodial Model,
- 3) Supportive Model,
- 4) Collegial Model, and
- 5) System Model.

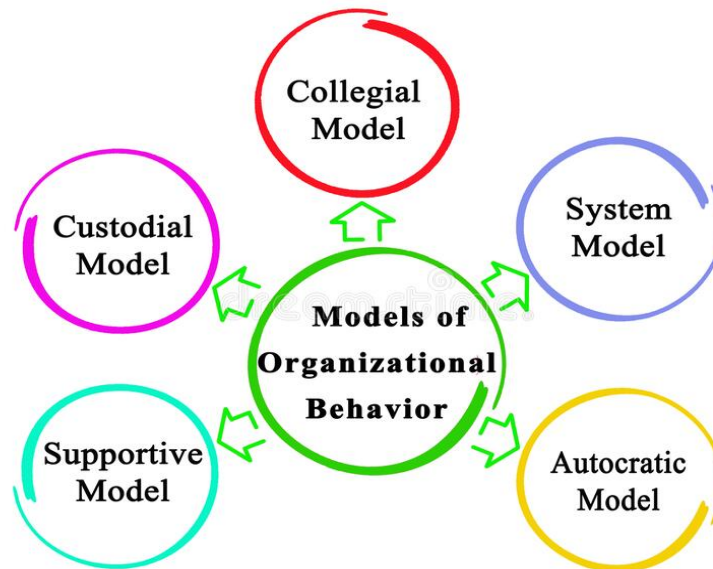
The models of organizational behavior help us see more clearly what an organization does (Falletta, 2005). These models are used to

- 1) improve our understanding of organizational behavior,
- 2) categorize / manage data about the organization, and
- 3) interpret data about the organization.

Different organizations depend on the quality of behaviors that develop within the organization. The model used by leaders/managers is based on certain assumptions about people's organizational activities. Therefore, to get the exact model for an organization, it is necessary to understand each model of organizational behavior that exists today. It is important to examine each concept model of organizational behavior to understand its advantages and disadvantages.

Organizational behavior revolves around three main theoretical approaches: – cognitive, behaviorist and social learning frameworks. These frameworks became the basis on which the organizational behavior model operates. The cognitive theory was developed by Edward and depends on the expectancy and incentive concepts, while the behaviorist framework created by Ivan Pavlov and John B. Watson relies on observation power. While the social theory depends on how the connection is created between the stimulus and response.

2.2 TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR MODEL :



In management, the focus is on the study of the five organizational behavior models :

2.3 AUTOCRATIC MODEL :

The autocratic model is the model that relies on strength, power and formal authority. The autocratic model depends on power. Managers see authority as the only means to get the things done and employees are expected to follow orders. So it results in the higher dependence on the boss.

In an autocratic organization, the people (management/owners) managing the functions in an organization have formal authority to control the employees working under them. These lower-level employees have little control over the job assignments. His ideas and innovations are generally not welcomed, as major decisions are made at the top management level.

The guiding principle behind this model is that management/owners have extensive business expertise, and the average employee has a relatively low level of skill and needs to be thoroughly directed. This type of autocratic management system was common in factories during the Industrial Revolution era.

One of the more significant problems associated with the autocratic model is that the management team needs to micro-manage the employees – where they have to look at all the details and make every single decision. Clearly, in a more modern-day organization, where highly paid specialists are hired, an autocratic system becomes impractical and highly inefficient.

The autocratic model also opposes job satisfaction and employee morale. This is because employees do not feel valued and part of the overall team. This leads to low level of performance. While the Autocratic model may be suitable for some very automated factory situations, it is out of date for most modern outfits.

The advantages and disadvantages of the autocratic model are :

- Easy to implement.
- Work is completed quickly.
- Decision-making is quick.

Disadvantages :

- Employees' (lower-level) concerns are not taken.
- Low employee satisfaction.
- Low employee morale.
- Not fit for modern organizations.

2.4 CUSTODIAL MODEL :

Workers being managed under the autocratic model often feel insecure and disappointed. They may also show aggression towards their boss and their family and neighbours. So progressive managers felt that something must happen ways to develop better employee relations so that insecurities and frustrations could be removed. The custodial approach induces employees now to show their dependency and loyalty towards the company and not to the boss or managers, or supervisors. The employees in this environment are more psychologically contended and preoccupied with their rewards, but it is not necessary they would be strongly motivated to give the performance.

To overcome the shortcomings of autocratic model, it came into existence. This model is reward based. More emphasis is on economic rewards and benefits to motivate employees.

The custodial model is based on the concept of providing economic security for employees – through pay and other benefits that will create employee loyalty and motivation. In some countries, many professional companies offer health benefits, corporate cars, financial packaging of salaries, etc. – these are incentives designed to attract and retain quality employees.

The underlying principle for the organization is that they will have a more skilled workforce, more motivated employees, and have a competitive advantage through employee knowledge and expertise. The downside with the custodial model is that it also attracts and retains low-performing employees. Or perhaps even some offer low-level motivation from employees who feel they are “stuck” in an organization because the benefits are too good to leave.

This model thinks a fair payment system increases the motivation and productivity of the organization. Yes, it does but this model does not concern the psychology of the employees. The pros and cons of the custodial model are :

Advantages :

- Employee motivation.
- Greater contribution of employees.
- Satisfied employees.
- Quality talent is retained.

Disadvantages :

- It ignores the psychology of employees.
- All employees may not be satisfied with material benefits some may want praise, recognition, and name.

2.5 SUPPORTIVE MODEL :

The basic idea behind this theory is that leadership drives people to work not the power of money as in the custodial model. Through leadership Management provides an environment to help employees develop and fulfil the interests of the organization, rather than the only things to support employee benefit payment as per custodial approach.

It works in the public sector organization which is dependent on effective leadership. Here, it is assumed that workers are self directed and creative. Importance in this model is given to psychological needs, self esteem, job satisfaction and friendly relations between superior-subordinate.

Under the supportive model, workers feel a sense of participation and work participation in the organization. The role of the manager is to help the employee and solve their problems and get their work done. This model has been found to be effective in prosperous countries where workers are more concerned about their higher levels need affiliation and esteem.

Unlike the earlier two approaches, the supportive model is centred around ambitious leadership. It is not based on control and authority (autocratic model) or incentives (custodial

model), but instead tries to motivate employees through the manager-employee relationship and how employees are treated on a day-to-day basis.

Quite the opposite of the autocratic model, this approach suggests that employees are self-motivated and have the value and insight to contribute to the organization, beyond just their day-to-day role.

This model aims to motivate employees through a positive workplace where their ideas are encouraged and often adapted. Therefore, employees have some form of “buy-in” for the organization and its direction.

The supportive model is widely accepted chiefly in the developed nations where the needs of the employees are different as it fulfills many of the employees emerging needs. This approach is less successful in the developing nations where the social and economic need of the working class is different. In short, in the supportive model, money is not which retain the satisfaction of the employees, but it is a part of the organization’s life that has been put to the use and makes other people feel wanted.

A healthy working environment, manager support, better relationships, harmony, effective communication, etc. are essential to bringing out the best from the supportive model. By this model, employees get a chance to contribute more as compared to what they contribute in their day-to-day functions.

The advantages and disadvantages of the supportive model of OB are :

Advantages :

- Better relationship between managers and employees.
- Harmony and productivity in the organization.
- Employees’ ideas are valued.
- Employee motivation, morale, and satisfaction.

Disadvantages :

- This model might not best-fit employees who just come to work and get paid.
- Managers have to give more time and effort to supporting employees.

2.6 COLLEGIAL MODEL :

A useful extension of the supportive model is the collegial model. This word collegial means a body of individuals with a common purpose. The collegial model, which embodies a term concept, first achieved widespread applications in research laboratories and similar work environments. This is a best model based on the partnership between workers and management

in which both work together as a team and respect each other. Workers are satisfied by their job and they are committed to the organisation.

The collegial model traditionally was used theory is based on the principle of mutual contribution by employer and employees. Each employee should develop a feeling that he is a part of the whole and contributing something to the whole and recognizes the others contribution. Management is supported to be joint contribution and not the boss.

The collegial model is based on teamwork – everyone working as a peer. The overall environment and corporate culture needs to be aligned with this model, where everyone is actively participating – not just about position and job title – for everyone to work together to make a better organization is encouraged.

The role of the manager is to foster this teamwork and create positive and energetic workplaces. In much more respect, the manager can be considered the “coach” of the team. And as a coach, the goal is to keep the team doing well overall, rather than focusing on their own performance, or the performances of key individuals.

The collegial model is quite effective in organizations that need to find new approaches – marketing teams, research and development, technology/software – virtually anywhere the competitive landscape is constantly changing and ideas and innovation are key competitive success factors.

The success of the collegial model depends on the management’s ability to foster the feeling of partnership between the employees. This makes the employees feel important and needed. They also feel that managers are not just mere supervisors but are also giving their equal contribution to the team. To make the collegial model success many organizations have abolished the use of bosses and subordinates during working, as these terms create the distance between the managers and subordinates. While some of the organizations have abolished the system of allotting reserved space for executives. Now any employee can park their vehicle in the common parking space, which increases their convenience and makes them more comfortable.

This model best fit for organizations seeking to achieve competitive advantages as it is the pool of diverse talents and skills directed to achieve common goals. Pros and cons of the collegial model :

Advantages :

- Teamwork.
- Better relationship.
- Harmonized working environment.
- Effective to achieve competitive advantage.

Disadvantages :

- There is a chance of conflict among team members.
- All team members may not contribute their full efforts.
- Chances of role conflicts.

2.7 SYSTEM MODEL :

The final organizational model is known as the system model. It is the most contemporary model of the five models discussed in this article. In the system model, the organization looks at the overall structure and team environment, and assumes that individuals have different goals, talents, and abilities. The system model aims to try to balance the goals of the individual with the goals of the organisation.

Individuals obviously want good remuneration, job security, but also want to work in a positive work environment where the organization adds value to the community and/or its customers. The model system should be a holistic partnership of managers and employees with a common goal, and where everyone feels they have a stake in the organization.

In the system model, the expectations of the managers are much more than getting the work done by the employees. The managers have to show their emotional side, be more compassionate and caring towards their team, and they must be sensitive towards the needs of the diverse workforce. They have to devote their attention to creating the feeling of optimism, hope, trustworthiness, courage, self-determination, and through this, they try to develop a positive work culture where the employees feel more at ease and work as if they are working for their family. This ultimately results in the long time commitment and loyalty of the employees and the success of the company.

Advantages :

Positive aspects of the system model are all work in a system, a healthy work environment, good communication, value to employees & community, etc.

Ignoring this model cause organization to face social issues such as complaints from society, reduced customers stake, etc.

2.8 CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR MODEL :

Characteristics of Organizational Behavior Model are :

1. Separate Field of Study and not a Discipline Only : Organizational behavior model is based on multi-interdisciplinary orientation and is, thus, it is not based on a specific theoretical background.

2. An Interdisciplinary Approach : Organizational behavior model is an applied behavioral science built on contributions from a number of behavioral disciplines, mainly psychology and social psychology, sociology, and anthropology.
3. Applied Science : Organizational behavior model can be called both science as well as art because it involve both applied research and its application in organizational analysis.
4. Normative Science : Organizational behavior model describes how the findings of applied research can be applied to socially accepted organizational goals whereas the positive science discusses the only cause-effect relationship
5. Humanistic and Optimistic Approach : Organizational behavior model deals with the people and their interaction with organisations.
6. Total System Approach : System approach is one that integrates all the variables, affecting organizational functioning.

Sl. No.	COMPARISON	AUTOCRATIC	CUSTODIAL	SUPPORTIVE	COLLEGIAL
1	Basis of model	Power	Economic Resources	Leadership	Partnership
2	Managerial Orientation	Authority	Money	Support	Teamwork
3	Employee Orientation	Obedience	Security and Benefits	Job performance	Responsible behaviour
4	Employee Psychological Result	Dependence on boss	Dependence on organization	Participation	Self-Discipline
5	Employee needs met	Subsistence	Security	Status and Recognition	Self-actualisation
6	Performance result	Minimum	Passive Co-operation	Awakened drives	Moderate enthusiasm

Our inherent power of generalization helps us predict other people's behavior; however, sometimes, our generalizations and predictions fail. This happens as we fail to analyze and go into the depth of the patterns affecting people's behavior at that particular time or period. This calls for understanding and following the systematic approach to the study of organizational behavior. The study helps in increasing our predictive ability to understand the behavior of people, particularly in a group or an organization, and how their behavior impacts the performance of an organization.

Almost all organizations develop models on the basis of which the behavior of the people is determined. This model depends on the assumption that organizational behavior management carries about its people, mission, and goals. It is noted that most organizations make assumptions on the basis that people are not to be trusted even in the slightest matter. For instance, McGregor's theories X and Y are based on quite contradictory assumptions; Argyris focuses on the immaturity and maturity level of the people providing two opposing views. The Organizational Behavior models formulated would show many different variations and kinds of continuums between the two opposite poles.

Organizational behavior revolves around three main theoretical approaches: cognitive, behaviorist, and social learning frameworks. These frameworks became the basis on which the organizational behavior model operates. The cognitive theory was developed by Edward and depends on the expectancy and incentive concepts, while the behaviorist framework created by Ivan Pavlov and John B. Watson relies on observation power. While social theory depends on how the connection is created between the stimulus and response.

2.9 USAGES OF OB MODELS :

Organization analyze behavior of employees into three basic levels known as OB Model, they are: – Individual level, Group level and Organizational system level. Organizational behavior revolves around three main theoretical approaches: – cognitive, behaviorist and social learning frameworks.

1. Individual Level :

The individual level includes each individual person within an organization. Each individual acts differently which affects group dynamics and the organization as a whole. If there are a lot of happy and efficient individuals, the work environment will be an efficient and productive one. However, if there are a lot of negative and disgruntled individuals, it can create a toxic environment.

It is impossible for a company to study each individual employee's behavior, however, it is important for a company to create guidelines and expectations that will attract employees with desirable behaviors. For example, a company may hire employees based on their personality or how they answer behavioral based interview questions. At the same time, companies can help influence individual behavior. They do this by creating a code of conduct, establishing policy and procedure guidelines, and by developing incentives and consequences.

2. The Group :

The group level includes any groups within an organization. Groups can range in size from a couple people working together, to a large group with dozens or hundreds of members. As we just discussed, individuals can affect a group and a group can affect an organization. And at the same time, a group can affect individuals and an organization can affect a group. Imagine

organizational behavior as a large spider web over each organization. The spider web connects each level of influence with the two others, creating a pathway between each one.

3. The Organization :

Finally, the organization level incorporates the organization as a whole. In case you haven't picked up on the trend, it's important to point out that the organization impacts the individual and group behavior and that individual and group behavior impacts an organization.

1. Schedules of Reinforcement

- Continuous reinforcement
- Fixed interval
- Variable interval
- Fixed ratio
- Variable ratio.

2. Organizational Behaviour Modification Limitations

- Can not reinforce unobservable behaviour
- Reinforcer tends to wear off
- Variable ratio schedule is a form of gambling
- Ethical concerns about perceived manipulation.

3. Types of Work-related Behaviour

- Joining the organization
- Remaining with the organization
- Maintaining work attendance
- Performing required job duties
- Exhibiting organizational citizenship.

2.10 CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR MODELS :

- The Creation of a Global Village
- Adapting to Different People
- Improving Quality and Productivity
- Improving People's Skills
- Management Control to Empowerment

- Stability to Flexibility
- Improving Ethical Behavior

Environmental Challenges : Globalization, Information Technology, Total Quality, Diversity and Ethics are like comparative advantage of labor in the market. Like Nokia Finland recruits employees from India, China, BMW and Mercedes build their cars outside their native places like their plants are mainly in South Africa. Another opportunity is through increased foreign assignments. Challenges like workforce diversity, cross cultural leadership, decision making, communication, dual career couple, stimulating innovation and change in the organization.

It is important to upgrade various types of technical and managerial skills to remain competitive in business environment, to manage workforce diversity and to implement ways of improving ethical behaviour within the organization at all levels.

The managers are posed with many challenges and opportunities to use "Organizational Behavior" concepts to enhance the overall effectiveness of individuals, groups and organization.

Some of the issues which need support from behavioural science and other interdisciplinary fields to offer creditable solutions are:

2.11 IMPROVING PEOPLE'S SKILLS :

The employees and executives are really in need of a boost up to be equipped with the required skills relevant to the technological changes, structural changes, environmental changes which are accelerated at a fast pace. In absence of the fastback possession, the targeted goals can't be achieved in time.

1. Main skills on focus are

- Managerial skills which include listening, motivating, planning, organizing, leading, problem solving, decision making.
- Technical skills.

To enhance these skills seminars, training and development session, career development programmes, induction and socialization and many more tools and techniques are adopted.

Designing an effective performance appraisal system with built-in training modules to help lower level cadres to upgrade their skill sets (conceptual, relational etc.) would be a remarkable.

2. Improving Quality and Productivity

Quality is a parameter which makes a product or service best or worst for the customers and users. It is a measure of expectation. A student expects the pen, she/he just

bought, to write. The failure of the pen to write will express the failure of the product to meet the customer's expectation.

Deming" defined quality as a predictable degree of uniformity and dependability at low cost and suited to the market.

"Juran" defined quality as fitness for use.

3. The key dimensions of quality are :

1. Performance : Primary/Perceptual characteristics of a product as signal, coverage, display quality etc. which are visible.
2. Features : Secondary characteristics, added features such as alarm clock added in mobile phones.
3. Conformance : To meet specifications according to industry standards.
4. Reliability : Probability of a product's failure within a specific period of time.
5. Durability : Measure of product's life having both economic and technical dimensions.
6. Services : Resolution of problems and complaints.
7. Response : Human-Human interface, such as courtesy of the dealer.
8. Aesthetics : Sensory characteristics such as exterior finish.
9. Reputation : Past performance and other intangibles such as being awarded rank first.

Managers confront the challenges of fulfilling the specific requirements of a customer. Implementing total quality management and re-engineering products to improve productivity and quality.

2.12 SUMMARY :

These models are not without limits in that they can be misused and their results misinterpreted. There are almost two significant limitations. The first is that parameter configurations depend on subjective interpretations of the modeler; hence, there is a risk of inaccuracy or, worse, bias. The second is that results may not be easy to interpret or to connect to what was originally modeled, giving the impression that the ABM is an esoteric black box. Seen from this angle, an ABM is no different from other modeling and simulation techniques. However, this article shows that agent-based approaches are probably better positioned than others to tackle with most of organizational scholars perplexities on computer simulation.

All these models are designed to get better results from organizational behavior practices. They have their own ways to influence humans and organizational performance. A manager should first consider his organization and employees types and apply these OB practices.

Finally, there are relatively simple and user-friendly platforms for these types of computational models and, fourth, their bottom-up, adaptive and dynamic perspective makes it easier to understand when these models are more suitable to the analysis.

2.13 KEYWORDS :

1. **Organisation** : A consciously coordinated social unit composed of two or more people that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals.
2. **Technical Skill** : The ability to apply specialised knowledge or expertise.
3. **Human Skills** : The ability to work with, understand, and motivate other people.

2.14 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Discuss the organisational behaviour model?
2. Examine the types of organisational behaviour?
3. Explain the characteristics of OB models?
4. What are the usages of OB models?

2.15 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Organisational Behaviour, by Asawathappa, Himalaya Publishing House, ISBN-13978-9352990887, Year 2018.
2. Essentials of organisational behaviour, by T N Chhabra, Sun India Publications, 1 January 2019.
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Dr. Naga Raju Battu

LESSON - 3

ROLES OF MANAGER

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To learn the managerial role
- ✓ To know the essential skills of manager
- ✓ To study the qualities of manager
- ✓ To make out the challenges of manager

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Managerial Functions
- 3.3 Managerial Skills
- 3.4 Essential Skills to Manager
- 3.5 Qualities of a Manager
- 3.6 Role of the Manager:
- 3.7 Environment and Managers Roles
- 3.8 Modern Challenges for Managers
- 3.9 Top 10 Roles of a manager in an organization
- 3.10 Summary
- 3.11 Keywords
- 3.12 Self - Assessment Questions
- 3.13 Suggested Readings

3.1 INTRODUCTION :

A manager's job is very crucial in an organization. He is a planner, coordinator, producer and a marketer. The success of an organization will depend upon the caliber of the manager in utilizing the resources for achieving business goals. A manager is a pivotal figure in the task of creating wealth. There are rapid changes in technology, methods of production, marketing techniques, financial set up and the manager should be competent enough to cope with the changes.

Meaning :

A manager is a person in the organization who directs the activities of others. The managers perform their work at different levels and they are called by different names. The first line managers are usually called supervisors or in a manufacturing they may be called foremen. Middle level managers include all levels of management between the supervisory level and the top level of the organization.

These managers may be called functional managers, plant heads, and project managers. Near the top of hierarchy, there may be top managers who are responsible for making organizational decisions and setting policies and strategies that affect all the aspects of the organization. These persons may be called vice-president, managing director, chief executive officer or chairman of the board etc.

3.2 MANAGERIAL FUNCTIONS :

A manager has to perform functions like planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling. All these functions are essential for running an organization smoothly and achieving enterprise objectives. Planning is required for setting goals and establishing strategies for coordinating activities.

Organization helps in determining what tasks are to be done, how to do them, how to group the tasks and where decisions are to be made. Staffing function is essential for employing various types of persons and performing various activities like training, development, appraisal, compensation, welfare etc.

The directing function requires giving instructions and motivating sub-ordinates to accomplish their goals. A manager has to perform the controlling function for monitoring activities to ensure that they are being accomplished as planned and correcting any significant deviations.

3.3 MANAGERIAL SKILLS :

A manager has to perform a number of jobs. It necessitates that a manager should have proper skills to perform different jobs.

Henry Fayol put the qualities required by managers into the following categories :

- (i) Physical – health, vigour, address.
- (ii) Mental – ability to understand and learn; judgement, mental vigour and adaptability.
- (iii) Moral – energy, firmness, willingness to accept responsibility, initiative, loyalty, tact, dignity.

- (iv) Educational – general acquaintance with matters not belonging exclusively to the function performed.
- (v) Technical – peculiar to the function.
- (vi) Experience – arising from the work proper.

3.4 ESSENTIAL SKILLS TO MANAGER :

Robert L. Katz conducted research during early 1970's and found that managers need three essential skills or competencies ; technical, human and conceptual. He also found that the relative importance of these skills varied according to the manager's level within the organization.

A. Technical Skills :

A manager must have the necessary technical skills or the ability to work with the resources, tools, techniques, procedures etc. First line managers as well as many middle managers have involved in technical aspects of the organization's operations. Technical skills include knowledge of and proficiency in certain specialized such as engineering, computers, finance or manufacturing. Even though the need for technical skills is less when a manager moves higher in hierarchy but still technical proficiency helps in taking decisions.

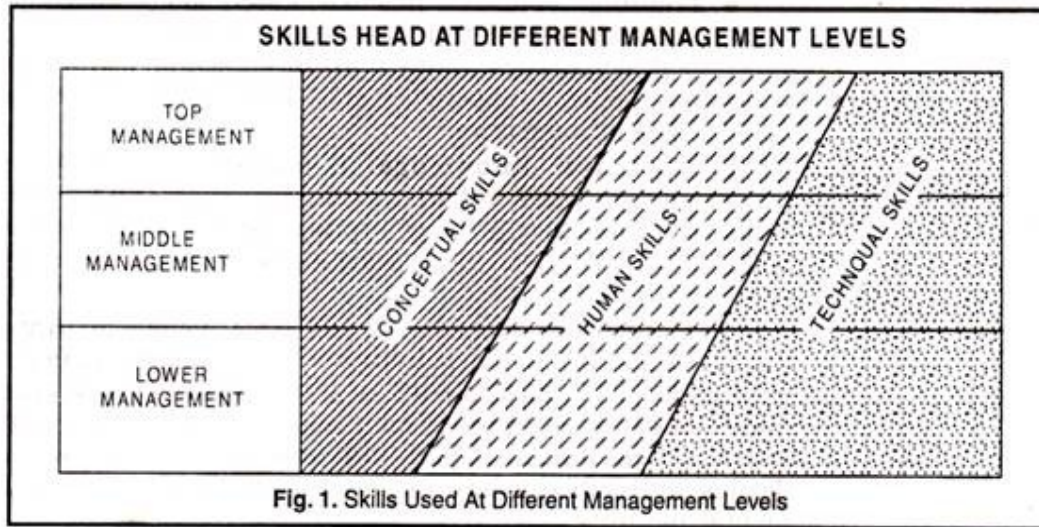
B. Human Skills :

It is the ability to work well with other people both individually and in a group. Managers with human skills can get best out of the people working with them. They know how to communicate, motivate, lead and inspire enthusiasm and trust. These skills are needed by managers at every level but top managers need them the most.

C. Conceptual Skills :

Conceptual skills are the ability to integrate and co-ordinate various activities. Managers must have the ability to think and to conceptualize about abstract solutions. They must be able to see the organization as a whole and the relationships among its various subunits and to visualize how the organization fits into its broader environment. Conceptual skills are helpful in decision-making. Since all managers have to take decisions so these skills are essential for all managers but these become more important as they make up the organizational hierarchy.

These skills can be depicted in a diagram :



3.5 QUALITIES OF A MANAGER :

A manager has to undertake a number of functions from planning to controlling. He has to take decisions for every type of activity. The decisions of the manager influence the working of an organization.

He should have the following qualities so for performing his work properly :

1. Education :

A manager must have proper educational background. These days managers are supposed to have management education, besides other educational qualifications. Education not only widens mental horizon but also helps in understanding the things and interpreting them properly. The knowledge of business environment is also important for dealing with various problems the organization may face.

2. Intelligence :

A manager has to perform more responsibilities than other persons in the organization. He should have higher level of intelligence as compared to other persons. Intelligence will help a manager in assessing the present and future possibilities for the business. He will be able to foresee the things in advance and take necessary decisions at appropriate time.

3. Leadership:

A manager has to direct and motivate persons working in the organization. He will provide leadership to subordinate. The energies of the subordinates will have to be channelized properly for achieving organizational goals. If a manager has the leadership qualities then he can motivate subordinates in improving their performance and working to their full capacity for the benefit of the organization.

4. Training :

A manager has to acquire managerial skills. These skills consist of technical skills, human skills and conceptual skills. These skills have to be acquired through education, guidance, experience etc. These skills are needed for all levels of managers.

5. Technical Knowledge :

A manager should have technical knowledge of production processes and other activities undertaken in the enterprise. He will be in a better position to inspect and guide if he himself has a knowledge of those activities.

6. Maturity :

A manager should have mental maturity for dealing with different situations. He should be patient, good listener and quick to react to situations. He has to take many awkward decisions which may adversely affect the working if not taken properly. He should keep calm when dealing with subordinates. All these qualities will come with mental maturity.

7. Positive Attitude :

Positive attitude is an asset for a manager. A manager has to deal with many people from inside as well as from outside the organization. He should be sympathetic and positive to various suggestions and taken humane decisions. He should not pre-judge the things and take sides. He should try to develop good relations with various persons dealing with him. He should understand their problems and try to extend a helping hand.

8. Self-confidence :

A manager should have self- confidence. He has to take many decisions daily, he may analyze the things systematically before taking decisions. Once he takes decisions then he should stick to them and try to implement them. A person who lacks self-confidence will always be unsure of his decisions. This type of attitude will create more problems than solving them.

9. Foresight :

A manager has to decide not only for present but for future also. There are rapid changes in technology, marketing, consumer behaviour, financial set up etc. The changes in economic policies will have repercussions in the future. A manager should visualize what is going to happen in future and prepare the organization for facing the situations. The quality of foresight will help in taking right decisions and face the coming things in right perspective. In case the things are not rightly assessed then the organization may face adverse situations.

3.6 ROLE OF THE MANAGER :

A role is concerned with the behaviour pattern of a manager within an organization. Henry Mintzberg did a careful study of five chief executives at work in the late 1960's. He discovered that the role of a manager is quite different from the notions held at that time. For instance, the prominent view at that time was that managers were reflective thinkers who carefully and systematically processed information before taking decisions.

Mintzberg found that his managers were engaged in a large number of varied, un-patterned, and short-duration activities. There was little time for reflective thinking because managers encountered constant interruptions. Mintzberg provided a categorization scheme for defining what managers do based on actual managers on the job. He concluded that managers perform ten different but highly interrelated roles. The term management roles refers to specific categories of managerial behaviour. Table gives the ten different roles of the manager.

A. Interpersonal Roles :

A manager has to perform some duties as a figurehead. He may receive the guests from outside or preside over a social function of employees. He may have to sign some legal documents as head of the organization. These are the roles played as figurehead. He has also to act as leader when he has to sort out the activities of subordinates. He has not only to motivate the employees but is also involved in hiring, firing and discipline employees. The third role in interpersonal roles is of liaisoning. He has to contract outside agencies for collecting business related information. The outside information providers may be individuals or groups.

B. Informational Roles :

All managers are required to perform informational roles. They have to collect information from organizations and institutions outside their own. Managers also play the role of disseminators when they supply information to subordinates in the organization. This information is factual as well as with interpretations for the benefit of users. A manager acts as a spokesperson when he represents the organization to outsiders.

C. Decisional Roles :

According to Mintzberg, a manager performs four decisional roles. He initiates and oversees new projects for the improvement of organizational performance, this is the entrepreneurial role played by him. As disturbance handler, manager takes corrective actions in response to previously unforeseen problems. He also acts as resource allocation when he assigns and monitors the allocation of human, physical, and monetary resources. He acts as a negotiator when he discusses and bargains with other groups to gain advantage for his own unit.

Roles	Description	Identifiable Activities
A. Interpersonal		
1. Figure head	Symbolic head ; obliged to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature.	Greeting visitors, signing legal documents.
2. Leader	Responsible for the motivation and activation of subordinates ; responsible for staffing, training, and associated duties.	Performing all activities relating to subordinates.
3. Liaison	Maintains self-developed network of outside contacts and informers who provide favour and information.	Handling mail, keeping contacts with outsiders.
B. Informational		
1. Monitor	Seeks and receives wide variety of special information (much of it current) to develop a thorough understanding of the organisation and environment ; emerges as nerve centre of internal and external information about the organisation.	Reading various reports and receiving information, acts as a centre of information.
2. Disseminator	Transmits information received from outsiders or from subordinates to members of the organisation ; some information factual, some involving interpretation and integration.	Providing information where needed, holding informational meetings.
3. Spokes person	Transmits information to outsiders on the organisation's plans, policies, actions and results ; serves as expert on the organisation's industry.	Provide business information to outsiders ; holding Board meeting.
C. Decisional		
1. Entrepreneur	Searches the organisation and its environment for opportunities and initiates "improvement projects" to bring about change ; supervises design of certain projects as well.	Holding strategy and review sessions to develop new programmes.
2. Disturbance Handler	Responsible for corrective action when the organisation faces important, unexpected disturbances.	Handling disturbances and reviewing emerging situations.
3. Resource Allocator	Responsible for the allocation of organisational resources of all kinds- in effect the making or approving of all significant organisational decisions.	Allocating various resources and approving organisational programmes for subordinates.
4. Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organisation at major negotiations.	Participating in negotiations on behalf of organisation.

3.7 ENVIRONMENT AND MANAGERS ROLES :

The word environment is a collectivity of all factors within the control of business and beyond the control of the individual business. Environment is a macro concept and a business unit is a macro business. A business operates within the given environmental factors. The environment may be external as well internal.

The external and internal environments have been explained below :

A. External Environment :

External environment greatly influences the working of every business.

External environment may have the following components :

1. Economic
2. Technological
3. Social
4. Political
5. Ethical

1. Economic Environment :

Economic environment constitutes of factors like capital, labour, suppliers, customers and consumers.

(a) Capital :

Capital consists of owners funds and borrowed funds. Borrowed funds are supplied by investors and creditors. Business needs for funds arise for purchaser of plant and machinery, land and building, equipment, materials, payments to labour and other day to day expenses. These needs are met both from internal sources and external sources. A manager has to remain in touch with investors and creditors for meeting financial needs of the business at the time of need.

(b) Labour :

The labour normally comes from nearby surroundings. Labour unions try to regulate labour supply. A manager has to assess his labour requirement, its quality and price etc. He has to maintain contacts with trade unions and see that the unit is not adversely affected by labour supply.

(c) Suppliers :

The suppliers are an important element of external environment. The supplier include those of raw materials, equipment's, machinery etc. There is a need to have regular liaison with suppliers to know the latest quality of goods available in the market and to ensure supplies as per requirements.

(d) Customers and Consumers :

The customers and consumers are the backbone of a business. Manager should know the needs and preferences of these people through market segment. The goods and services are produced as per the likings of customers and consumers. New products and services are also brought out to keep the tempo of marketing efforts. While keeping inter-personal relations with customers, the manager keep himself abreast about the competitors also.

2. Technology :

The state of technology greatly influences the operations of an enterprise. It is concerned with inventions and techniques. The technological changes may give birth to new products as well as new industries. One has to keep a watch on the developing situation of technology and think of the ways for making its use. The manager has to keep himself abreast of the technological developments particularly in product improvement and new opportunities.

3. Social Environment:

A business is directly influenced and affected by prevalent social environment. Society provides labour force to the business and has consumers for the products and services. In a democratic set up, as at present, a manager comes in contact more than often with the people in all walks of life, various social organizations, educational institutions etc. All these contacts are useful and essential for the business because it depends upon the society for various inputs as well as outputs. The very survival of business depends upon society.

4. Political Environment :

The political system prevailing in a country influences business decisions. In a democratic set up, the ideology of the ruling party influences economic and business policies. A business manager has to cope with the thinking of the ruling party in following economic policies. The rules, regulations and laws of the country affect the day to day activities of the enterprise. A business has to comply with sales and excise laws, labour laws, taxation laws etc. A manager should be well conversant with prevailing political environment and try to benefit from various schemes and programmes of the government.

5. Ethical Environment :

A manager has to keep in mind the ethical environment prevailing in business while running his unit. Ethics are generally accepted and practiced standards expected from business managers. These ethics are influenced by the expectations of society, employees, government etc. from the business. A manager should aim at fair dealings with everyone coming in contact with business. There should be a clear perception about what is to be done and what is not to be done. A manager should not only be aware of business ethics but should ensure their proper implementation also. This will create confidence in employees and public about the fair dealings of the business.

B. Internal Environment :

Internal environment is concerned with the day to day working of the organization. A manager plays a vital role in the organization. He provides leadership to others, co-ordinates the activities of employees, delegates authority to subordinates, takes important decisions, looks after human relation activities, acts as a spokesman for the organization etc. All these roles make

the job of a manager very important for harmonious working. Important roles of a manager are as follows :

1. As a Leader :

An organization comprises of a number of persons working for different jobs. These persons need the guidance and direction for working towards a common goal. A manager plays the role of a leader while defining the activities and objectives of various persons in the organization. He helps in creating right type of atmosphere and homogeneity within the work-group. The quality of leadership will influence the actions and performance of the group led by him.

2. As a Coordinator :

As a coordinator, a manager puts various resources, physical as well as human, together for achieving organizational goals. He mobilizes various resources, brings about intelligent understanding and goodwill among employees for completing enterprise work. Proper co-ordination will be possible with the help of effective communication. A manager should create good communication system so that various activities are properly coordinated.

3. Delegation of Authority :

Delegation of authority means giving important work to the subordinates. A manager cannot undertake every work himself. He will have to rely on subordinates by assigning them responsibilities and by delegating requisite authority to can them out. The subordinates will gain confidence when they undertake some work independently and will be readied for higher responsibilities. A manager has an important role in encouraging subordinates to take up suitable work as per their capabilities and expertise and prepare the next line of executives. He will have to create proper communication system so that subordinates are able to get regular guidance and response for the activities taken up by them.

4. As a Decision-Maker :

Decision-making is one of the important functions of a manager. He has to take decisions for various activities. Decision-making requires broad vision, imagination, experience and knowledge. A decision has to be taken after discussing various aspects of the problem, analyzing them, developing possible alternatives and selecting the appropriate one. The timing is also an important element of decision-making.

A decision made at a right time will bring good results. A manager has to develop consistency, firmness and conviction in his decisions. A manager changing his decisions frequently may leave his subordinates in doubt. A decision-making skill and ability to take correct decision at appropriate time will become a guideline for the subordinates.

5. Human Relations Practitioner :

A manager has to handle personnel problems of the employees. Management tries to get maximum out of the employees and efforts are made to improve productivity in the organization. The employees also face problems and have grievances against their superiors or the management.

A manager should have an insight into the problems and grievances of employees and redress them in such a way that they feel satisfied and motivated. He should encourage participation of subordinates in decision-making process. Human relations problems can also be tackled timely if proper communication system is maintained with all the employees working in the organization.

6. As a Spokesman of Organization :

A manager acts as a spokesman for the organization. He deals with outsiders and provides them with requisite information required by them. He also maintains proper relations with all interest groups including shareholders, employers, customers, suppliers, government etc. For performing the role of a spokesman, a manager should have an understanding of principles of creating public understanding and the benefits of keeping the public informed. A spokesman helps in creating a good image of the organization not only among employers but also among outsiders.

3.8 MODERN CHALLENGES FOR MANAGERS :

Every business has to cope with the external environment prevailing at different times. This environment provides a set of outside challenges that is difficult to control. These factors may have an important impact on how well a manager performs. To ensure survival, organizations must respond to environmental developments with speed and effectiveness. We are discussing here some key challenges such as information technology, globalization and intellectual capital which have an impact on the job of managing.

1. Information Technology (IT) :

There is a revolution in information technology. There are computers, internet, intranets, telecommunications, and infinite range of software applications available to get for getting the things done in a better way. A manager has to make a choice for using the best technology available. Many concerns have employed specialists for making a proper selection of hardware and software available at that time.

Managers must use technology to perform their work and achieve desired results. The selection of IT must be made by keeping in view the end user and work to be completed. Managers must learn how to work with IT specialists to determine the most effective technologies for the work to be achieved and then consider the best way to implement those technologies. Managers have to determine the best way to network an organization's system,

also deciding about what network information will be available to whom and what types of security are necessary to protect the network.

Information technology will be successfully implemented only if the employees are properly trained to use it. Effective managers ensure that employees are associated at the time of selection and implementation of technology. The IT challenge that modern managers face is likely to continue unabated. Personal computers (PC) started about 26 years earlier and internet was started about 10 years back. All these developments have greatly influenced the work place.

The use of this technology have improved the work performance of employees. IT adept managers will have a bright future. Some may start working for more than one organization without leaving their home office. Managers must remain aware of the opportunities and threats posed to the organizations by the unabated technology revolution.

2. Globalization :

The communication revolution has brought the whole world closer. The use of satellites for information communication has improved the things fast. The major component of globalization of business, culture and economics is the ability and freedom to connect to almost anyone, anytime, anywhere. The communication revolution has helped the development of global trading blocks and world trade agreements.

The trading blocks such as North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), Latin America's MERCOSUR, Asia's ASEAN and European Union (EU) have originated in the past twenty years. It does not look strange that European countries which were fighting the wars during World Wars have now joined hands for economic interests. The creation of World Trade Organization (WTO) has facilitated the opening of markets for world trade.

The multinational companies have started shifting their manufacturing activities to those countries where cheap and trained labour is available. This has helped these companies in reducing the costs of the products. The opening up of Indian markets to multinational companies has changed the complexion of markets. The Indian producers are now trying to improve the quality of products and supplying goods at competitive rates. The consumers are the happiest lot in globalized marketing.

A manager has to plan his business strategies by keeping in view the world economy. He has to prepare the organization for facing the new competition. Managers must find ways to beat foreign competition on price and quality as consumer choices widen. The globalization trend is not likely to change in future; the best thing is to face it. Modern managers should be mentally prepared to face the global competition in the future.

3. Intellectual Capital :

Intellectual capital is relatively recent term that has been coined to reflect that principal assets of modern organizations lie in the minds of their workers rather than in

machinery, bricks and mortar. Thomas Stewart has defined intellectual capital as the “intellectual material-knowledge information, intellectual property, experience-that can be put to use to create wealth. It is the sum of everything everybody in a company knows that gives it a competitive edge.” During 19th century and early part of 20th century the main profession used to be agriculture. Most of the people were directly or indirectly engaged in agriculture.

During the second and third decades of 20th century people started shifting from agriculture to manufacturing. The World War II gave Phillip to manufacturing industries because of war requirements of the countries. In the second half of 20th century information revolution was felt. During 1970's manager began to discover that they could gain efficiencies and competitiveness by making use of information technology. The service sector expanded rapidly during this period.

The application of information technology put additional burden on workers. They had to first learn the use of this technology and then constantly make efforts for improving their work. The highly educated workers were required to make full use of information technology. The Knowledge Worker is quite different from the worker of F.W. Taylor. The knowledge worker is expected to think of new and better things for improving his work and performing the job in a best possible way.

In Taylor's system, 'one best way of doing the things' was suggested by the supervisor but the knowledge worker is supposed to determine his own best way of doing the things. Today's workers are also supposed to keep abreast with the new changes in the technology and make use of it. They are expected help in improving the overall productivity of the organization. Such workers are the intellectual capital that is the most important asset of the modern organization.

Modern managers have to use techniques for capturing and using the knowledge generated in the organization. In order to stay competition managers have to use the knowledge of workers which has been stored in their minds. They have to use techniques which can help the best possible use of knowledge of workers for the betterment of the organization.

3.9 TOP 10 ROLES OF A MANAGER IN AN ORGANIZATION :

Managers perform different roles as shown in the image. As can be seen from the figure, formal authority gives rise to three informational roles. Various roles played by manager in an organization are briefly explained below.

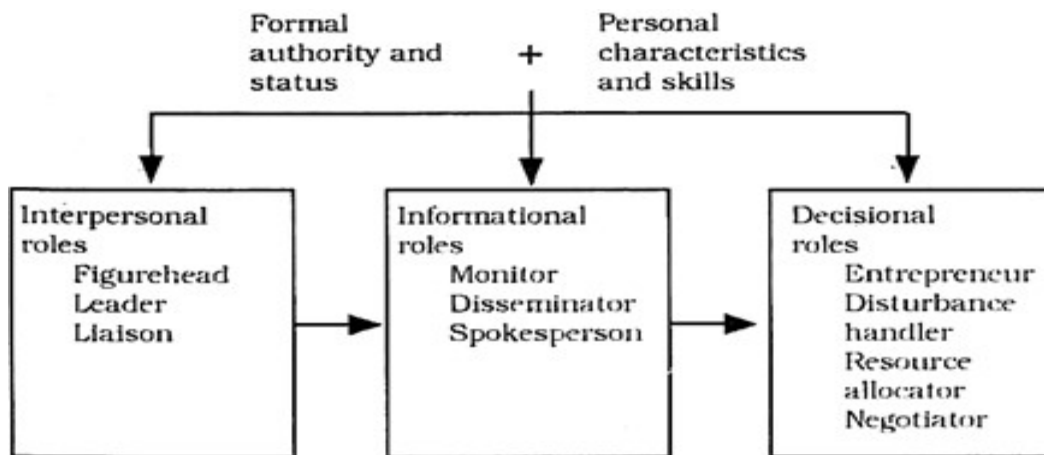
1. Figurehead Role of Manager :

Managers perform the duties that are ceremonial and symbolic in nature such as welcoming official visitors, signing legal documents etc as head of the organization or strategic business unit or department.

Duties of interpersonal roles include routine, involving little serious communication and less important decisions. However, they are important for the smooth functioning of an organization or department.

2. Leadership Role of Manager :

All managers have a leadership role. The manager, as in charge of the organization / department, coordinates the work of others and leads his subordinates. This role includes hiring, training, motivating and disciplining employees. Formal authority and functional authority provides greater potential power to exercise and get the things done.



3. Liaison Role of Manager :

As the leader of the organization or unit, the manager has to perform the functions of motivation, communication, encouraging team spirit and the like. Further, he has to coordinate the activities of all his subordinates, which involves the activity of liaison.

This role also requires the manager to interact with other managers outside the organization to secure favours and information. In this role, the manager represents his organization in all matters of formality.

4. Monitoring Role of Manager :

As a result of the network of contacts, the manager gets the information by scanning his environment, subordinates, peers and superiors.

The manager seeks and receives information concerning internal and external events so as to gain understanding of the organization and its environment. Typically this is done through reading magazines and talking with others to learn the changes in the public's tastes, what competitors may be planning, and the like. Managers, mostly collect information in verbal form often as gossip, hearsay, speculation and through grapevine channels.

5. Disseminator Role of Manager :

Manager disseminates the information, he collects from different sources and through various means. He passes some of the privileged information directly to his subordinates, peers and superiors who otherwise have no access to it. This information is gathered by him from his environments and from his own equals in the organization. The manager will play an important role in disseminating the information to his subordinates, when they don't have contact with one another.

6. Spokesman Role of Manager :

Managers also perform a spokesperson role when they represent the organization to outsiders. Manager is required to speak on behalf of the organization and transmit information on organization's plan, policies and actions.

The manager has to keep his superior informed of every development in his unit, who in turn inform the insiders and outsiders. Directors and shareholders must be informed about the financial performance, customers must be informed about the new product developments, quality maintenance, government officials about implementation of law etc.

7. Entrepreneurial Role of Manager :

As an entrepreneur, the manager is a creator and innovator. He initiates and oversees new products that will improve their organization's performance. He seeks to improve his department, adapt to the changing environmental factors. The manager would like to have new ideas, initiates new projects and initiates the developmental projects.

8. Disturbance Handler Role of Manager :

As a disturbance handler, managers take corrective action to respond to previously unforeseen problems. Disturbance handler role presents the manager as the involuntarily responding to pressures. Pressures of the situation are severe and highly demand the attention of the manager and as such the manager cannot ignore the situation.

For example, worker strike, declining sales, bankruptcy of a major customer etc. The manager should have enough time in handling disturbance carefully, skilfully and effectively.

9. Resource Allocator Role of Manager :

The most important resource that a manager allocates to his subordinates is his time. As a resource allocator, managers are responsible for allocating human, physical and monetary resources. Accordingly, setting up of a time schedule for the completion of an operation or approval of expenditure on a particular project, etc., are the functions which the managers perform in the role of a resource allocator.

The manager should have an open-door policy and allow the subordinates to express their opinions and share their experiences. This process helps both the manager and his subordinates

in making effective decisions. In addition, the manager should empower his subordinates by delegating his authority and power.

10. Negotiator Role of Manager :

In this role, the manager represents the organization in bargaining and negotiations with outsiders and insiders, in order to gain advantages for his own unit. He negotiates with the subordinates for improved commitment and loyalty, with the peers for cooperation, coordination and integration, with workers and their unions regarding conditions of employment, commitment, productivity, with the government about providing facilities for business expansion etc.

These negotiations are integral part of the manager's job for only he has authority to commit organizational resources and has nerve centre of information.

3.10 SUMMARY :

Though the different roles of a manager are discussed separately for convenience, they are in fact inseparable. The manager has to perform these roles simultaneously by integrating one with the another. Thus, the major role of the manager is integrating all the roles while playing managerial role or performing his tasks. In fact, the manager cannot play any role isolating the other roles. As a strategist, the manager has to integrate all the roles in decision-making and performing his tasks.

A manager has to perform functions like planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling. All these functions are essential for running an organization smoothly and achieving enterprise objectives. Planning is required for setting goals and establishing strategies for coordinating activities.

In an organization, a managerial role involves responsibility and supervision. They contribute to their companies in many ways that hinge upon their job titles and the organization's needs. Managers, from department managers to project managers, play different roles in the scope of their work.

3.11 KEYWORDS :

- 1. Manager** : A manager's job is very crucial in an organization. He is a planner, coordinator, producer and a marketer.
- 2. Role of Manager** : A manager has to perform functions like planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling.
- 3. Managerial Skills** : A manager has to perform a number of jobs. It necessitates that a manager should have proper skills to perform different jobs.

3.12 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Discuss about the manager role in organisation?
2. Explain the different managerial skills in the organisation?
3. Converse the internal and external roles of manager?
4. Enlighten the top managerial roles in the organisation?

3.13 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. <https://www.yourarticlelibrary.com - management>
2. <https://accountlearning.com/top-10-roles-of-a-manager-in-an-organization>
3. Organizational Behaviour by Stephen P. Robbins Timothy A. Judge , Neharika Vohra, 1 November 2018, Published by Pearson Education, ISBN-13 978-9353067038.
4. Organizational Behavior by Steven L. McShane, Mary Ann Von Glinow and Himanshu Rai, 9th Edition, Publisher McGraw Hill, Year 26 July 2022.

Dr. Naga Raju Battu

LESSON - 4

**CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES OF
ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR**

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To study the challenges of OB
- ✓ To learn the opportunities of OB
- ✓ To read the challenges faced by manager
- ✓ To know the role manager in an organization

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 4.1 Introduction to Challenges of OB
- 4.2 Major Challenges in Organizational Behavior
- 4.3 Major Opportunities in Organizational Behavior
- 4.4 Role of Organisational Behavior
- 4.5 Challenges and Opportunities of Organizational Behavior
- 4.6 Organizational Behavior Challenges Faced by Managers
- 4.7 Opportunities for Managers in Organizational Behavioral Concepts
- 4.8 Summary
- 4.9 Keywords
- 4.10 Self -Assessment Questions
- 4.11 Suggested Readings

4.1 INTRODUCTION TO CHALLENGES OF OB :

Organizational behavior is the culture of the organization, which includes how employees interact with each other. This also includes how employees feel about the company. The challenges and opportunities of organizational behavior in most companies include overcoming cultural and ethnic differences, improving productivity, hiring employees suited to the organizational culture or who can improve it, delegating tasks to employees, and finding an appropriate level of life balance. Challenges and opportunities for organizational behavior are massive and rapidly changing for improving productivity and meeting business goals. OB can contribute to improving an organizational performance by showing that how employees attitude

and behavior are associated with customer satisfaction. In that case, service should be the first production oriented by using technological opportunities like the computer, internet etc.

Organizational behavior is the analysis of human dynamics within an organization. It helps HR professionals and business leaders to understand the relationship between them and their employees. In addition, it tells a lot about the interaction between employees at the same level. Although organizational behavior varies from one organization to another, its nature has important implications.

In the present times, managers have to deal with various contemporary challenges and opportunities to use organizational behavior concepts and improve productivity. Some of the challenges and opportunities for organizational behavior are listed below.

To improve the customer service need to provide sales service and also the after sales service.

A. Improving people skills :

Designing motivating jobs, how creating the effective teams, techniques for improving interpersonal skills.

In that case, managers need to develop behavioral skill and need to create the effective team in the organization by providing training. Sometimes employees don't want to learn the lesson. In that case, managers face some problem and this is the challenge for the managers.

B. Managing Workforce Diversity :

This refers to employing different categories of employees who are heterogeneous in terms of gender, race, ethnicity, relation, 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 lifestyles 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 lifestyles, family needs, and work styles.

C. 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 handphones are being sold outside of their home country Finland. Japanese cars are being sold in different parts of the 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.

D. Empowering People :

Empowering is to authorize another person, or group, to have the freedom to act, think, respond, initiate, and make decisions affecting their area of given responsibility. Managers empower staff. Leaders empower their leaders. Parents empower their children. Teachers empower their students. Pastors empower their congregations. Those that empower others do so through educating, resourcing, evaluating, and guiding.

E. Stimulating innovation and change :

Victory will go the organization maintains their flexibility, continually improve their quality and beat their competitor in the marketplace. An organization's employees can be the major block in change, the challenge to the manager to stimulate their creativity and tolerance for change.

For an instance; For using cloths people choice are changing day by day so to capture the new customer the fashion designer need to innovate new dresses with a new design to cope with the present environment of people choose.

F. Coping with Temporariness :

Survival for the organization needs to move fast and flexible and innovative in their products, jobs are redesigned, the task is done by flexibility, trained old employees with new technology, the better understanding of change, overcome resistance to change, create organizational culture.

For an instance; for an individual one is professional life and another one is family life. In that case, the individual should be very punctual to get the balance of the work-life conflict.

4.2 MAJOR CHALLENGES IN ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

Challenges for organizational behavior are enormous and are at the same time rapidly changing for improving efficiency and meeting business goals. The nature of job changes, however some problems never change.

Some of the major challenges in organizational behavior are as follows –

1. Non-appearance of clear direction :

Absence of direction is one of the most common organizational problems and it has two prominent causes. They are as follows –

A. First – Either leaders rarely discuss or chart an intentional direction or strategy for the future, or they fail to communicate a reasonable message about the strategy to all members of the organization.

B. Second – There are always numerous activities to execute and the organization lacks the coincide needed to gain the friction necessary to help the organization modify, adapt, and shape its future-activities that would ensure the organization's long-term sustainable growth.

2. Difficulty in blending multiple personalities :

Blending multiple personalities into a cohesive and unified team can be a massive challenge. People's personalities vary broadly, and the assortment of backgrounds, judgements, views, and experiences can cause challenges for teams to come together and work peacefully.

3. Failure to develop key capability and behaviors :

In any organization, we often experience a lot of hardworking people who have good targets. In spite of their experiences in the industry, their technical talent, and the subject-matter competence that many leaders bring to the table, creating a high-performance organization is often out of reach.

4. Poor communication and feedback :

There seem to be two utmost behaviors in this area - either people do everything in their power to avoid tackling others and holding them responsible, or they delight in any opportunity to chew people out, depreciate them, and crush their spirits. This is the result of poor communication and as no proper feedback provided.

5. Absence of perception :

Constructing a reasonable organization takes hard work and an eager insight of the culture and environment that exists in a business. Market conditions can change fast in a rapidity, unpredictability, difficulty, and ambivalence world and demand huge positions of a leader's time. Therefore, a clear perception of market requirements and market forecast are essential. Absence of these can result in huge loss in every sector.

4.3 MAJOR OPPORTUNITIES IN ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

Organisational behavior has proved to have the following benefits or opportunities –

1. Enhancement people's skills :

Organizational behavior helps in better management of the organization as it helps in improving the skills of the people. It provides perception into the skills that the employees can use on the job, such as designing jobs and creating effective teams.



Introduction to Organizational Behaviour

Challenges and Opportunities Faced by OB



Organizational Behaviour

2. Managing workforce assortment :

Workforce assortment refers to the variety of differences between people in an organization. Assortment enclose race, gender, racial, group, age, personality, coherent style, occupation, organizational function, education, background and more. Organizational behavior helps in understanding these differences and finding out the best possible ways in eradicating issues arising out of such differences.

3. Improving customer service :

Organizational behavior helps in understanding all about what customers' wants, how they want and when they. Furthermore, this understanding helps in increasing customer value as well as customer service. Thereby, a great way to improve one's business.

4. Improving quality and productivity :

Quality and productivity are key factors for competitiveness and have always been a concern for the productive sectors, especially in countries with open economies. Organizational behavior as it helps in understanding people and their behavior, it thereby focuses not only on the people who do the work, but the tasks they perform. It further standardizes policies and procedures in the company to maximize efficiency.

5. Responding to globalism :

Globalization of businesses is nothing new in the present time. Businesses are conducted beyond one nation and this is performed mostly through the Internet. This globalization as become possible only because of organizational behavior.

Without the understanding the behavior of any individual, whether it is the seller or the customer, running a business around the world is not possible. Organizational behavior not only helps to understand the behavior of people, but also their cultures overall which ultimately decides their choices of buying products.

6. 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 vanish from their field of business. Organizational behavior not only helps to understand the behavior of people, but also their cultures overall which ultimately decides their choices of buying products. This leads to stimulating innovation and change in product development as per market requirements.

4.4 ROLE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

Characteristics of Organisational Behavior :

1. Behavioural Approach to Management :

Organisational behaviour is that part of whole management which represents the behavioural approach to management. Organisational behaviour has emerged as a distinct field of study because of the importance of human behaviour in organisations.

2. Cause and Effect Relationship :

Human behaviour is generally taken in terms of cause and effect relationship and not in philosophical terms. It helps in predicting the behaviour of individuals. It provides generalizations that managers can use to anticipate the effect of certain activities on human behaviour.

3. Organisational Behaviour is a Branch of Social Sciences :

Organisational behaviour is heavily influenced by several other social sciences viz. psychology, sociology and anthropology. It draws a rich array of research from these disciplines.

4. Three Levels of Analysis :

Organisational behaviour encompasses the study of three levels of analysis namely individual behaviour, inter-individual behaviour and the behaviour of organisations themselves. The field of organisational behaviour embraces all these levels as being complementary to each other.

5. A Science as well as an Art :

Organisational behaviour is a science as well as an art. The systematic knowledge about human behaviour is a science and the application of behavioural knowledge and skills is an art. Organisational behaviour is not an exact science because it cannot exactly predict the behaviour of people in organisations. At best a manager can generalize to a limited extent and in many cases, he has to act on the basis of partial information.

6. A Body of Theory, Research and Application :

Organisational behaviour consists of a body of theory, research and application which helps in understanding the human behaviour in organisation. All these techniques help the managers to solve human problems in organisations.

7. Beneficial to both Organisation and Individuals :

Organisational behaviour creates an atmosphere whereby both organisation and individuals are benefitted by each other. A reasonable climate is created so that employees may get much needed satisfaction and the organisation may attain its objectives.

8. Rational Thinking :

Organisational behaviour provides a rational thinking about people and their behaviour. The major objective of organisational behaviour is to explain and predict human behaviour in organisations, so that result yielding situations can be created.

4.5 CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

The challenges and opportunities of Organizational Behavior can be fully understood with the help of the following points :

1. Improving Peoples' Skills;
2. Improving Quality and Productivity;
3. Total Quality Management (TQM);

4. Managing Workforce Diversity;
5. Responding to Globalization;
6. Empowering People;
7. Coping with Temporariness;
8. Stimulating Innovation and Change;
9. Emergence of E-Organisation & E-Commerce;
10. Improving Ethical Behavior;
11. Improving Customer Service;
12. Helping Employees Balance Work-Life Conflicts; and
13. Flattening World.

1. Improving People's Skills : Technological changes, structural changes, environmental changes occur at a rapid pace in the business sector. Unless employees and executives are equipped to have the necessary skills to adapt to those changes, targeted goals may not be achieved in a timely manner. These are two different categories of skills – managerial skills and technical skills. Some of the managerial skills include listening skills, motivational skills, planning and organizing skills, leading skills, problem solving skills, decision making skills. These skills can be enhanced by conducting a range of training and development programmes, career development programmes, induction and socialisation.

2. Improving Quality and Productivity : Quality is the extent to which customers or users believe that the product or service exceeds their needs and expectations. For example, a customer who buys an automobile has a certain expectation, one of which is that the automobile will start when the engine is started. If the engine does not start, the customer's expectations will not be met and the customer will find the quality of the car to be poor. The major dimensions of quality are as follows :

- Performance : Primary rating characteristics of a product such as signal coverage, audio quality, display quality, etc.
- Features : Secondary features, additional features, such as calculator, and alarm clock features in the handphone
- Conformity : Meeting specifications or industry standards, the degree of workmanship to which the product's design or operating characteristics match pre-established standards
- Reliability : The probability of a product falling out within a specified period

- Durability : It is a measure of the life of a product having both economic and technical dimensions.
- Services : Problem and complaints resolution, Ease of repair
- Feedback : Human-to-human interfaces, such as Courtesy of Dealer
- Aesthetics : Sensory features such as exterior finishes.
- Reputations : Past performance and other abstractions, such as being in the first place

More and more managers are facing challenges to meet the specific needs of customers. To improve quality and productivity, they are implementing programs like total quality management and reengineering programs that require extensive employee participation.

3. Total Quality Management (TQM) : Total Quality Management (TQM) is a philosophy of management driven by continuous achievement of customer satisfaction through continuous improvement of all organizational processes. The components of TQM are :

- an intense focus on the customer,
- concern for continuous improvement,
- improving the quality of what the organization does,
- accurate measurement and,
- Empowerment of employees.

4. Managing Workforce Diversity : It refers to employing different categories of employees who are heterogeneous in terms of gender, caste, ethnicity, affiliation, community, physically disadvantaged, elderly people etc. The primary reason for employing a heterogeneous range of employees is to harness talent and potential, harness innovation, to achieve synergistic effects among the divorced workforce. In general, employees wanted to maintain their personal and cultural identity, values, and lifestyle, even if they were working in the same organization with similar rules and regulations. The biggest challenge for organizations is to become more accommodating to different groups of people by addressing their different lifestyles, family needs and work styles.

5. 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. The company's products or services are spreading across the nations by using mass communication, internet, fast transportation etc. More than 95% of Nokia handsets are sold outside their home country of Finland, Japanese cars are being sold in different parts of the world, Sri Lankan tea is exported to many cities across the world, Garment products from Bangladesh are exported to USA and EU countries. Executives of

multinational corporations are very dynamic and move more frequently from one subsidiary to another.

6. Empowering People : The main issue is to delegate more power and responsibility to the lower-level cadre of employees and to provide more freedom to make choices regarding their schedules, operations, procedures and method of solving problems related to their work. Encouraging employees to participate in work-related decisions will significantly increase their commitment to work. Empowerment is defined as putting employees in charge of the work they do by gaining some kind of ownership. Managers are going far ahead by allowing employees complete control over their work. The movement implies constant change, with an increasing number of organizations using self-managed teams, where workers largely work without bosses.

7. Coping with Temporariness : In recent times, product life cycles are shortening, operating methods are improving, and fashion is changing very rapidly. In those days, managers were required to undertake major transformation programs once or twice a decade. Today, change is an ongoing activity for most managers. The concept of continuous improvement refers to continuous change. In the old years, there used to be a long period of stability and sometimes interrupted by a short period of change, but at present, the change process is an ongoing activity due to competition in developing new products and services with better features. Everyone in the organization today is facing permanent impermanence. The actual work to be done by the workers is in a permanent state of flow. Hence, workers need to constantly update their knowledge and skills to meet the requirements of the new job.

8. Stimulating Innovation and Change : Today's successful organizations must foster innovation and master the art of change; Otherwise, they will become candidates for extinction over time and disappear from their field of business. Wins will go to organizations that maintain flexibility, continually improve their quality, and beat the competition with a constant stream of innovative products and services in the market place. For example, Compaq was successful in making more powerful personal computers than EBNM or Apple for the same or less money, and in getting their products to market faster than larger competitors.

9. The Emergence of E-Organisation & E-Commerce : It refers to business operations involving electronic mode of transaction. This includes presenting products on websites and filling orders. Most of the articles and media attention given to using the Internet in business has focused on online shopping. The process involves marketing and selling of goods and services on the Internet. In e-commerce, the following activities are happening quite frequently – with a tremendous number of people shopping on the internet, business houses setting up websites where they can sell goods, following transactions such as receiving payments and fulfilling orders.

10. Improving Ethical Behavior : Complexity in business operations is forcing the workforce to face ethical dilemmas where they need to define right and wrong conduct to carry out their assigned activities. For example, should employees of a chemical company blow the whistle if

they uncover that its untreated waste in the river is polluting its water resources? Do managers give an inflated performance appraisal to an employee of their choice, knowing that such an appraisal could save that employee's job? The basic rules governing the components of good ethical behavior are not clearly defined, separating right things from bad behavior becoming more blurred. It has become a common practice to follow unethical practices such as successful executives who use insider information for personal financial gain, employees in competing businesses participating in mass cover-ups of defective products, etc.

11. Improving Customer Service : OBs can contribute to improving organizational performance by showing how employee attitudes and behaviors are correlated with customer satisfaction. In that case, the service must first be production-oriented, using technological opportunities such as computers, internet, etc. We also need to provide sales service and also after-sales service in order to improve customer service.

12. Helping Employees Balance Work – Life Conflicts : In the 1960s or 1970s, normal workers showed up at the workplace from Monday to Friday and worked 8 or 9 hours a day. Workplaces and hours were specified. This is no longer true for a large part of today's workforce. Employees are increasingly complaining that the line between work and non-work time has become blurred, leading to personal conflict and tension. Several forces have contributed to the blurring of the lines between the working life and personal life of the employees, such as :

- The creation of global organizations means that their world never sleeps. For example, at any given time and on any given day, there are thousands of General Electric employees working somewhere.
- Communication technology allows employees to do their jobs at home, in their cars or on the beach in Cox's Bazar.
- Organizations are asking employees to work longer hours.
- In the end, fewer families have only one breadwinner. Today's married worker is usually part of a couple with a dual career. This makes it difficult for married employees to find time to meet commitments to the home, spouse, children, parents, and friends.
- Today's married worker is usually part of a couple with a dual career. This makes it difficult for married employees to find time to meet commitments to the home, spouse, children, parents, and friends. Employees are increasingly recognizing that work is squeezing personal lives and they are not happy with it.

13. Flattening World : Thomas Friedman's book *The World Is Flat: A Brief History of the Twenty-First Century* outlines that the Internet has "flattened" the world and created an environment in which more access to information is needed. There is a level playing field. This access to information has led to an increase in innovation, as knowledge can be shared quickly across time zones and cultures. It has also created intense competition, as the pace of business is getting faster and faster all the time. In his book *Wikinomics*, Don Tapscott notes that large-scale collaboration has changed the way people work, how products are made, and the ability of people to work without ever meeting.

4.6 ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR CHALLENGES FACED BY MANAGERS :

Regulatory behavior challenges require managers to implement changes to diversification, ethical, technological and globalization factors within the workforce. The main problems that managers face include the diversity of the workforce, ethical behavior, globalization response and technology, and innovation aspects.

1. Diversity at Work :

The workplace is continually in change mode with more and more diversification of workers. Diversification includes racial, cultural backgrounds, religious and national differences as well as age and sexual orientation. Despite the constant need to hire people with specific requirements and skills, Anderson indicates that management of such individuals can be a difficult task. The reason is that each person has a particular set of characteristics, attitudes, response to authority and ideology on teamwork with a diverse team. The central challenge administrators face is the knowledge of how to amalgamate different people to work under certain conditions to achieve the set objectives (Sascha, Wohlgezogen, and Zajac 589).

In most cases, preferential treatment is not the right way to go as this can cause a lot of friction among people. Impactful leadership entails the adoption of systematic and logical leadership style and skill in ensuring that people do not feel undermined but, are required to work together to achieve what is needed (Stone and Deadrick 140). The process may require the manager to treat people differently and come up with strategic, innovative ways of ensuring people work correlatively. For instance, the use of employee training such as inclusivity of teamwork training is the best way to achieve a diverse workforce working together.

2. Ethical Behavior :

Ethics is the knowledge of and execution of good and disposal of the wrong. The understanding of what is right and wrong is set by the corporate set rules and regulations which stipulate what is necessary from the employees. This may not be, as Sascha, Wohlgezogen, and Zajac (589) states, easy to attain because of the cumulative factor of a diverse workforce which possess different mentalities and prioritization of individualism and not teamwork. The attitudes and actions may result in corporate scandals which involve unethical behavior which can either

be public creating a long-term if not a short-term impact on the reputation of the business. The difficulty lies when the managers try to promote ethical organizational behavior as well as a culture within the employees (Sascha, Wohlgezogen, and Zajac 589). As stated earlier, as a human being, employees are set to survival mode which is regarded as individualism. Personal interest can be frustrating when handling grown-ups and the managers can opt to sideline such events and handle the issue at hand: teamwork.

3. Globalization Response :

Globalization, from a corporate view, is the definition of transmitting from being local to being global. Administrators are required to manage international individuals who hail from a diverse background who are more complex and sophisticated compared to the localized workforce challenges (Hatch, 20). This is a two-pronged approach. On one end, managers are required to understand the corporate needs, objectives, and goals and comprehend how to utilize the workforce to achieve the set goals.

On the other hand, a manager is set to task in understanding how to utilize the workforce based on diversity backgrounds. For instance, the global manager uses the information to improve the subsidiary of organizational behavior to tally the overall corporate culture of the company to improve on performance (Hatch, 25). But, this is met with resistance from people at lower levels which is a threat to the achievement of set goals and objectives.

4. Technology and Innovation :

Technology and innovation are considered the pivotal factors that ensure a business is at par with the competition or ahead of its competition. To realize this Hatch (41) determines that the workforce has to be updated on what is relevant to the business and how it will revolutionize how they operate. This involved communication of the technology and innovation changes with the workforce which, communication plays an integral part within any organization. As such, it influences how people and groups of teams work together and operate within the workplace (Hatch, 45). Since technology brings the promise of improving performance and ease mode of operation, it is continually being affected by the alienation of individuals who may not understand the relevance or how to use the technology. For instance, baby boomers or the older generation may not have the skillset in comprehending how to use the latest technology. The manager is tasked with the duty of finding ways to educate the groups on how to use the technology through organizational communication and inclusion strategy without discrimination.

4.7 OPPORTUNITIES FOR MANAGERS IN ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIORAL CONCEPTS :

1. Improving Workforce Skills :

Technological changes, factors of organizational structural alterations and environmental modifications are among the constant aspects that change within any organization.

Employees are required to be apt and up to date with the technology which entails equipping the executives and employees with the skills necessary to adapt to the change (Sascha, Wohlgezogen, and Zajac 589). This is a paramount opportunity as it provides the manager with a platform to improve on their managerial skills. The skills include (1) technical skills such as listening, motivational, organizational, problem-solving and decision-making skills (Lazaroiu 66). On the other hand, (2) managerial skills including how to generate developmental programs, career advancement programs, induction, and socialization among others improve how a manager administers his or her team.

2. Improving Quality and Productivity :

Managers have the opportunity to develop on quality which in turn enhances performance productivity. Variety is necessary since customers or users can relate to the product and the service provided with the needs and expectations. High quality, for instance, ensures that customers have a good rapport with the business (Lazaroiu 66). There is an opportunity for any manager since various key dimensions are improved upon that include performance ratings, features, the durability of strategic management and reputation of the company. By confronting the challenges faced by managers within their work category, the quality and productivity of the workforce are enhanced. As a result, there is a witness of excellent management.

3. Total Quality Administration :

The philosophy in management revolves around the drivers of any organization to the attainment of high-quality satisfaction of any customer with the continuous improvement of all organizational processes. These entail the intense focus on the needs of the customer which range from the type of product and the type of service needed. The manager is provided with the constant need to enhance improvement continuously through quality improvement (Stone and Deadrick 140). There are strategic ways of improving this which include empowerment of employees and accurate measurement of vital programs to improve the workforce. For instance, the incorporation of training programs for workers may require a skill set in handling the latest technology. How to go about is the real challenge as well as a real opportunity for the workforce to work hand in hand to improve on performance and output.

4. Empowering the Workforce :

A manager's primary role in any organization is to ensure that the employees are energetic, enthusiastic and ready to handle any tough project. The art of ensuring that employees stay motivated is both a challenge and an opportunity (Stone and Deadrick 130). To achieve this, managers delegate the power and the responsibility to the lower cadre of employees by assigning some form of freedom to make decisions on work-related aspects. The aspects can include decision making on operations, strategic adoption of ideas and how to make the workforce coordinate based on responsibilities and work aims (Sascha, Wohlgezogen, and Zajac 589). Therefore, the manager has to ensure that encouraging the workers to participate in the work

roles is related to the decision and the will to enhance their work commitment. The reason is that managers are required continuously to allow their employees to fully control their work performance which impacts on the self-supervision factors and improved work output.

4.8 SUMMARY :

Organisational behaviour is a useful concept for manager to justify and resolve the problems. OB affects manager's way to think about and look at the matters and challenges from broader prospective. Now they look at challenges as a new opportunity and tackle it smartly. Every day managers have to face challenges because of expansion of MNEs (Multinational enterprises), globalisation, diverse work force, advancement in technologies, competition, pressure to provide quality in product and services, making innovative strategies, work life balance, expansion in product line and ways to increase productivity. Approximately a decade ago, organisation behaviour was not considered as an important concept which should be used by managers to solve issues related to work and organisation. But, with the passage of time, drastic changes in the work culture have occurred due to increased complexity in businesses. Since then, organisational behaviour has become an important area in every organisation. In this module, we will discuss the critical challenges which are confronted by managers for which OB offers varieties of solutions and advises managers regarding how to participate in the competitive situations. Modern organisations have become very complex. Rapidly changing environment, change in the nature of work force, technological advancements and globalisation have posed major challenges for the OB managers. In order to survive in such a dynamic business world, managers have to be very sensitive and responsive to the changes occurring in the environment. Due to globalisation, business operations and activities have become globalised. Entry of MNCs in the domestic market and increased frequency of sending domestic employees on international assignments have made the job of managers more challenging and interesting. A manager has to be very attentive and need to keep track of the opportunities and challenges prevailing in the surroundings. The changes occurring in the environment have serious implications on the working of the organisations. The major challenges which are being faced by OB managers are managing workforce diversity, changing demographics of workforce, responding to globalisation, coping with temporariness, improving people skills, stimulating innovation and change, improving quality and productivity, changed employee expectations, corporate reorganisations and improving ethical behaviour of employees.

4.9 KEYWORDS :

- 1. Role of Manager** : A manager has to perform functions like planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling.
- 2. Challenges of OB** : The challenges of organizational behavior in most companies include overcoming cultural and ethnic differences, improving productivity,

hiring employees suited to the organizational culture or who can improve it, delegating tasks to employees, and finding an appropriate level of life balance.

3. Opportunities of OB : It's helps in better management of the organization as it helps in improving the skills of the people.

4. Challenges faced by Manager : Improve employee well-being, support diversity and inclusion in your workplace, bridge the skills gap and much more.

4.10 SELF -ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Define OB? Explain the basic challenges in the organisation?
2. What are the major challenges facing the organisation in the society?
3. Discuss the different opportunities have in an organisation?
4. Converse the opportunities vs challenges in the organisation?

4.11 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Organisational Behaviour, by Amandeep Nahar, P. C. K. Rao, Rajesh Kumar Nigah, Publisher Sultan Chand & Sons, ISBN 935161199X, 9789351611998, Year 2021.
2. Organisation Behaviour, by Dr. F.C. Sharma, SBPD Publications, Year 2021.
3. Organisation Behaviour, by Kumar Pranit, Publisher GenNextPublication, ISBN-13-9789380222103, Year 2021.
4. Organisational Behaviour, by Asawathappa, HIMALAYA PUBLISHING HOUSE, ISBN-13 - 978-9352990887. January 2018.

Dr. Naga Raju Battu

LESSON - 5

FOUNDATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To understand what we mean by acceptable behaviour.
- ✓ To specify relationship between behaviour and both the individual and his environment.
- ✓ To recognize the genetic nature of behaviour.
- ✓ To analyze some of the causes of human behaviour in terms of inherited and learned characteristics.

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Biological Foundations of Behaviour
- 5.3 Causes of Human Behaviour
- 5.4 Environmental Effect on Behaviour
- 5.5 Behaviour as an Input-output System
- 5.6 Behaviour and Performance
- 5.7 Components of Individual Behaviour
- 5.8 Summary
- 5.9 Keywords
- 5.10 Self - Assessment Questions
- 5.11 Suggested Reading

5.1 INTRODUCTION :

Human behaviour, a complex phenomenon as it is, is most difficult to define in absolute terms. It is primarily a combination of responses to external and internal stimuli. These responses would reflect psychological structure of the person and may be a result of a combination of biological and psychological processes. It is a system by which a human being senses external events and influences, interprets them, responds to them in an appropriate manner and learns from the result of these responses.

Psychologist Kurt Levin¹ has conducted considerable research into the human behaviour and its causes. He believes that people are influenced by a number of diversified

factors, both genetic and environmental, and the influence of these factors determines the pattern of behaviour. He called his conception of these influences the field theory and suggested that:

$$B = F(P, E)$$

So that behaviour (B) is a function (F) of a person (P) and environment (E) around him. It is important to recognize the effect of the person and that of the environment individually as well as their interaction and dependence upon each other in order to understand the pattern of behaviour. These two factors are highly linked with each other. Any one of these two factors individually cannot explain fully the behaviour characteristics. An individual's behaviour may change due to a change in the same environment or exposure to a different environment. For example, a person who loses a well paying job may behave differently when he is unemployed. Similarly, just the environment in itself cannot be the cause of or explain a given behaviour. Different people behave differently in the same or similar environment. However, when the situation demands, the environment may change the behaviour of an individual. For example, certain training programmes or rehabilitation programmes have changed the human attitudes and behaviour. Sometimes a sudden and unexpected turn of events or a shock can also induce significant and permanent changes in the human behaviour. For example, there are a number of stories in the Indian religious scriptures where a known.

5.2 BIOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS OF BEHAVIOUR :

It has been established that certain characteristics of behaviour are genetic in nature and a human being inherits a certain degree of similarity to other individuals, as well as uniqueness in the form of genes and chromosomes. Some of the characteristics such as physical traits including physical height, slimness, dexterity, intellectual capacity and the ability to learn and logicalize are all inherited and have a wide impact on behavioural patterns.

According to R.S. Dwivedi, the structures of the nervous system play a significant part in the emerging pattern of behaviour thus bringing about the integration of human behaviour and personality. Some psychologists believe that some aspects of human behaviour can be explained in terms of neural activity and neuro-physiological processes. Dwivedi further explains:

Integration of human behaviour takes place because of the constant functioning of receptors, effectors and connectors. Here the nervous system is primarily involved in the connecting process. The numerous receptor cells attached to the individual's sense organs tend to convert physical and chemical events from the environment into neural events while the several effector cells attached to the muscles and glands convert these neural events into responses.

These responses result in behavioural activity ranging from simple reflex action to the complex creative activity.

Behaviour is sometimes easily explained by laymen as a reflection of the state of the nervous system. This causal relationship is referred to continuously during our daily routine impressions and conversations. For example, when somebody loses patience quickly, we tend to brand him as stupid and the behaviour is explained by a lack of intelligence where intelligence reflects a state of neural system. Similarly a person whose behaviour is depressive is considered to be having a nervous breakdown. In other words, it is implied that a man exhibits a certain type of behaviour because he was born that way, again pointing to genetic structure.

5.3 CAUSES OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR :

As discussed earlier, both scientific thinkers as well as behaviourists have always been interested in finding out the causes for a given human behaviour. Science has always been involved in explaining a phenomenon by looking at its causes and then establishing a relationship between a cause and its effect. For example, the cause of formation of water is mixing of two parts of hydrogen and one part of oxygen in a given manner. Accordingly, the effect of water can be explained by its cause. This relationship is scientific and every time, the same cause will produce the same effect. Similarly, the behaviour scientists want to find out the causes for why people behave in a certain way. If these causes can be established, then certain types of behaviour can be predicted, manipulated and controlled.

The assumption that the study of any subject begins in the realm of superstition has some validity. For example, the scientific field of astronomy started as astrology. Similarly, the study and prediction of behaviour has its roots in superstitious beliefs in supernatural phenomenon. Even though such beliefs are not supported by science, they are still socially prevalent. Any conspicuous event that coincides with some part of general human behaviour is likely to be seized upon as a cause. Many such beliefs have been extensively discussed by B.F. Skinner. He cites as an example, the belief of many people that the position of various planets at the exact time of the birth of the individual determines many aspects of his behaviour, such as whether he is temperamental, impulsive, trustworthy and so on. Millions of people who read the daily horoscope would testify to this belief, even though these horoscopes describe only general characteristics and general predictions that could be interpreted to be applicable to any person, irrespective of when he was born. The science of astrology is taken very seriously in most underdeveloped countries and even in the technologically and scientifically advanced countries, astrologers are seriously consulted. In India, for example, many business meetings are arranged on the advice of astrologers. Prime Minister Indira Gandhi of India and President Ronald Reagan of America have been known to have arranged important political conferences in consultation with astrologers. The position of planets at birth, as a cause, is not considered as predicting specific actions or unique aspects of behaviour of an individual, but only general characteristics such as whether the person is impulsive or thoughtful, even though some of these general characteristics may be explained as being responsible for some specific action of the individual. For example, a quick but wrong decision can be attributed to impulsiveness, that is identified by astrology. It is strange that there is a lack of serious questioning to its validity, even though the

process proposes that all mankind can be divided into 12 monthly categories as far as their behaviour pattern is concerned.

Then there are numerologists who propose another cause of behaviour. This has to do with a person's name. They believe and propose that the choice of a person's name is not a coincidence but a predetermined and predestined phenomenon that is associated with the person's behaviour. Based upon this philosophy, certain patterns of behaviour are identified and predicted by the number and types of letters in a person's name. Each letter of the alphabet has been assigned a number. Thus the letters of the name are replaced by their respective numbers. These numbers are then manipulated and an end result of a single number is obtained. This last number can be used to find some behavioural characteristics associated with this number, as explained by numerologists.

Another common practice is to explain behaviour in terms of certain physical characteristics of a person, the most important of these characteristics being the lines on the palm. Palmistry or palm reading is often explained as a science and has been made popular by Cherio and Saint Germain, who practised the 'art' of palmistry and wrote extensively about it. The four major lines on the palm of the hand are the Life line, the Heart line, the Brain line or the line of education and intelligence and the Fate line.

Another common practice is to explain behaviour in terms of the physical structure of the individual. It is said sometimes that the eyes betray the character of the person. Similarly certain ideas can be formed about behaviour on the basis of whether the person is fat or tall or slim. Whether there is a correlation between body structure and behaviour has not been scientifically demonstrated. Even if there is such a correlation between the two, it is not always clear which is the independent variable and which is the dependent variable. For example, we cannot be sure whether fat people are jolly because, being at a disadvantage, they develop jolly nature as a competitive edge or whether jolly people are fat because they are free of emotional disturbances and enjoy their life by eating, drinking and not caring too much about their physique.

The theory of 'born' leaders suggests that some people behave in a certain manner, because they were born that way. The belief is based upon the assumption that certain behavioural characteristics are genetic in nature and are inherited. If we know that a person has certain inherited qualities and limitations, then we may be able to use our control techniques more intelligently.

The causes of human behaviour can be classified into two categories.

These are :

- (1) inherited characteristics, and
- 2) learned characteristics. Let us explain each of these two in more detail.

A. Inherited Characteristics :

Some of the inherited characteristics that may or may not be changed by external forces and may or may not be important determinants of performance are :

Physical characteristics Some of these characteristics relate to physical height, slim body, vision, dexterity and stamina and have some bearing on performance. Manual dexterity, for example, results in quality performance in such jobs that require artistic maneuvering. Similarly, tall and slim people are expected to dress well and behave in a sophisticated manner, and fat people are assumed to have a jovial nature.

Intelligence Intelligence is primarily an inherited trait, even though children of some very intelligent parents have turned out to be less intelligent and vice-versa. It is also known that intelligence can be enhanced by proper environment or by proper motivation. Einstein was not considered very intelligent during his earlier years. In any case, intelligence as a trait is related to certain behaviours. Intelligent people are easy to convince if the point is right and they can be expected to be much more stable and predictable.

Sex Being a male or a female is genetic in nature and can be considered as an inherited characteristic. However it is highly debatable whether being a male or a female in itself is indicative of any behavioural patterns. Man is expected to be tough while a woman is expected to be gentle. Men 'never cry' and women are highly 'emotional', are some of the stereotyped assumptions that have no basis in genetic influences. These behaviours are developed, if at all, due to differences in treatment that boys and girls receive in the family environment.

Even though some work roles are assumed to be the exclusive domain of women, such as nurses or airline stewardesses, these roles are being modified to accommodate men in these positions. As far as the administration of the management process is concerned, women in general do not differ from men in their operative behaviours.

Age Since age is determined by the date of birth, it is a kind of inherited characteristic. The age may affect the behaviour in physiological as well as psychological ways. Psychologically, young people are expected to be more energetic, innovative, risk taking and adventurous, while old people are supposed to be conservative and set in their ways. Physiologically, with age, older people experience waning of some of their faculties such as memory, stamina, coordination, etc., and hence the related behaviours change as well. According to Lehman, the peak of creative ability is among people between the ages of 30 and 40.

Religion Religion and cultures based on it play an important role in determining some aspects of individual behaviour, specially those that concern morals, ethics and a code of conduct. Highly religious people have high moral standards and usually do not tell lies or talk ill of others. They are highly contented and thus strive for achievement and self-fulfillment. Additionally, religion and culture also determine attitudes towards work and towards financial incentives.

B. Learned Characteristics :

Some of the behavioural characteristics that account for enormous diversity in human behaviour are a product of our exposure to various situations and stimuli, both within the family and the outside environment. These characteristics are acquired by learning where learning is defined as a 'relatively permanent change in behaviour resulting from interactions with the environment'.

These characteristics involve an individual's attitudes, values and perceptions about the environment around him. They are result of parental values and expectations and the values and norms of our culture and sub-cultures. The children learn the need and values of being honest and truthful and the value of love and affection from the family environment. If the parents are always fighting, if the father is always drunk or if the mother resents the child, it is most likely that the child will grow up lacking the warmth of love and respect. Similarly, a loving family instills certain positive values about life in the minds of the children.

The physical environment itself has a profound effect on the individual behaviour. Persons who have come through the rigorous routine of the armed forces or students who have been active sportsmen may have learned the spirit of competition as well as cooperation. Similarly, students who have studied in religious schools and convents may have learned different values about truth and human decency.

Since inherited behavioural characteristics are more difficult to change or modify, it is the learned characteristics that the managers want to study, predict and control. Hence these will be discussed in more detail in the following chapters, but a brief familiarity with this factor is necessary here. Some of these learned characteristics are :

Perception is the process by which information enters our minds and is interpreted in order to give some sensible meaning to the world around us. It is the result of a complex interaction of various senses such as feeling, seeing, hearing, etc. Sayings and proverbs like things are not what they seem or all that glitters is not gold, reflect a sense of perception. One man's meat is another man's poison, is in a psychological sense an indication that different people see and sense the same thing in different ways.

Perception plays an important part in human as well as organizational behaviour. For example, if a manager perceives a subordinate's ability as limited, he will give him limited responsibility, even if the subordinate, in fact, is an able person. Similarly, we lose a lot of good friends due to our changed perceptions about them.

Attitude Attitude is a perception within a frame of reference. It is a way of organizing a perception. In other words, it is more or less a stable tendency to feel, think, perceive and act in a certain manner towards an object or a situation.

Attitude has three elements in it that lead to measurable outcomes. These are feelings, thoughts and behaviours. Feelings and thoughts can be measured by simply asking individuals about their feelings and opinions. Behaviours can be measured either by actual overt actions or simply by asking the person how he would act in a certain situation. By measuring and integrating these three elements, a person's attitude towards a given situation can be established.

In general, a person may have a positive attitude that is good outlook of life, or negative attitude that means continuous complaining about problems in life. Organizationally speaking, an employee's negative attitude about work may be reflected by substandard work performance, excessive absenteeism, excessive complaining about work environment or disobedience to rules of authority. These attitudes can be changed either by simple persuasion or by training and coaching. Kelman has identified three processes that act as instruments of change. The first is compliance, that is application of subtle pressure either through reward or punishment in order to change the behaviour, and expecting this change to be lasting. The second process is that of identification with the person who is affecting the change and is acting as a change agent. This change agent could be a close friend who wants you to change and you respect and love him enough to do so to please him. In marriage, for example, both the husband and the wife make a lot of sacrifices and change their behaviours to please each other. The third process is the process of internalization, that is more permanent in nature. This means that the new attitude is integrated with the other attitudes and becomes a part of the person's total personality. This change may occur through internal soul searching and the desire to change that comes from within.

Personality When we describe people as quiet and passive or loud and aggressive or ambitious, we are portraying an aspect of their personality. Personality is a set of traits and characteristics, habit patterns and conditioned responses to certain stimuli that formulate the impression an individual makes upon others. This personality may come out as warm and friendly, or arrogant and aggressive. Many psychologists contend that personality traits develop in the early childhood years and very few personality changes can be made after the childhood years. Some personality characteristics such as physical build and intelligence are biological in nature, but most traits such as patience, open mindedness, extrovertness or introvertness, etc. are learned.

Some of these personality traits are highly influential in certain organizational operations from organizational behaviour point of view. For example, Tedeschi and Lindskold propose that people who are open minded seem to work better in bargaining agreements than people who are narrow minded. Similarly, people who are extroverts and outgoing are more likely to be successful as managers than those who are introverts.

Values, according to Milton Rokeach, represent basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence. They generally identify a person's moral

structure on which the concept of good or bad and right or wrong is based. Values are emotionally charged priorities and are passionately defended. Values and behaviour are highly correlated. The values indicate behaviour pattern and while they do not necessarily and accurately predict behaviour, when behaviour occurs, it is likely to be in line with the values one holds. Value system, according to Prof. A. Dasgupta, is a framework of personal philosophy which governs and influences the individual's reactions and responses to any situations. These reactions and responses direct individuals in a society to selectively attend to some goals and to subordinate other goals. In other words, value systems represent a prioritizing of individual values in relation to their relative importance. This value system develops from the cultural environment in which the individual is brought up, the concept of nuclear family, religious influences on his code of conduct, respect for traditional concepts of ethics and morality, and degree of faith in the socially inherited religious elements and beliefs. These values are highly stable and enduring and once a value is internalized, it becomes, consciously or subconsciously a standard or criterion for defining action, for developing and maintaining attitudes towards relevant objects and situations, for justifying one's own and others' actions and attitudes, for morally defining self and others' and for comparing self with others.

The value system also determines the form of social organization in terms of family, groups or community and the role and status positions of individuals within the community. This will also determine the decision maker in the family or the opinion leader in the community or the leader in the organization.

Values are important in relation to the study of organizational behaviour because an organization is a composite of attitudes, perceptions, personalities and individual behaviours of managers as well as workers. Values determine what is right and what is wrong where right or wrong is interpreted in terms of perceived values of the decision maker. Values sometimes overpower even objectivity and rationality. For example, in order to open a profitable manufacturing plant in a developing country, it may be necessary to bribe a government official for the granting of the license. This bribe may be customary and routinely accepted and rationally it could be justified. However, the value system of the management may be such as to consider bribery unethical and hence the value system would overpower rationality.

The study of value system of the managerial class becomes important when one appreciates the areas over which the value system can significantly influence the manager's outlook and behaviour. It is now generally accepted that :

- A manager's value system influences his perception of problems and his understanding of the various situations that he faces from day-to-day.
- Value system effectively influences a manager's decision-making process as well as his interpersonal behaviour.

- Each manager largely functions within certain ethical and moral parameters and the value systems play an important role in determining the boundaries of such parameters.

5.4 ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECT ON BEHAVIOUR :

While behaviour is a reaction to situations and the type of reaction is based upon some inherited and some learned behavioural characteristics, the environment is an important catalyst in determining such type of reactions. If the environment is complementary to established behaviour, then the actions are positively reinforced. However, if the environment is hostile to the values and skills of the worker, then negative reactions take place. For example, some of the coolest people have been known to lose temper under certain situations. Highly skilled people have changed jobs because the environment in the job situations was not conducive to their enhancement. On the other hand, less skilled people have learned skills and forged ahead because of the right environment.

The environment surrounding the work place has two elements. These are physical and social. The physical environment at a work place is the arrangement of people and things so that this setting has a positive influence on people. Some of the physical factors that influence behaviour are noise level, heat, light, ventilation, cleanliness, accessibility to work tools, space utilization, colour coordination, nature of job, office furnishing and number of people working at a given place. The open communication between the manager and the subordinates has a positive effect on behaviour.

The social environment relates to interaction among people and respect for numerous social and societal laws, rules and norms created by people to regulate and control behaviour of people. These social influences are affected by family environment, friends, associates, peers at work and groups to which an individual belongs. Much of the behaviour is an outcome of respect for norms and laws. Norms are unwritten rules and informal expectations about how people behave in certain social situations. For example, standing at the back of a line for a service is expected behaviour from people. Any person bypassing the line will be ridiculed and perhaps not allowed to do so. These norms are useful in standardizing behaviour of all people in a particular environment. When in Rome, do as the Romans do is perhaps intended to respect the norms of a certain social group that you come in contact with.

Rules and laws on the other hand are formalized and written standards of behaviour. Both rules and laws are strictly enforced; laws by the legal system and rules by the social system. Laws relate to all members of the society. For example, stealing property of others is illegal and punishable by law and applies to all people within the system. Rules on the other hand affect only a particular segment of the society. These may be rules of a family, a group, a club or an organization. Working from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. is an organizational rule. Airlines have certain rules

about wearing safety belt and smoking. There are rules for visitors visiting a public place or a tourist place.

Observing the norms, rules and laws voluntarily makes for an orderly society and allows for predictability of behaviours.

5.5 BEHAVIOUR AS AN INPUT-OUTPUT SYSTEM :

We have discussed earlier that human behaviour is a function of the person and his environment where the 'person' is primarily shaped by general biological characteristics, and environment that generates external stimuli. It does not include the possibility of randomness of human behaviour and it assumes that all human behaviour is goal directed so that a measurable correlation exists between the goals and behaviour. The external stimulus is most important since it excites the internal processes to activate and the behaviour takes place, so that an external input is necessary to elicit behavioural responses.

The basic input-output model can be described as S<•>O•>B model where S stands for the stimuli generated by the external environment as input, O stands for human organism that is activated by physiological as well as psychological processes, and B stands for behaviour as the output. Before behaviour is exhibited, there is mutual interaction between the stimulus and the organism and except for reflex actions, the organism 'decides' as to the type of behaviour outcome. This interaction results in perception and it becomes the cause of human behaviour. Another input-output model has been proposed by Kolasa that describes human behaviour in terms of a systems model that may describe the process in a more objective manner. The input from the external environment is processed and analyzed through a central processing function that is similar to human organism 'O' in the previous model except that this central processing region is the crucial region of cognition consisting of perception and such core processes as thinking, reasoning, logic, problem solving and decision making.

Here the stimuli forms the input and is transformed into information by various sensory organs. This information is organized by the central information processing function in a manner that is meaningful to the individual. This organization takes place through the perceptual processes that are formed through experience in the social setting, and is a function of the personality traits as far as the values and the utility of information is concerned. The second step in the behavioural sequence is the analysis of the information, choice of alternatives in dealing with the information, then selecting the most beneficial alternative to the individual and taking action. This step is known as decision-making and action taking and becomes the output of the system and this output reflects the behaviour of the person.

5.6 BEHAVIOUR AND PERFORMANCE :

According to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn performance is a reflection of 3 characteristics.

These are :

- Individual s capacity to perform
- Individual s willingness to perform
- Organizational support

While organizational support basically provides an individual with an opportunity to perform that does affect behaviour to some degree, the capacity and the willingness are directly associated with the human behaviour.

The capacity to perform is an outcome of such competency characteristics as ability and aptitude that can be considered as inherited characteristics of behaviour. Ability, that is partly a measure of intelligence, is the basic and important ingredient for effective performance and all the motivation and organizational efforts will not be of any help towards performance if the basic ability does not exist. Accordingly, job performance is facilitated when ability matches the requirements.

Even when the ability fits the task requirements, it does not necessarily result in high performance. To achieve high levels of performance, the individuals must show willingness to perform and put in adequate work effort. The effort or the degree of willingness to perform effectively would depend upon the degree of motivation of the individual. This motivation that is a behavioural concept defines the forces within the individual that account for the direction and level of effort relating to a given task. For example, in a classroom setting, all students generally come from a similar background, similar age, and similar abilities and are exposed to the same instructor and similar study requirements, but all students will not get similar grades because some students will be highly motivated to work harder than the others.

Organizational support and resources affect human behaviour in a significant way and the performance is influenced by this behaviour. Physical facilities and technology in the organizational structure, as well as advice and direction from the leaders are highly conducive to positive outlook towards work, resulting in high quality performance. Inadequate support systems such as rush jobs, unavailability of best tools to perform work with unclear guidance and instructions; are all negative influences on behaviour and performance. Some of the symptoms of inadequate organizational support are given as follows :

- Lack of time.
- Inadequate budgets.
- Inadequate tools, equipment, supplies.
- Unclear instructions and job related information.
- Unfair levels of expected performance.

A. Differentiate between behaviour and performance :

- Lack of job-related authority.
- Lack of required services and help from others.
- Inflexibility of procedures.

All the above constraints intrude on work performance.

5.7 COMPONENTS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR :

Those four components are: biology, environment, cognition, and emotion. Each contributes to the production of behavior in its own unique way and, each can interact with one or more of the others to produce motivated behavior. While it is reasonable to assume that developmental changes across the lifespan would also influence motivational processes, the writer will leave it to others to examine those processes.

1. **Biology**
2. **Environment**
3. **Cognition, and**
4. **Emotion**

1. Biology :

The concept that biology can control behavior is not new. Early instinct psychologists such as James (1890) and McDougall (1970) proposed that many human behaviors were innate. Freud (1957) had a similar view. Ethologists such as Lorenz (1950) and Tinbergen (1951) showed that many animals displayed innate behaviors at appropriate times if the appropriate signal was present. Eibl-Eibesfeldt (1972, 1989) extended this research to include some human behaviors as well. Recently, Manoli, Foss, Villella, Taylor, Hall, and Baker (2005, p.395) have shown that the gene (fruitless) that controls male courtship behavior in the fruitfly produces a set of proteins in a specific set of neurons in the fly's nervous system. Temporary inactivation of the fruitless gene in these neurons "abolishes courtship behavior" in males and when female fruitflies neuron's were induced to produce these proteins, the female fruitflies tried to mate with other females. Clearly, in some organisms some motivated behaviors are genetically encoded and controlled by the production of specific proteins within the appropriate neural systems. Further, Meyer-Lindenberg, Hariri, Munoz, Mervis, Mattay, Morris and Berman (2005) provide evidence that some human social motivation has a genetic component that is regulated via amygdala – orbitofrontal cortex connections in the brain. If the genes in question are missing, Williams-Beuren syndrome, characterized by hypersociability, is produced. Additionally, there appears to be a biological basis for feelings of trust in humans, that occurs as a result of the production of oxytocin (Kosfeld, Heinrichs, Zak, Fischbacher & Fehr, 2005).

Although the study of motivated behavior from the exclusive perspective of hardwired, biological commands is not as popular as it once was, what has become increasingly apparent is that biological processes, sometimes even at the level of genes, can predispose individuals to behave in particular ways. For example, Kagen's group (e.g. Kagen, Reznick, and Snidman, 1988) have provided evidence that extreme shyness depends, in part, on genetic differences in arousibility. However, a low threshold of arousibility is not enough to produce extreme shyness – some chronic environmental stress must also be present. Older siblings often provide this chronic stress and in their study, Kagen et al. found that two-thirds of the shy children were later born. A recent study published in the National Academy of Sciences (USA) by Fraga et al. (2005) makes the biological / environmental interaction crystal clear. Maps of gene activation and silencing in young identical twins are highly similar, however, these same maps for older identical twins diverge - showing that the environment (among other things) affects gene expression. So, even identical twins may behave differently because of different environmental influences that activate identical genes differently.

2. Environment :

The above examples show how environmental variables can influence genetic predispositions, however, it is quite clear that environmental variables can have a large influence in their own right. Volumes of literature are available outlining the processes involved in behaviors learned via classical conditioning, instrumental conditioning, and observational learning (see e.g. Lieberman, 2004). In most circumstances these learned behaviors are not exhibited unless there is some incentive (motivation) for their production. Thus, motivation often seems to select various learned responses based on the previous motivational outcomes of those responses. External cues are also important in the decisions made about which learned behavior to select. For example, in my experience, the visual cues of a particular restaurant in which one has enjoyed a good meal are enough (via classical conditioning) to motivate me to stop there again. The reinforcement (instrumental conditioning) provided by an excellent meal also produces incentive motivation for future stops. To push this example yet one more step, in the United States there is the belief that many vehicles parked in front of a restaurant means the food will be good. One may stop at such a place because we have observed the large number of cars parked there and try the restaurant as a result (i.e. as a result of observational learning).

3. Cognition :

Cognitive approach that has proven useful in understanding motivation is attribution theory. In some ways, attribution approaches to motivation are the flip side of expectancy approaches. When expectancies are used, we analyze past performance to predict future behavior. When attributions are used, we analyze our own or others' present behaviors and ascribe reasons for those behaviors. The interpretation we make when attributing events, then influences our future behavior. Furthermore, there appear to be "rules" that one follows when making attributions. We tend to attribute behaviors to existing predispositions (especially in others) or to the situation (especially for ourselves). Even though dispositional attributions are

often incorrect (called the fundamental attributional error) does not change the fact that humans are inclined to make such attributions and to act on those attributions in the future. Weiner and colleagues have shown how attributions also contribute to changes in achievement motivation (Frieze, 1976; Weiner, 1972, 1974; Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, & Rosenbaum, 1972; Weiner & Kukla, 1970; Weiner, Russell, & Lerman, 1978).

4. Emotion :

Cannon (1968) noted the close relationship between sympathetic nervous system arousal and emotion and proposed an emergency theory of emotion. Basically, he proposed that sensory information triggered emotion and sympathetic nervous system activity simultaneously. The close relationship between sympathetic nervous arousal (the so called fight or flight system) and emotion suggests a strong role for emotion in survival.

Emotion, however, is not always automatic and noncognitive. Neural circuits have also been identified that allow cortically processed information to influence emotion (LeDoux, 2000). Furthermore, it has been argued that emotionally based behavior is often the result of cognitive appraisal (Lazarus, 1982, 1984). The appraisal of an emotionally charged situation must depend, at least in part, on our expectancies from past experiences and our attributions about the present one. Weiner's research group (see e.g. Weiner, Amirkhan, Folkes & Verette, 1987) examined the excuses that people make for failure and found that how controllable an event was determined one's emotion toward the individual making the excuse. If the event for which the excuse was being made was uncontrollable our attributions produce different emotions than if the event was controllable. Attributions, therefore, appear to influence our emotions and the emotions, in turn, influence our behavior.

When we make attributions and their accompanying emotions are produced, we are also learning (and storing) that information. Those memories (perhaps in the form of expectancies about behavior and the attached emotion) are then available in the future to motivate behavior.

Finally, it seems likely that while emotion can act directly and noncognitively on behavior in some situations, as noted earlier, the cognitive aspects of emotion more often serve to modulate behavior. If someone misses an important meeting and provides an excuse that creates negative emotion in you, your future behavior toward that individual will be tempered by the experience. You probably do not stop interacting with the person, but you do interact differently with them. So, while it is likely that emotion evolved originally as a mechanism for quickly producing behavior in dangerous situations, the cognitive side of emotion is more subtle, allowing one to more finely tune responses to the environment. Such fine-tuning of emotion was probably necessary for humans in particular, because of our social nature.

5.8 SUMMARY :

Human behaviour, being the most complex phenomenon, is most difficult to assess in quantifiable terms. However, since behaviour constitutes a set of responses to external and internal stimuli, some relationship between a given stimuli and its predictable response can be established.

There are two factors that have a direct bearing on human behaviour. One is the person himself with regard to some characteristics that he is born with or he acquires because of his family value influences. Second is the environment to which the person is exposed and the environmental forces that are constantly impacting his personality and behaviour. Both these factors are interlinked so that behaviour cannot be explained in itself by either of the two factors, independent of the other factor.

Behavioural characteristics are considered to be both inherited and learned. Inherited behavioural characteristics include physiological aspects, intelligence, sex, age and religion. Learned characteristics include a person's perception about his surrounding environment, his attitude towards life itself and towards other people, his personality and his ethical values. Both the inherited as well as learned characteristics together have an important bearing on the behaviour of a person and knowing the extent of the influences of these factors on the person, his behaviour may be predictable, at least in general terms.

The external environment is known to have a considerable effect on a person's behaviour as a response to a particular stimuli in the external environment. If a particular situation in the environment is hostile to a person's values and established behavioural pattern, then the behaviour may temporarily change as a response to such a situation. For example, some of the coolest people have been known to lose temper under certain hostile situations.

Behaviour can be considered as an input-output system. This concept assumes that behaviour is not simply a random phenomenon but is goal directed so that a measurable correlation exists between the goals and behaviour. The external stimulus or input excites the internal processes to activate and the behavioural responses occur. This means that behaviour is related to performance and productivity. Performance is a reflection of three characteristics. These are an individual's capacity to perform, his willingness to perform and the extent and nature of the organizational support. While organizational support basically provides an opportunity to perform which does affect behaviour to some degree, the capacity and the willingness are directly associated with human behaviour.

5.9 KEYWORDS :

- 1. Individual Behaviour** : Individual behavior can be defined as a mix of responses to external and internal stimuli.

2. Emotion : A complex experience of consciousness, bodily sensation, and behaviour that reflects the personal significance of a thing, an event, or a state of affairs.

3. Cognition : It is a term for the mental processes that take place in the brain, including thinking, attention, language, learning, memory and perception

5.10 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Describe the importance of each of these two factors relative to behaviour and explain as to which one of these factors has more impact on behaviour and why?
2. What do we mean by biological foundations of behaviour? Is behaviour really founded on biological manipulations? Explain your reasoning.
3. Describe some of the inherited characteristics of behaviour. Do you believe that these characteristics can be changed or modified? Give reasons.
4. Is intelligence an inherited trait or a learned trait? If it is a learned trait, what steps can be taken to improve upon intelligence?
5. Describe some of the learned characteristics of behaviour. Do these characteristics change with the change in the environmental situation?

5.11 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Organizational Behaviour By Pearson, Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A. Judge, Neharika Vohra, ISBN-13 - 978-9353067038, Published by Pearson Education. Year 1 November 2018.
2. Essentials of organisational behaviour, by T N Chhabra, Sun India Publications, 1 January 2019.
3. Organisation Behaviour by Dr. F. C. Sharma, SBPD Publications, ISBN:9789383697878, 9383697873, Year December 2020.
4. Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agenic perspective. In S. Fiske, D. L. Schacter, & C. Zahn-Waxler (Eds.), Annual review of psychology (volume 52), Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.

Dr. V. Tulasi Das

LESSON - 6

CONCEPTS OF MOTIVATION

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To study the motivation
- ✓ To read the features of motivation
- ✓ To know the objectives
- ✓ To examine the motivation concepts

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Nature and Characteristics of Motivation
- 6.3 Important Features of Motivation
- 6.4 Main Objectives of Motivation
- 6.5 Importance of Motivation
- 6.6 Factors of Motivation
- 6.7 Motivation Techniques
- 6.8 Employee Positive and Negative Motivation
- 6.9 Motivation – Theories
- 6.10 Significance of Motivation
- 6.11 Concepts of Motivation
- 6.12 Summary
- 6.13 Keywords
- 6.14 Self - Assessment Questions
- 6.15 Suggested Readings

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Motivation is the reason for which humans and other animals initiate, continue, or terminate a behavior at a given time. Motivational states are commonly understood as forces acting within the agent that create a disposition to engage in goal-directed behavior. It is often held that different mental states compete with each other and that only the strongest state determines behavior. This means that we can be motivated to do something without actually doing it. The paradigmatic mental state providing motivation is desire. But various other states,

such as beliefs about what one ought to do or intentions, may also provide motivation. Motivation is derived from the word 'motive', which denotes a person's needs, desires, wants, or urges. It is the process of motivating individuals to take action in order to achieve a goal. The psychological elements fueling people's behavior in the context of job goals might include a desire for money.

Various competing theories have been proposed concerning the content of motivational states. They are known as content theories and aim to describe what goals usually or always motivate people. Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the ERG theory, for example, posit that humans have certain needs, which are responsible for motivation. Some of these needs, like for food and water, are more basic than other needs, such as for respect from others. On this view, the higher needs can only provide motivation once the lower needs have been fulfilled. Behaviorist theories try to explain behavior solely in terms of the relation between the situation and external, observable behavior without explicit reference to conscious mental states.

Motivation may be either intrinsic, if the activity is desired because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, or extrinsic, if the agent's goal is an external reward distinct from the activity itself. It has been argued that intrinsic motivation has more beneficial outcomes than extrinsic motivation. Motivational states can also be categorized according to whether the agent is fully aware of why he acts the way he does or not, referred to as conscious and unconscious motivation. Motivation is closely related to practical rationality. A central idea in this field is that we should be motivated to perform an action if we believe that we should perform it. Failing to fulfill this requirement results in cases of irrationality, known as *akrasia* or weakness of the will, in which there is a discrepancy between our beliefs about what we should do and our actions.

Research on motivation has been employed in various fields. In the field of business, a central question concerns work motivation, for example, what measures an employer can use to ensure that his employees are motivated. Motivation is also of particular interest to educational psychologists because of its crucial role in student learning. Specific interest has been given to the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in this field.

"Motivation" is commonly defined as what explains why people or animals initiate, continue or terminate a certain behavior at a particular time. Motivational states come in various degrees of strength. The higher the degree, the more likely it is that the state has an influence on behavior. This is often linked to forces acting from within the agent that result in goal-directed behavior. One problem with defining motivation in terms of internal forces is that it is very difficult to measure them, which is why empirically-minded theorists often prefer definitions that are more closely linked to observable behavior. One approach is to define motivation in terms of the flexibility of the animal's behavior. This flexibility involves goal-directed behavior that changes as the animal learns through new experiences. Rats, for example, can learn to traverse through complicated mazes in order to satisfy their hunger. The feeding behavior of flies, on the other hand, is not flexible in this sense. On this view, we are justified to ascribe motivational

states to rats but not to flies. But it has been argued that there are cases of motivation without flexible behavior. A totally paralyzed person, for example, could still have motivation despite being unable to engage in behavior. This means that flexibility may still be a sufficient but not a necessary mark of motivation. Some definitions stress the continuity between human and animal motivation but others draw a clear distinction between the two. This is often motivated by the idea that human agents act for reasons and commit themselves to the intentions they form while animals just follow their strongest desire. Causalist definitions stress the causal relation between motivation and the resulting behavior. Non-causalist definitions, on the other hand, hold that motivation explains behavior in a non-causal way.

6.2 NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF MOTIVATION :

Motivation is an important factor which encourages persons to give their best performance and help in reaching enterprise goals. A strong positive motivation will enable the increased output of employee but a negative motivation will reduce their performance. A key element in personnel management is motivation. According to Likert, "it is the core of management which shows that every human being gives him a sense of worth in face-to-face groups which are most important to him. A supervisor should strive to treat individuals with dignity and a recognition of their personal worth."

1. Nature :

Motivation is a psychological phenomenon which generates within an individual. A person feels the lack of certain needs, to satisfy which he feels working more. The need satisfying ego motivates a person to do better than he normally does.

From definitions given earlier the following inferences can be derived :

1. Motivation is an inner feeling which energizes a person to work more.
2. The emotions or desires of a person prompt him for doing a particular work.
3. There are unsatisfied needs of a person which disturb his equilibrium.
4. A person moves to fulfill his unsatisfied needs by conditioning his energies.
5. There are dormant energies in a person which are activated by channelizing them into actions.

2. Characteristics of Motivation :

Motivation is a process through which individually does something in order to satisfy some basic needs. It is a responsibility of a manager to motivate the employees towards the attainment of organizational goals through a higher level of performance. The motivation holds the following characteristics :

A. Motivation is Personal and Psychological Concept :

Motivation is a personal as well as a psychological concept; hence, the managers have to study the mental and psychological aspects of the individual. Motivating factors are always unconscious but they are to be aroused by managerial action.

B. Motivation is a Continuous Process :

Motivation is a continuous on-going process rather than one shot affair. Because an individual has unlimited wants and needs. Motivation is an unending process. Wants are innumerable and cannot be satisfied at one time. As satisfaction of needs is an unending process, so the process of motivation is also unending. As soon as the existing need is fulfilled, another will appear. Hence, motivation should go continuously.

C. Motivation is a Complex Subject :

Motivation is a complex subject in the sense that the individual's needs and wants may be unpredictable. The level of need of a person depends on his/her psychological and physiological aspects.

D. Motivation is Goal Oriented :

Motivation should be directed towards the achievement of stated goals and objectives. Motivation causes goal-directed behavior, feeling of need by the person causes him to behave in such a way that he tries to satisfy himself. From the viewpoint of the organization, the goal is to achieve high productivity through better job performance.

E. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation :

As an individual can be motivated either by intrinsic factors or extrinsic factors. The intrinsic factors include recognition, social status, self-esteem and self-actualization needs which are related to inner aspects of an individual. On the other hand, the extrinsic factors are physiological and social needs such as food, shelter, health, education, salary, and benefits etc.

F. Positive and Negative Motivation :

By the term motivation, we mean positive motivation which is related to the process of stimulating employees for good performance. But it is not necessary that all the time motivation must be positive, rather sometimes it can be negative also. The negative motivation is also known as punishment which is not desired by the employees.

6.3 IMPORTANT FEATURES OF MOTIVATION :

The ultimate goal of every organisation is to increase its productivity. Hence, motivation of employees at all levels is the most critical function of management. Motivated employee

produce a goal directed behavior with his own generator. Outside simulation is not needed to such employee again and again. Inspire of outside forces he is driven himself.

The analysis of various definition and following on motivation reveals.

The following features of motivation are :

1. Motivation is an internal feeling. The urge, desires, aspirations, striving or needs of human being, which are internal influence human behavior.
For example – People may have the urge or desire for possessing a motorbike, comfortable house, reputation in the society. These urges are internal to an individual.
2. Motivation produces goal directed behavior for example – The promotion in the job may be given to employee with the objective of improving his performance. If the employee is interested in behavior to improve performance.
3. Motivation can be either positive or negative. Positive motivation provides positive towards like increase in pay, promotion, recognition etc. Negative motivation uses negative means like punishment, stopping increments, threatening etc. Which also may induce a person to act in the desired way?
4. Motivation is a complex process- As the individuals are heterogeneous in their expectations, perceptions and reactions, any type of motivation may not uniform effect for all the members.

6.4 MAIN OBJECTIVES OF MOTIVATION :

Following are some important objectives of motivation :

1. To Create Conditions :

Main basic objective of motivation is to create conditions in which people are willing to work with zeal, initiative, interest and enthusiasm with a high moral satisfaction personal as well as group. Motivation, as well creates feeling or responsibility and loyalty. This ultimately results indiscipline. Naturally the workers feel pride and confident towards achievement of organisational goals effectively.

2. To Stimulate Employee Growth :

Motivational techniques are utilised to stimulate employee growth. Clarence Francis rightly said that “You can buy a man’s time, you can buy a man’s physical presence at a given

place, you can even buy a measured number of skilled muscular motions per hour or day, but you cannot buy enthusiasm, you cannot buy initiative, you cannot buy loyalty, you cannot buy devotion of hearts, minds and souls. You have to earn these things.” Motivation helps management in winning those that cannot be bought.

Managers believe that motivation is one of the most important factors in managing human resources today.

3. To Achieve Organisational Goals :

Predetermined objectives and goals of any organisation can be achieved by willful as well as efficient work by the work force. Motivation only, can make the workforce to stand to expected standards and efficiency. It, therefore, is a basic duty of every manager to motivate his subordinates for the attainment of predetermined organisational goals and objectives.

4. For Better Utilisation of Human and Non-Human Resources :

It is the duty of every manager to utilise both human and non-human resources in the best possible way. If managers motivate the employees continuously, they will automatically ensure best utilisation of human resources. If human resources are timely and properly motivated, they, in turn utilise the non-human resources properly. Through motivation there will be better utilisation of resources and worker’s abilities and capabilities.

5. For Job Satisfaction :

Higher motivation leads to job satisfaction of workers which can reduce absenteeism, turnover and labour unrest.

6. For Better Industrial Relations :

If management is successful in understanding the motives or needs of the workers and provides an environment in which appropriate incentives are available for their need satisfaction, it leads to better industrial relations between management and workers. It also will increase efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation. Motivation will also foster team spirit among the workers and increase their loyalty to the organisation.

6.5 IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION :

In the directing process, motivation is one of the important elements. By motivating people, the manager guides people’s actions in the desired direction so as to enable him to achieve the organisational objectives. For performing any job, two important things are necessary, viz., will to work and ability to work. The importance of motivation lies in converting this ability to work into the will to work. For performing any job, there is a need for both, viz., the ability and willingness to work.

Without willingness, ability to work is of no use. Hence, there is a need for motivating a person to do his job. Performance depends on ability and willingness and in turn, willingness depends on motivation. It can be expressed in a formula – $\text{Performance} = \text{Ability} \times \text{Motivation}$.

The following points highlight the importance of motivation :

- 1. Maximum utilisation of factors of production** – Motivation makes workers work sincerely for completing the task assigned to them. By this, there is a possibility of utilising the enterprise resources, viz., human, physical and financial, to the maximum.
- 2. Reduced employee turnover and absenteeism** – Attractive motivational schemes bring about satisfaction to employees and by this, their commitment to organisation increases and they are not easily tempted by offers from competitors. This means reduced employee turnover. Further, because of their satisfaction, they will be attending to their work regularly.
- 3. Increase in efficiency and output** – As motivation brings about satisfaction to employees, they work wholeheartedly. Because of this, there will be an increase in their efficiency and output.
- 4. Sense of belonging** – A proper system of motivational schemes promotes closer identification between enterprise and workers. The workers begin to feel that the enterprise belongs to them and the interests of the enterprise are their interests and there is no difference between them. This result in better relations between management and workers.
- 5. Easy availability of right personnel** – Because of the proper motivational schemes, the enterprise is in a position to attract highly talented and competent persons from external sources to serve in its organisation. This helps the company in increasing its efficiency.
- 6. Helps in realising organisational goals** – Motivated employees develop a feeling of total involvement in the task of organisation and put forth their efforts wholeheartedly for the relations of organisational goals.

6.6 FACTORS OF MOTIVATION :

Following are some important factors of motivation :

- 1. Money** – Money is the traditional factor of motivation. Peter Drucker also considered money to be the most important motivator for the employees. Today also money is a powerful motivator in developing countries. “Money” as a “motivator factor” means monetary incentives offered to all categories of employees.
- 2. Achievement** – ‘To achieve something’ is a natural instinct and urge in every human being. Achievement is, therefore, said to be one of the esteem needs. Naturally chances of achievement serve as motivating factor to the employees.

3. Recognition – Every human desires to get recognised for his extra ordinary performance or any great or positive thing achieved by him. This satisfies his ego. In such conditions he is automatically motivated to perform better. Getting recognition is also another need of a human being. Thus hard work, devotion outstanding performance by the employee must be recognised by the organisation.

4. Advancement – Employee's urge for self-advancement is also powerful factor of motivation. Many employees are always after their advancement may be called as self actualisation. It is the apex level of needs which always motivates the employees.

5. The work itself – Work motivating factor is a basic factor of motivation. Every human being keeps himself busy in some work and earn money for livelihood.

6. The growth – The possibility of growth gives satisfaction to the employees. If the organisation provides opportunities for personal growth of employees, they will be highly motivated.

7. Responsibility – The opportunities of higher responsibility motivate the employees more, as they get along with higher responsibility more authority also. Therefore responsibility is also motivating factor.

8. Job Security, Working condition, Status are same factors of motivation.

6.7 MOTIVATION TECHNIQUES :

Following are the main techniques of motivating the personnel in an organization :

1. Monetary Techniques :

These techniques are based on this popular belief that a person works for money. Hence, an attraction of getting more money will prove to be the most powerful motivator. Incentives such as more pay (through various premium plans), fringe benefits, security of tenure and condition of service are some examples of the monetary techniques of motivation.

2. Job-Based Techniques :

These techniques are based on social, human and psychological beliefs. Job simplification, job rotation, job enlargement, job enrichment, freedom in planning for work, sense of recognition, responsibility and achievement are some examples of such technique.

3. MBO Technique :

Peter Drucker, a well-known author of management, has developed this technique which emphasises on self-control and self-motivation. It is a participatory technique of motivation whereby managers and their subordinates jointly participate in achieving the common goals. It requires an emphasis on the MBO policy in the concern.

4. Leadership Styles :

Leadership styles or supervisory techniques also have a great role in motivation of employees. Autocratic, democratic, and free-rein techniques of leadership are important styles and have their own implications for employee motivation, morale and productivity. The management must try different supervisory styles in different circumstances for different employees.

5. Group-Based Techniques :

Herbert Bonner, a well-known author, has advocated group-based techniques for motivating the employees. According to him, 'Motivation is not wholly, nor even primarily, an individual variable. Certainly its force and direction are functions of the social situation in which it arises and is exercised'. Hence, management should foster group consciousness and cohesiveness among individual employees by laying down general norms and guidelines of work for the group as a whole.

6. Sensitivity Training :

This is a technique of training given to groups of managers (known as T-groups) themselves so that they behave with and motivate their subordinates better. The sensitivity training is imparted to make the managers understand themselves better, becoming more open-minded, developing insight into group process and cultivating a systematic approach towards the problem of motivation.

A manager thus trained is supposed to be more consistently able and willing to communicate with his/her subordinates and inspire them to contribute their best to the common goals and objectives.

6.8 EMPLOYEE POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE MOTIVATION :

Motivation is an organised way of inducement to the employees. How far can it create an environment in which employees are effectively induced to do the work? The way management selects the method to inspire the workers will depend upon the understanding of management about the workers' need.

Thus, motivation can be classified as :

1. Positive motivation :

Positive motivation is a reward-oriented method. According to Edwin B. Flippo, "Positive motivation is a process attempting to influence others to execute their will through the possibility of gain or reward." People work for incentives viz., Praise, Prestige, Promotion and Pay (Wages).

Positive motivation includes the following aspects like :

- Praise and credit for work done,
- A sincere concern for the subordinates,
- Competition,
- Participation pride,
- Delegation of authority,
- Appreciation, and
- Pay (Wages).

2. Negative motivation :

This is intended to create fear, mainly backed by force, coercion/compulsion. This can further be of two kinds – financial and non-financial. Negative financial motivation is inflicted on an individual by making a reduction in his pay or wage, etc., and includes denial of privileges- leave, overtime, perks and so on. This is mainly based on ‘force and fear’.

A person fears, for he knows the consequences of not performing the duty assigned to him. Management, at times, threatens the worker with ‘Pay off, ‘Demotion’, etc., if he does not comply the instructions passed on with him. Negative motivation has limitations because punishment may lead to ‘Hostile attitude’ amongst the workers and there is every possibility of outburst of riots/strikes, etc., when this negative tool is used excessively.

Recent trend in HRM is to avoid negative motivation and integrate workers for a long-lasting relationship with the management.

6.9 MOTIVATION – THEORIES :**1. Hierarchy of Needs :**

One of the most well-known theories of motivation is Maslow’s (1954) hierarchy of needs. Maslow highlighted on primary needs as motivators as per hierarchy of needs.

The primary needs of an individual are as follows :

- A. Physiological** – The need to survive; for example, for food, drink, health.
- B. Safety** – Physical and emotional security, such as clothing, shelter, protection against unemployment, and old age pension.
- C. Social needs/love and belonging** – The desire for affection and the need to belong within the family and in society.

- D. Esteem** – Accomplishment and achievement that is recognized and appreciated by someone who matters brings a sense of self-respect and bolsters self-esteem. The achiever feels good about the self.
- E. Self-actualization** – To utilize one's potential to the maximum, working with and for one's fellow beings.

Usually, the fulfillment of primary needs leads to higher order needs and, thereby, the primary needs related motivators become redundant for some people.

2. Theory X and Theory Y :

Douglas McGregor (1960) proposed two distinct views of human beings—theory X that was labeled negative, and theory Y, that was labeled positive. Under theory X, managers assume that the employee does not like work, and given a chance would avoid it. Employees need to be coerced and controlled, or punished to achieve goals; they will avoid responsibilities and basically seek formal direction.

The majority of workers like security and place it above all other factors. As against these negative assumptions about human behaviour under theory X, managers make positive assumptions under theory Y.

They believe that employees view work as something natural such as play, rest, or relaxation; people are basically self-directed and self-controlled; an average person accepts and seeks responsibility; and above all, the ability to innovate is widely distributed throughout the population and is not necessarily among those who hold managerial positions.

The major contribution by McGregor was in line with the framework given by Maslow in the hierarchy of needs. Theory X assumed dominance of lower level needs in individuals, while theory Y assumes the dominance of a higher order of needs in individuals. McGregor himself believed that theory Y is more valid and dependable than theory X.

The major application of this theory lies in managers making assumptions about the employees and turning to motivators that would work under each of the assumption.

Related Theories :

Some factors motivate while other do not. The need for job satisfaction acts as a motivator. Herzberg (1966) identified hygiene and comfort related environmental factors as leading to improvement in productivity. According to him, it is not the work but the way work is being performed that motivates people.

In his book *Professional People and Manual Workers*, Myers (1964), stated that people are motivated by the challenge in a job, which brings a feeling of achievement, responsibility,

growth, advancement, fulfillment, enjoyment of work itself, and earned recognition. Workers become dissatisfied when opportunities for meaningful achievement are lacking or eliminated. Herzberg had also considered that feelings of job satisfaction were more important than money for persuading people to contribute more and increase productivity. Myers, however, defined job satisfaction in more detail. Once the basic factors for job satisfaction were met by the worker, attempts were made to take the satisfaction to another level by job enlargement and job enrichment.

Job enlargement consists of making jobs more challenging and interesting by increasing carried out. Job enrichment refers to providing greater growth opportunities to the employee. Hence, motivation towards better performance depends on the satisfaction of needs for responsibility, achievement, recognition, and growth.

The intensity of these needs varies from person to person and from time to time, and so does the extent to which they are motivated. The term 'recognition' in the definition includes money rewards. Note that both job satisfaction and money are motivating factors. One works to achieve what one needs and does not have. This could be either one of the two factors or both.

In reaction to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Alderfer propounded the theory of existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG). Alderfer's ERG theory was first published in 1969 in an article titled 'An Empirical Test of a New Theory of Human Need' in Psychological Review.

The ERG theory approaches the question of 'what motivates a person to act?' or 'why do we ever do anything?' The theory assumes that all human activity is motivated by needs. Existence (E) needs are material and physiological desires. Relatedness (R) needs are relationships with other people that are fulfilled by sharing thoughts and feelings with others. Growth (G) needs motivate people to change themselves or their environment.

These needs are realized by the complete utilization of existing capacities and developing new capacities. David McClelland (1961) proposed that each of us have three fundamental needs that exist in different proportions. These affect both how we are motivated and how we attempt to motivate others. The most important needs for a manager, according to McClelland, are the needs for achievement, affiliation, and power.

- A. **Need for achievement** – A manager seeks achievement, this is realized by the attainment of goals and advancement, a strong need for feedback, sense of accomplishment, and progress.
- B. **Need for affiliation** – Need for friendship, interaction and to be liked.
- C. **Need for power** – Managers are motivated by authority and seek to exercise influence and to make an impact, that is, to lead and to increase personal status and prestige.

A low need for affiliation and a moderate to high need for power are associated with managerial success for both higher- and lower-level managers.

6.10 SIGNIFICANCE OF MOTIVATION :

Motivation is important in view of the following reasons :

1. Every employee has a set of unfulfilled needs. Employer, by fulfilling some of those needs, can motivate the employee thereby achieving the organization's overall objectives.
2. Motivational initiatives unearth the potential of the employees. This leads to optimum performance which in turn brings down the cost of operation. Both optimum performance and consequent lower cost paves way for achieving maximum efficiency.
3. Highly motivated employees self-direct themselves; they need no persuasion to observe safety precautions, repeated insistence on saving material, time and resources. Thus, self-discipline caused by motivation facilitates optimum utilization of productive resources.
4. There is less scope for workplace accidents, damage to tools and equipment, mishandling of machine, breakages, etc., in facilities where motivation has been applied in full force.
5. Registration of grievances and redressal thereof are out of place in organizations, putting in place different motivational tools.
6. Strike, lockout and mediation will hardly arise in organizations which have set in motion various motivational techniques.
7. There may be minimum attrition i.e., employees leaving the organization where workers are kept motivated to the hilt.

6.11 CONCEPTS OF MOTIVATION :

The concept of motivation focuses on the explanation of the causes of behaviour. The term motivation has been derived from the Latin word 'movere', which refers to the movement of activity. The everyday behaviour is explained in terms of motives. For instance, earning money is the motive behind going to work.

Following are the outstanding Features of the concept of motivation :

1. Motivation is a personal and internal feeling

Motivation is a psychological phenomenon which generates within an individual.

2. Motivation is need based

If there are no needs of an individual, the process of motivation fails. It is a behavioural concept that directs human behaviour towards certain goals.

3. Motivation is a continuous process

Because human wants are unlimited, therefore motivation is an ongoing process.

4. Motivation may be positive or negative

A positive motivation promotes incentives to people while a negative motivation threatens the enforcement of disincentives.

5. Motivation is a planned process

People differ in their approach, to respond to the process of motivation; as no two individuals could be motivated in an exactly similar manner. Accordingly, motivation is a psychological concept and a complex process.

6. Motivation is different from job satisfaction

The process of motivation is illustrated in the figure given below :

Figure 6.1 shows an employee has a need or urge for promotion to a higher position. If this need is strong, the employee will fix his goal and find alternatives to reach the goal. The might have two alternatives, namely, (i) hard work and (ii) enhancement of qualification and hard work.

The Process of Motivation



6.1 Process of Motivation

He might choose the second alternative and succeed in getting promotion (goal achievement) thus, his need for promotion would be satisfied and he would start again for the satisfaction of a new need.

6.12 SUMMARY :

Motivation is the process that initiates, guides, and maintains goal-oriented behaviors. For instance, motivation is what helps you lose extra weight, or pushes you to get that promotion at work. In short, motivation causes you to act in a way that gets you closer to your goals. motivation can be used to achieve legal compliance more effectively. Indeed, while the deterrence theory assumes that punishment will decrease the behavior, some empirical findings suggest a different view. This is based on the idea that fining a behavior puts a price on the violation and provides certainty as to the specific consequences of the violation. At the same time, the crowding out effect has been observed in whistleblowing practices, with the reward discouraging reports among highly internally motivated subjects.

6.13 KEYWORDS :

- 1. Motivation** : Motivation in management refers to the steps managers can take to inspire their teams to achieve more and to support their workplace experience.
- 2. Goal** : Focused content is to rank well for a set of keywords and themes, and unlike linkable content — which targets a broad audience — this type of content addresses a more narrow, specific searcher intent and audience.
- 3. Satisfaction of need** : Fulfillment of a motivational desire. After need satisfaction has occurred, there is no further motivation for gratifying that need.

6.14 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Define motivation? What is the importance of motivation?
2. Discuss the different factors of motivation in an organisation?
3. Explain the concepts and significance of motivation?
4. Examine the theories and techniques of motivation?

6.15 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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Dr. V. Tulasi Das

LESSON - 7

PERSONALITY

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To understand the meaning of personality and personality traits.
- ✓ To explain personality development theories.
- ✓ To analyse the key determinants of personality.
- ✓ To learn about the EQ and IQ.

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Meaning and Definition
- 7.3 Determinants of Personality
- 7.4 Impact of Personality Traits on Organisational Behaviour
- 7.5 Emotional Intelligence of Personality
- 7.6 Role of Personality in Organizational Behavior
- 7.7 Characteristics of Personality
- 7.8 Summary
- 7.9 Keywords
- 7.10 Self - Assessment Questions
- 7.11 Suggested Readings

7.1 INTRODUCTION :

The word personality is derived from a Greek word “persona” which means “to speak through.” Personality is the combination of characteristics or qualities that forms a person's unique identity. It signifies the role which a person plays in public.

Personality is a concept that we use continuously in our day-to-day routine while dealing with people. Personality can be reflected in a person's temperament and is a key factor influencing individual behaviour in organisations. The study of personality is very essential and helpful in ensuring effective job performance. This means that the personality of an individual represents personal characteristics and traits which can lead to consistent patterns of behaviour.

So while trying to understand the personality, it is to be understood that the behaviour is the outcome of a complex interaction between the person and the situation. Hence, it will be necessary to have knowledge of those personality traits which predetermine the parameters for employee's (or people's) behaviour and thus provide a paradigm for predicting behaviour. The theories of personality are many, and most important of them are trait, type, psychoanalytic, socio-psychological, and self-theory. Each theory seeks to add a new perspective to the nature of personality.

In this unit, we have tried to examine the various aspects of personality. We start with trying to understand the meaning of personality, then focus is drawn on the theories and key determinants of personality. We have also tried to explore the various personality traits having impact on organisational behaviour.

7.2 MEANING AND DEFINITION :

Behaviour is the outcome of a complex interaction between the person and the situation. At a particular point of time, the person's behaviour is strongly influenced by certain events in the environment engulfing them (this also includes the presence and behaviour of other people), and yet people have the tendency to bring out something of themselves to the situation. And it will be this something which represents the 'unique qualities' exclusive to that individual.

There is no single definition of personality universally acceptable as the term personality has been defined from various perspectives. It is not uncommon to find people defining personality from the perspective of social success such as a "nice, friendly person" or a "popular person", at times attempts are made to describe personality by a visible dominant trait such as a "strong person" or a "charming person". Thus, defining the personality will be a herculean task. However, let us make an attempt. The word 'personality' can be originally traced to the Latin words *per sona* which means to speak through. This term was used in reference to the masks worn by the actors in ancient Greece. In common parlance, the word personality refers to the role a person is playing in public. A definition of personality with an objective of social learning and having relevance to the study of organisational behaviour could be accepted. It is based on the key idea that personality represents the personal characteristics which leads to consistent pattern of behaviour. A wellknown personality theorist, Salvatore Maddi, had proposed the following definition of personality:

"Personality is a stable set of characteristics and determine those commonalities and differences in the physiological behaviour (thoughts, feelings and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment".

Thus, from the above definition we can see that the personality theory is given as a general theory of behaviour i.e., describe all behaviours all the time. The term "commonalities and differences" indicates that theories of personality often describe what people have in

common with others and what are those particular differences which make them unique. In any organisation, also each employee is unique and may not respond as others do in a particular situation. This complexity makes the task of working and managing employees very challenging. Studies have indicated that an individual's personality development occurs to a certain extent throughout life, though the greatest changes occur in early childhood. In simple words, an individual's personality may change over a period of time.

Generally, personality refers to the set of traits, and behaviours that characterise an individual. It is relatively a stable pattern of behaviour and explains a person's behavioural tendencies. The nature of personality is: (a) it has both internal and external elements; (b) an individual's personality is relatively stable; (c) an individual's personality is both inherited as well as shaped by the environment; and (d) each individual is unique in his/her behaviour. Thus, personality refers to the sum total of internal and external traits of an individual, which are relatively stable and that makes the individual different from others.

1. The Self-Concept :

In personality theory, when people try to understand themselves, we label it as self-concept. It is to be noted that there are various dimensions of perception which enter personality. This is because personality would essentially mean :

- How people affect others.
- How they understand and see themselves.
- What is the pattern of their inner and outer measurable traits?
- What is the person-situation interaction?

In the organisational set-up, the self is very much relevant to the concepts of self-efficacy and self-esteem. An individual's self-esteem is essentially based on his/her self-perceived competence and self-image; whereas, self-efficacy is concerned with self-perception of how well a person can cope with situations as they arise. According to John Miner,² self-esteem is a generalised trait, while self- efficacy is situation specific. Also research has indicated that persons with high self-esteem tend to perform better than those with low self-esteem, and that those having high self-efficacy have a tendency to work hard and end-up doing a good job. This means there is a well-established relationship between self-efficacy and performance.

7.3 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

It will be difficult to answer the question "What are the factors which determine personality? Because there are many cognitive processes, psychological processes along with several other variables which contribute to personality. For the purpose of discussion, we will club all these into broad categories, such as the biological, cultural and familial, socialisation process, and other impacting situational factors.

1. Biological :

These biological contributions can further be divided into heredity, genetic engineering managerial thinking, split-brain thinking, bio-feedback and physical characteristics. We will briefly touch upon these.

Heredity : Heredity refers to those factors such as physical stature, facial beauty, and muscle composition which are considered to be determined at conception. This as a very pronounced and yet undecided area of understanding. It has been found through research that both physical and psychological characteristics can be transmitted. Research of 350 pairs of twins, undertaken by the University of Minnesota, also supports the influence of heredity on personality. The research study indicated that traits such as leadership, traditionalism and obedience were strongly determined by heredity. But, this cannot be said to be conclusive study because of measurement problems and use of controls. Recent studies have revealed that age and developmental factors may come in the way of results. So it can be said that the argument on whether heredity or environment is the primary determinant of personality still continues.

A. Genetic Engineering and Intelligence :

Research studies in the field of genetic engineering have opened up the possibilities of changing and controlling human behaviour. Genetic engineering is being referred to as the next revolution in the wings. We have already heard of 'Dolly' the Sheep clone and very soon this was visible in the cloned human baby. All such research studies will definitely have an impact on the future of mankind. There is an underlying belief that genetics can be influenced by heredity. Geneticist are supported by educational psychologists like Arthur Jenson who believe that intelligence is inherited to a great extent. British psychologist Robert Lynn had reported that the normal mean IQ in US was 100 in comparison to the normal mean IQ of 111 in Japan.

B. Management Thinking :

Based on research studies conducted, some behavioural scientist have drawn a conclusion that managers think differently from lay people. One such conclusion is their ability to foresee the future, years ahead. These people are able to plan and identify steps well in advance and which may take years for completion and take the necessary measures. For instance, Japan's Konosike had laid down a 250 year plan for his company. Other researches have shown the manager's thinking ability in terms of :

- Senior executives have more capacity for looking at things differently.
- Senior managers are more flexible in nature.
- Senior managers have shown a stronger capacity for integrating things.

C. Split-brain thinking (or psychology) :

This topic is considered to be a fad and not well researched upon. This split-brain psychology can be traced to Henry Mintzberg's article titled "Planning on the Left Side and Managing on the Right". Mintzberg had advocated that whether a person will be a planner or a manager can be determined by ascertaining which particular hemisphere of his brain was more developed.

Some trainees have used the split-brain thinking in some of their training sessions. Although research in this area has indicated clearly which parts of the physical brain have control over functions such as emotion and aggression, it has to go a long way in order to develop a clear understanding of the influence of brain on human behaviour. But if the existing information of this psychology is used appropriately, the employees and employers can benefit from learning processes as well as better behaviour at work.

D. Bio-feedback :

Another new emerging influence on personality is the area of bio-feedback. Until the recent past it was believed by psychologists as well as physiologists that involuntary functions such as brain wave pattern, blood pressure fluctuations cannot be consciously controlled. But now with the emergence of bio feedback, it is believed that these involuntary functions can be controlled. For instance, from the electronic signals feedback and from the equipment attached to the body, the person can learn to control the body process in question. Bio-feedback is useful in the field of medicine.

E. Physical characteristics and the rate of maturing :

It is possible to analyse the effects of physical characteristics and the rate of maturing. An individual's physical appearance such as tallness or shortness, fair skin or dark skin, robust or skinny are biologically pre-determined and one cannot change that. But the physical characteristics influence the person's impact on others and thereby affect his self-concept.

One standing example is of Sheldon's Classic Theory, which tries to correlate body build with personality traits. Due to many exceptions, such theories may not have high validity. But there is no denial that physical appearance does affect one's personality.

Similarly, the 'rate of maturation' can also be related to personality. For instance, a fast maturing child, through exposure to many physical and social activities, when compared to a slow maturing child will portray a different personality when compared to the former.

2. Cultural and Familial Contributions :

Conventionally, it is believed that cultural factors have a stronger influence on one's personality as compared to biological factors. It is observed that there is a relationship between

the learning process and the culture. One's exposure to the learning process does influence personality development but very often the cognitive part (or re-enforcement of what is learned), the content matter is not duly acknowledged.

Usually, the prevailing culture indicates what a person has learned or dictates what he will learn.

- What a person learns has content which in turn will be based on his on her cultural background.
- Certain personality traits such as independent, aggressive, competitive, and co-operative can be culturally determined.

In spite of understanding the impact of culture on a person's personality, we cannot draw a linear relationship between personality and a given culture. For instance, if we have a look at the complex societies such as ours in India, we have several sub-cultures within a culture. Also, there exists value and belief differences among different socio-economic classes, age groups and various geographic regions. Thus, the fact remains that culture affects personality, though it may not be possible to make broad generalization.

The task of selecting, interpreting and dispensing the culture is usually evolved around the family initially, and later on it is the social groups influence which works. An individual's early development process is greatly influenced by his parents who serve as role models in the identification process. Usually, the parent of the same sex as the child will serve to be a model and thus is actively involved in the development of the child. Empirical evidence has indicated that the entire home environment in which one is raised by the parents (including the direct influence of the parents) is very crucial for personality development. The environment in which one is exposed to can also substantially shape one's personality. For instance, children brought up in formal institutions such as orphanages, remand homes, and prisons may display personality traits such as aloofness, easily frightened, and awkwardness; whereas, children who are brought up in a friendly and homely environment will display traits such as, warm, caring, affectionate, and so on. Thus, it can be said that over and above the parents, it is the atmosphere or environment at home which can shape an individual's personality.

3. Socialisation Process :

A very relevant aspect is the influence of certain persons, groups and even organisations on an individual's personality. And this socialisation process affects the individual throughout his or her life time. Through the socialisation process, the individual is exposed to a wide range of behavioural potentialities and patterns which are customary and acceptable according to the standards of his or her family as well as the social groups. The socialisation process starts with the initial contact of an infant with his or her mother. Later on during childhood, the other members of family and friends influence them, and then as an employee or while working in an organisation the peer and social groups influence the socialisation process.

It has been observed that the organisation itself contributes to socialisation. Such a process will emphasise on the learning of those values, norms and patterns of behaviour which are part of the organisation and the work group's perspective and mandatory for every new employee to learn and be familiar with. Learning should not only be restricted to new employees but must be extended to all the existing employees as well. This is necessary to ensure cordial superior-subordinate relationships, especially when employees get promoted and are required to interact with new subordinates or they get transferred to work in new areas. Successful socialisation can lead to employee satisfaction. An organisation should take care of the following in their socialisation process :

- Provide a job which is challenging.
- Ensure necessary training is imparted.
- Ensure timely and consistent feedback is provided to the employee.
- Select a capable superior to take care of the socialisation process.
- Work out an interesting orientation programme for new recruits.
- Ensure that the new recruits are placed in work groups with high morale.

Today, most of the firms have realised the importance of having a successful organisational socialisation programme. Such firms are having consciously planned socialisation process which has a tremendous capacity to impact the human resources management as well as organisational effectiveness.

4. Situational Factors :

It is noticed that an individual's personality though usually stable and consistent, can change in different situations. Thus, depending on the situational demand, certain aspects of the personality may also change accordingly. The situational requirement even gets extended to the place of work of the individual. Today, the work environment has become very challenging and demanding for the employee. And this affects the employee's behaviour and personality. If one were to take the social learning perspective, it is the situation interacting with the human being (this includes the individual's personality) which acts as an important antecedent to the behaviour.

As Stanley Milgram has stated, "A situation exerts an important pressure on the individual. It exercises constraints and may provide push. In certain circumstances, it is not so much the kind of person a man is as the kind of situation in which he is placed, that determines his action".

7.4 IMPACT OF PERSONALITY TRAITS ON ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR :

Personality trait typically refers to the basic components of personality. The names are generally the terms used by people to describe one another. There may be hundreds or thousands

of such terms and practically impossible to keep a track of these. Now, research has identified several general factors which can be used to describe an individual's personality. These are depicted in the form of "Big Five" personality factors describing an individual's adjustment, sociability, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and intellectual openness.

Each personality includes a large number and range of specific personality traits dimensions. Thus, each factor is said to contain both a collection of related traits as well as a continuum. For instance, an individual having a personality at one extreme will be sociable, gregarious, and energetic; and at the other extreme will be shy and withdrawn. It will be interesting to note the individual personality in the study of organisational behaviour because it provides the linkage between personality and behaviour. Even though each personality factor represents a collection of related traits, the link between personality and specific behaviours will become clear when we concentrate on particular traits rather than on all the five factors. We will briefly examine the specific personality traits which are particularly important for understanding the various aspects of organisational behaviour.

There are many different personality traits, but some of the important ones for organisational behaviour are risk-taking, self-monitoring, type A and type B personality, self-esteem, locus of control, machiavellianism, goal orientation, introversion versus extroversion, dogmatism, and authoritarianism.

1. Risk-Taking :

People differ in their willingness to take chances. Their propensity to assume or avoid risk has been shown to have an impact on how long it takes managers to make a decision and how much information they require before making their choice. While it is generally correct to conclude that managers in organisations are risk averse, there are still individual differences. As a result, it makes sense to recognise those differences and even to consider aligning risk-taking propensity with specific job demands. For instance, a high risk-taking propensity may lead to more effective performance for a stock trader in a brokerage firm. This type of risk demands rapid decision-making. On the other hand, this personality characteristic might prove a major obstacle to accountants performing auditing activities. This type of job might be better filled by someone with a low risktaking propensity.

2. Self-Monitoring :

Another personality trait that has received increased attention is self-monitoring. It refers to an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external factors. Individuals high in self-monitoring can show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behaviour to external factors. They are highly sensitive to external cues and can behave differently in different situations. Low self-monitors cannot deviate from their behaviour. They tend to display their true dispositions and attitude in every situation; hence there is high behavioural consistency between

who they are and what they do. The high self-monitors tend to pay closer attention to the behaviour of others and are more capable of conforming than low selfmonitors.

3. Type A and Type B Personality :

One dimension of personality that is getting attention both from organisational as well as medical researchers is the Type A and Type B behaviour profiles. A person exhibiting Type A behaviour is generally restless, impatient with a desire for quick achievement and perfectionism. Type B is much more easy going, relaxed about time pressure, less competitive and more philosophical in nature. Type A behaviour profile tends to be obsessive and managers with such behaviour are hard-driving, detail-oriented people with high performance standards. Type B persons, on the other hand, do put in extra effort in order to meet a deadline but do not feel pressurized.

Type A personality typifies a person who is always in a hurry, is extremely competitive, and often hostile and irritable. Opposite is the Type B personality who is relaxed, incompetent, and easy going.

Table 7.1: Type A and Type B Behaviours

Type A	Type B
1. Are always moving, walking, and eating rapidly	1. Never suffer from a sense of time urgency with its accompanying impatience.
2. Feel impatient with the rate at which most events take place.	2. Feel no need to display or discuss either their achievements or accomplishments unless such exposure is demanded by the situation.
3. Strive to think or do two or more things at once.	3. Play for fun and relaxation, rather than to exhibit their superiority at any cost.
4. Cannot cope with leisure.	4. Can relax without guilt.

How do the two perform in organisations? Type As are no doubt highly competitive and hard working; however it is the Type Bs who climb to the top of the organisation.

4. Self-Esteem :

Self-esteem is the outcome of an individual's continuous evaluation of himself or herself which will be assessments reflecting his/her response to others' opinions, situational requirement, and successes and failures. Such assessments are usually stable and accurate enough to be considered as a personality trait. In terms of the Big Five personality factors, self-esteem is most likely to be a part of the adjustment factor.

Some of the ways in which self-esteem can affect organisational behaviour are :

- Self-esteem reflects an individual's choice of vocation.
- Individuals with high self-esteem are likely to be attracted towards higher status jobs. They also select unconventional jobs as compared to individuals with low esteem.
- Self-esteem affects individuals as to how they set goals and attach value in attaining them.
- Employees with high self-esteem set high goals for themselves and place more value on actually attaining goals; and this would work the other way around in case of employees with low self-esteem.
- Employees with low self-esteem are more sensitive to adverse job conditions such as stress, conflict, ambiguity, poor supervision, poor working conditions and so on when compared to employees with high self-esteem.

Simply stated, self-esteem is clearly indicative of the willingness of the employee to assert himself or herself towards completion of the task assigned and thus having positive links to achievement.

5. Locus of Control :

Locus of control indicates the belief of the individual on the extent to which he or she can control events affecting them.

Individuals with

- a) High internal locus of control believe that it is their own behaviour and actions (though may not be) which determine many of the events in their life.
- b) High external locus of control believe that it is (by) chance or fate or other individuals who determine what happens to them.

6. Machiavellianism :

This term is derived from Niccolo Machiavelli's writings, who wrote on how to gain and use power i.e., on an individual's ability to manipulate people. Thus, such Machs can easily be game for participating in organisational politics. Those who are high Machs, believe 'ends justify means'. They try manipulating more, winning more, persuade others more and are themselves less persuaded. Yet, there are situational factors which affect high Machs and they are able to flourish in indirect situations. The situations involving minimum rules and regulations and

emotional involvement with details are irrelevant to winning, and act as a cause of distraction for low Machs. For instance, where jobs involve good bargaining skills, or where rewards are awarded for good performance and winning, Machiavellians can perform better.

7. Goal Orientation :

Another visible difference in individual behaviour in work environment is related to goal orientation or the preference for one type of goal against another. While trying to understand some aspects of individual job performance, we will have to consider two types of goal orientation :

Learning Goal Orientation — A predisposition to develop competence by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations.

Performance Goal Orientation — A predisposition to demonstrate and validate competence by trying to obtain favourable judgments from others (such as one's supervisor) and refrain from negative judgments.

But when applying this goal orientation to work setting, a dramatic response pattern in behaviour emerges. An individual with strong goal orientation may refrain from accepting work challenges and their performance suffers when they are unable to overcome obstacles and when faced with failure, become unhappy and are likely to withdraw from such situations. Individuals with a strong learning goal orientation try to overcome failure and setback by putting in more efforts and looking out for new solutions to the problems. Although an individual's goal orientation may vary from situation to situation, evidence suggest that a significant amount of goal orientation can be indicative of an individual's personality.

8. Introversion Versus Extroversion :

The terms introvert and extrovert describe a person's congeniality. These terms can be extended to refer to a personality dimension also.

Introversion refers to the tendency to direct everything inward; develop a greater affinity for abstract ideas and sensitive to personal feelings. Extroversion refers to the tendency to orient towards other people, events and objects.

An introvert by nature is quiet, introspective and emotionally unimpressive. An extrovert is one who is sociable, lively, impulsive and emotionally very expressive.

People displaying characteristics of both introversion and extroversion are found in all types of educational, gender, and occupational groups. The extremes of both extroversion or introversion may not be good and can even come in the way of the person's effectiveness. It is understood that the introversion – extroversion personality dimension can affect the task performance in various environments. That is introverts perform the job better when alone in a

quiet environment, while extroverts perform better in an environment having many people with a high level of activity.

9. Dogmatism :

High dogmatism refers to the tendency of the individual to be very rigid, perceives the world as a threatening place, prefers to treat legitimate authority as absolute and either accepts or rejects other people on the basis of their agreement or disagreement with accepted authority or doctrine.

Simply stated, a high-dogmatic (HD) person appears to be close-minded and prefers to depend on authoritative people in organisations for guidance and direction, and hence can more easily be influenced by such persons. As against this, people with low-dogmatic (LD) tendency are more open-minded and cannot be easily influenced by authoritative figures in the organisation like HD persons.

With regards to the degree of dogmatism and its relationship with interpersonal and group behaviour it is noted that HDs typically are in need of more group structure as compared to LDs. So the performance of HDs will also be dependent on how the group performs. But a high degree of dogmatism can at times lead to poor managerial performance because they may be involved only in a limited search for information especially in decision making situations.

Authoritarianism Authoritarianism though closely related to dogmatism, is narrower in scope. It refers to a person who displays qualities such as adherence to conventional values, obeys recognised authority, has a negative view of society, respects power and toughness, and opposes expression of personal feelings.

In an organisational set up, such persons may prefer superiors who have a highly directive and structured leadership style. Both dogmatism and authoritarianism can be related to the 'intellectual openness factor' of the 'Big Five' factors.

7.5 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF PERSONALITY :

In the recent years, the concept of emotional intelligence (EQ) has been receiving a lot of interest and is very often considered as an important determinant of leadership trait among employees. At times it is treated as more crucial than general intelligence (IQ) where career success is concerned.

Emotional intelligence refers to how well an individual handles' himself/herself and others; rather than how smart one is or how capable one is in terms of technical skills. EQ is considered as the social equivalent of IQ. The five major determinants of EQ include attributes such as self-awareness, self-management, self-motivation, empathy, and social deftness.

Managers in order to be good leaders need to possess high emotional intelligence skills such as ability to understand and manage people, ability to empathise and understand their feelings, ability to persuade others, ability to withstand their individual idiosyncrasies, and the ability to inspire people by considering their unique personal dispositions. Research has suggested that 90% of the effectiveness of good managers (leaders) is due to EQ and not IQ. According to Goleman in organisations undergoing rapid changes, EQ may determine who gets promoted and who gets passed over, or who gets laid off and who stays back.

7.6 ROLE OF PERSONALITY IN ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

Personality plays a key role in organizational behavior because the way that people think, feel, and behave affects many aspects of the workplace. People's personalities influence their behavior in groups, their attitudes, and the way they make decisions. Interpersonal skills hugely affect the way that people act and react to things during work. In the workplace, personality also affects such things as motivation, leadership, performance, and conflict. The more that managers understand how personality in organizational behavior works, the better equipped they are to be effective and accomplish their goals.

People have many different views of the world that affect their personalities. When a situation arises, an individual will handle it based upon his or her personal values, beliefs, and personality traits. These traits are developed throughout a person's lifetime and cannot be easily changed, so it is more helpful for managers to attempt to understand this rather than to fight it. Traits such as openness, emotional stability, and agreeableness all predict that an individual will have less conflict, work better in teams, and have positive attitudes about his or her work. People with this type of personality should be placed in situations where they would be working with or leading others. Those who do not have these traits will have less motivation and be more negative when they are placed in these same situations.

Positive interpersonal skills is a personality trait that greatly affects the workplace. Individuals who exhibit this trait generally enjoy working with other people, and they have the empathy and sensitivity that enables them to get along well with others. People with this trait are often placed in roles where they work with customers, manage employees, or mediate problems. Decision-making and independence are greatly affected by personality. Personality traits such as self-efficacy, conscientiousness, and pro-activity contribute to good decision-making under pressure and independence, while traits such as neuroticism and not being open do not. Managers can place individuals with these traits in appropriate positions to do their best work.

Placing individuals with certain characteristics in jobs that best suit them raises their levels of motivation. It also affects their overall job performance because they are happier on a daily basis. This affects the overall productivity of the workplace because more is getting accomplished due to better attitudes and happier employees.

7.7 CHARACTERISTICS OF PERSONALITY :

The term personality is used in various senses. Generally, it is used to indicate the external outlook of an individual. In philosophy, it means internal quality.

But in social psychology, the term personality indicates neither the external nor outward pattern nor the internal quality. It means an integrated whole. In the modern world and psychology, it has come to indicate the sum total of an individual's characteristics and qualities. Various thinkers, social psychologists, and others have defined personality in various ways. It is a sum of physical, mental, and social qualities in an integrated manner.

Thus, personality is the sum of a person's ideas, attitudes, and values, which determine his role in society and form an integral part of his character. The individual acquires personality as a result of his participation in group life. It refers to something much more essential and enduring about a person.

Beyond this basic point of agreement, personality has other characteristics or features in common.

1. Personality is something that is unique in each individual :

Personality refers to internal and external qualities, some of which are quite general. But it is unique to each individual. A person can't reproduce or imitate the qualities of another person's personality.

2. Personality refers particularly to the persistent qualities of an individual :

Every individual has certain feelings and other permanent traits and qualities. Personality is mainly composed of persistent or permanent qualities that exhibit themselves in the form of social behavior and an attempt to adjust to the environment.

3. Personality represents a dynamic orientation of an organism to the environment :

Personality represents the process of learning. It takes place about the environment. We do not acquire all the traits of personality at once.

4. Social interactions greatly influence personality :

Personality is not an individual quality. It is a result of social- interaction. In other words, it means that when we come in contact with other members of society, we acquire certain qualities while We exhibit certain others. All these come to form personality.

5. Personality represents a unique organization of persistent dynamic and social predisposition :

In personality, various qualities are not put together. They are, in fact, integrated into one.

This integration is nothing but a result of organization which may be different from man to man. The behavior of a person directed to one particular individual may differ from that of another. That is why; we put the condition of a suitable environment. This suitability is concerned with individual specificity.

6. Consistency :

There is generally a recognizable order and regularity to behaviors. Essentially, people act in the same or similar ways in various situations.

7. Psychological and physiological :

Personality is a psychological construct, but research suggests that biological processes and needs also influence it.

8. It impacts behaviors and actions :

Personality does not just influence how we move and respond in our environment; it also causes us to act in certain ways.

9. Multiple expressions :

Personality is displayed in more than just behavior. It can also be seen in our thoughts, feelings, close relationships, and other social interactions.

Personality is the unique combination of patterns that influence a human's behavior, thought, motivation, and emotion. There are many approaches to the modern psychological study of personality, including the psychodynamic, learning, humanistic, biological, trait, and cultural perspectives.

It can be described as how a person affects others, how he understands and views himself, and his pattern of inner and outer measurable traits. It encompasses a person's relatively stable feelings, thoughts, and behavioral patterns. In fact, our personality changes over long periods of time.

7.8 SUMMARY :

Personality refers to the internal and external traits of an individual which are relatively stable and which make an individual different from others. Personality is the product of heredity, environment, family, social and situational factors. Understanding personality is very important as it influences behaviour, as well as perception and attitudes. Personality has been classified into two basic categories, such as Type A and Type B behaviour profiles. A person exhibiting Type A behaviour is generally restless, impatient, with a desire for quick achievement and perfectionism. Type B is much more easy going, relaxed about time pressure, less Personality competitive and more philosophical in nature. Personality trait refers to basic

components of personality. According to type theories, personalities are categorised into groups based on physical features and psychological factors. The trait theory seeks to categorise people based on their traits such as aggressive, flexible, humorous, sensitive, impulsive, and so on. Freud's psychoanalytic theory seeks to explain personality as comprising id, ego, and super ego. The social learning theory emphasises the process of learning as an important determinant of behaviour. Roger's self-concept theory lays emphasis on how an individual perceives the world around and the self. Existential philosophy is concerned with man as an individual and each person is responsible for his own existence. Freud was the first person to suggest that personality goes through oral, anal, phallic, and genital stages.

7.9 KEYWORDS :

1. **Emotional Intelligence** : Organizational EQ is best defined as "the ability to recognize the organization's and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different feelings and label them appropriately, and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior."
2. **Organisational Intelligence** : Organizational intelligence is the capacity of an organization to create knowledge and use it to strategically adapt to its environment or marketplace.
3. **Learning Goal Orientation** : A predisposition to develop competence by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations.

7.10 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. How do you define personality? What are the specific traits that constitute the concept of personality?
2. Differentiate between introvert and extrovert personalities. Is one form of personality necessarily better than the other? Explain pros and cons of both types?
3. What are the determinants of personality? Which of them do you feel are more important in shaping personality?
4. Explain the Freudian and Erikson's stages of personality development?
5. Critically examine the psychoanalytic approach to personality?

7.11 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Organizational Behaviour By Pearson, Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A. Judge, Neharika Vohra, ISBN-13 - 978-9353067038, Published by Pearson Education. Year 1 November 2018.

2. Organizational Behaviour by Stephen P. Robbins Timothy A. Judge , Neharika Vohra, 1 November 2018, Published by Pearson Education, ISBN-13 978-9353067038.
3. Essentials of organisational behaviour, by T N Chhabra, Sun India Publications, 1 January 2019.
4. Organisation Behaviour, by Kumar Pranit,Publisher GenNextPublication, ISBN-13-9789380222103, Year 2021.
5. Organizational Behavior, 9th Edition, by Steven L. McShane, Mary Ann Von Glinow, Himanshu Rai, Published by McGraw Hill, ISBN-13 - 978-9354600777, Year 26 July 2022.

Dr. V. Tulasi Das

LESSON - 8

VALUES

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To learn about values
- ✓ To study the importance of values
- ✓ To examine the objectives of values
- ✓ To read the characteristics of values

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Importance of Values
- 8.3 Importance of Values in the Workplace
- 8.4 Importance of values in society
- 8.5 Objective values
- 8.6 Characteristics of Value
- 8.7 Types of Values
- 8.8 Sources of Values
- 8.9 Summary
- 8.10 Keywords
- 8.11 Self - Assessment Questions
- 8.12 Suggested Readings

8.1 INTRODUCTION :

Values are defined in Organizational Behavior as the collective conceptions of what is considered good, desirable, and proper or bad, undesirable, and improper in a culture. Some common business values are fairness, innovation, and community involvement.

Value has been taken to mean moral ideas, general conceptions, or orientations towards the world or sometimes simply interests, attitudes, preferences, needs, sentiments, and dispositions.

But sociologists use this term more precisely to mean “the generalized end which has the connotations of rightness, goodness or inherent desirability.” It is important and lasting beliefs or ideals shared by the members of a culture about what is good or bad and desirable or undesirable.

It greatly influences a person's behavior and attitude and serves as broad guidelines in all situations.

The value represents fundamental convictions that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence.

Some common business values are fairness, innovation, and community involvement.

According to M. Haralambos, "A value is a belief that something is good and desirable." According to R.K. Mukherjee, "Values are socially approved desires and goals that are internalized through the process of conditioning, learning or socialization and that become subjective preferences, standards, and aspirations."

According to Zaleznik and David, "Values are the ideas in the mind of men compared to norms in that they specify how people should behave. Values also attach degrees of goodness to activities and relationships."

According to I. J. Lehner and N.J. Kube, "Values are an integral part of the personal philosophy of life by which we generally mean the system of values by which we live. The philosophy of life includes our aims, ideals, and manner of thinking and the principles by which we guide our behavior."

According to T. W. Hippie, "Values are conscious or unconscious motivators and justifiers of the actions and judgment."

A value is a shared idea about how something is ranked in terms of desirability, worth or goodness. Sometimes, it has been interpreted to mean "such standards by means of which the ends of action are selected."

Sometimes, it has been interpreted to mean "such standards by means of which the ends of action are selected."

Thus, values are collective conceptions of what is considered good, desirable, and proper or bad, undesirable, and improper in a culture.

Familiar examples of values are wealth, loyalty, independence, equality, justice, fraternity, and friendliness.

Familiar examples of values are wealth, loyalty, independence, equality, justice, fraternity, and friendliness. These are generalized ends consciously pursued by or held up to individuals as being worthwhile in them.

It is not easy to clarify the fundamental values of a given society because of their sheer breadth.

8.2 IMPORTANCE OF VALUES :

Values are the enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable.

These are more difficult to change or alter. As ethical conduct receives more visibility in the workplace, the importance of values is increased as a topic of discussion in management.

Values are general principles to regulate our day-to-day behavior. They not only give direction to our behavior but are also ideals and objectives in themselves.

They are the expression of the ultimate ends, goals, or purposes of social action.

Our values are the basis of our judgments about what is desirable, beautiful, proper, correct, important, worthwhile, and good as well as what is undesirable, ugly, incorrect, improper, and bad.

Pioneer sociologist Durkheim emphasized the importance of values (though he used the term 'morals') in controlling disruptive individual passions.

He also stressed that values enable individuals to feel that they are part of something bigger than themselves.

E. Shils also makes the same point and calls 'the central value system' (the main values of society) seen as essential in creating conformity and order.

Indian sociologist R.K. Mukherjee writes: "By their nature, all human relations and behavior are embedded in values.

- Value is the foundation for understanding the level of motivation.
- It influences our perception.
- Value helps to understand what ought to be or what ought not to be.
- It contains interpretations of right or wrong.
- These influence attitudes and behavior.
- It implies that certain behaviors or outcomes are preferred over others.
- These allow the members of an organization to interact harmoniously. These make it easier to reach goals that would be impossible to achieve individually.
- These goals are set for achievements, and they motivate, define, and color all our cognitive, affective, and add connective activities.
- They are the guideposts of our lives and direct us to who we want to be.
- Values and morals can guide, inspire, and motivate a person giving energy and a zest for living and doing something meaningful.

Actually, values are important to the study of organizational behavior because they lay the foundation for the understanding of attitudes and motivation.

Individuals enter an organization with preconceived notions of what “ought” or what “ought not” to be. Of course, these notions are not value-free.

These are part of the makeup of a person. They remind us as to what is important in our lives, such as success or family, but also, by virtue of their presence, they provide contrast to what is not important.

That is not to say that, over time, values cannot change. As we grow and change as individuals, we will begin to value different aspects of life.

If we value- family when we are younger, as our children get older, we might start to value success in business more than the family.

8.3 IMPORTANCE OF VALUES IN THE WORKPLACE :

Values are meant to reflect what is important to us in life. Our values represent our personal guiding principles or life goals, guiding our behavior in all aspects of life, including our home life, our work like, and our social life. The importance of values lies in their purpose, which is, in short, to guide our beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors.

While we are not always aware of our own values, knowing what values are can actually help you make better decisions that benefit you and others in the long run. This could mean taking a job that has clearer opportunities for variety, change, and spontaneity, or a job that has clearer opportunities for security and tenure.

Values, at their core, are ordered by priority. For example, someone may value freedom over comfort, and comfort over equality. This hierarchy of importance translates to the belief that, if necessary, one thing (equality) should be sacrificed for another (comfort), and then another (comfort) for another (freedom).

Values are important because they guide our beliefs, attitudes, and behavior. If you continuously compromise your values in your decision-making, the detriments to your own morale are undeniable. Recognizing, understanding, and staying loyal to your values is therefore one of the most important efforts any human being can take, and is equally as important when it comes to the workplace.

Here is a list of reasons outlining the specific importance of values in the workplace :

1. Values help you to gain self-respect.
2. Values help you be clear about your wants
3. Values help you in decision-making
4. Values help you enjoy your life
5. Values keep you motivated, focused, and engaged

1. Values help you to gain self-respect :

Sticking to your values and choosing not to compromise them for demands is a guaranteed way to regain self-respect. For example, if you value punctuality, communicate this to your coworkers. If you feel you are being underappreciated or neglected by your superiors, speak up.

If you do not respect yourself by staying true to what you believe is morally sound, and what falls in line with your values, there is no reason for anyone else to respect you either. Communicating your values not only improves your relationships and happiness with others but builds self-respect.

2. Values help you be clear about your wants :

Personal values don't only serve an important function in your life. They can be especially useful in the workplace as well, informing your job searches or career decision making.

In order to identify your personal work values, you should aim to sort values from most important to least important. These could include recognition, achievement, independence, support, working conditions, justice, and so on. By having a clear sense of which values are important to your work efforts, you will be able to identify the companies or industries that have methods and goals most conducive to your personal values.

The crux of this is in understanding which specific values are of utmost importance to us, in order to avoid compromising them in any way in our work life. If you don't have a clear understanding of what your values are, you will have a lot of difficulties figuring out what it is you are looking for to be satisfied and happy at work.

3. Values help you in decision-making :

The modern job market can make anyone feel like they have all the choices in the world, but with that opportunity overload, there comes the feeling that we have 'forgotten' how to make a good decision. There will always be alternatives, always different opportunities and paths you can take. Having a clear sense of what your values are can help you to navigate those options, eventually drawing out the ideal choice.

For example, if you have reached your maximum position for growth and advancement in the company you work for, what steps do you take? Are you meant to stay and compromise your desire for more stimulation for job security, or do you value stimulation more than security, and start looking for a new job where you can further develop?

Realizing and identifying our values are of utmost importance because when we understand them, we are able not only to communicate them when changes need to be made, but we can also draw on them when we decide to change paths if they are not being met.

4. Values help you enjoy your life :

Values are the ethical goal statements that drive our behavior, and while some may change over time, our core values remain intact from the moment they are conceived. Your personal values are directly connected to your contemplating conscience. When something spurs you to behave against your values, your conscience raises an objection and persists until it cannot be ignored without sacrificing your happiness.

Hanging on to a job or a position because of its potential you can see in it, sacrificing your own contentedness and value satisfaction in your work is not a healthy choice to make. There will always be a positive correlation between our values and job satisfaction. Seeking out a common denominator between your value system and your employer will allow you to reach fulfillment in your experience at work.

5. Values keep you motivated, focused, and engaged :

When you're working for a company with whom you disagree with over their product, process, or mission, your productivity suffers. Living in accordance with values keeps us motivated and happy in all areas of our lives, including the workplace. Working towards a goal we don't strongly believe in can leave us lagging in our efforts, losing motivation much faster than if we were to truly want to strive for the goal in question.

Understanding that others can have different values from your own is the crux of better understanding others altogether. Values can help us to predict each other's choices, avoiding misunderstandings, frustration, and distrust. Understanding that other people prioritize a different set of values that guide their behaviour will help you to better understand that while their choices may differ from yours, they are right for them.

Our values inform us through, words, and actions. They help us to grow and develop, creating the future we want to experience, both for ourselves and for others. Clarity about your values can help create a strong life foundation, providing you a basis for decision-making and setting you up for happiness in both life and work.

8.4 IMPORTANCE OF VALUES IN SOCIETY :

The Values are important As they help society to form thoughts, worlds and actions. Values help people grow and develop; Help create the future that people want to experience. Every individual and every organization is involved in making hundreds of decisions every day. The decisions you make are a reflection of each other's values and beliefs.

These decisions are always going to be directed towards a specific purpose. That purpose is the satisfaction of collective or individual needs.

When using the values for take decisions , A deliberate decision is made to focus on things that are important to each other. When values are shared, they build internal cohesion within a group.

There are four types of values that can be found in an organizational environment. These include: individual values, relational values, organizational values, and social values.

Individual values reflect how individuals are shown and the specific needs of each individual; Self-interest. Relational values reflect how each person relates to others in their life.

Organizational values reflect how an organization operates in the world; Social ones reflect how you or your organization relates to society.

1. Help to progress :

Individual values help individuals to move toward perfection or as close as they can be to it.

It is important that people constantly move forward in their lives. In this way it is possible that productivity is feasible and that achievements can be realized. Good values help each individual member achieve his or her particular goals.

2. They manage the common actions of individuals in a society :

Values are important because they become the basic determiners of perceptions, opinions and attitudes of a society. They help to decide if preferences or events are good or bad, important or significant and correct or wrong.

3. Expand the identity of a society and culture :

Values have many social functions. Those values that derive from common experience unite families, tribes, societies and nations.

When values are implemented, societal standards can be maintained. Values are the fabric that creates culture; If people lie, cheat and steal, the culture of society will not be healthy.

4. Provide tools for self-realization :

Values are needed to know how to react to difficult situations. Values are also needed to form lasting relationships with those around us.

Values matter because they act as a set of rules and guidelines for events that an individual encounters throughout his or her life.

Having a knowledge of values important to each person helps you to properly face a situation to make better decisions.

In this way, an individual can achieve self-realization and be the best version of the self that can be. This can only be achieved through the application of a good value system.

5. They make society and people work better :

A society with a good value structure makes people better able to relate. Ideally, each value means the same for each individual. All the individuals of a society must share the same basic values in order to build a good culture and a good society.

When values are well implemented, society can function in an orderly and functional way. This allows people to have an awareness of the purposes; Can solve quickly and satisfactorily the problems that are presented.

Social values make individual problems become collective problems that affect all people living in society. A joint solution to all the difficulties faced can be achieved.

6. Change human behavior :

The behavior of people can be changed through a system of values. Thanks to this, it is possible for people to change their behavior for the better.

Values are an effective way of correcting and reforming negative behaviors in individuals and in a society.

7. They bring something positive to the common welfare :

The social values Always contribute something and work so that all individuals are favored without distinction. This makes it possible for coexistence to be positive and beneficial for all.

Laws and legal systems also reinforce this coexistence, but individuals in society do not stay away from committing criminal acts for that reason alone.

Society can be kept stable thanks to the practice of values as they create a basis of mutual respect between the individuals who live together.

8. Provide personal satisfaction :

A good value base will provide personal satisfaction, help social interactions, and advance the survival of a society.

Values not only eliminate negative aspects of an individual, they also help cultivate personalities who can enjoy the fruits of a positive culture to the fullest.

9. Facilitate socialization :

Values are transferred and transmitted to children during their primary and secondary socialization. It is quite complicated to make an adult learn new values, that is why they are instilled in children.

In the family is usually the first environment where values are instilled. Parents tend to be the main formators of their children, so it is important that values are transmitted from generation to generation.

The school is also one of the most important environments where they learn the values that facilitate socialization.

10. They allow an individual to play various roles :

One of the main objectives of a good value system is to create a fully integrated individual; which has the flexibility to play various roles in your life.

This means that he can be an assertive leader / follower, a good local and world citizen, a reflective critic, a scientific or aesthetic lawyer, and a social activist.

8.5 OBJECTIVE VALUES :

Values are guiding principles of life, which are conducive to one's physical, social and mental health. Inculcation of desirable values is felt necessary through the education and for this purpose teachers, the educational institutions and society in general should be prepared.

Values are defined in Organizational Behavior as the collective conceptions of what is considered good, desirable, and proper or bad, undesirable, and improper in a culture. Some common business values are fairness, innovation, and community involvement.

It aims at promoting broader capabilities, attitudes and skills that matter not just in schools but also life beyond schools, making the world a better place not just for themselves but also for their family, friends, colleagues and others.

8.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF VALUE :

Values are different for each person. These can be defined as a person's ideas or beliefs, desirable or undesirable. The variability in that statement is, first, what a person could value, and, second, the degree to which they value it.

Values may be specific, such as honoring one's parents or owning a home or they may be more general, such as health, love, and democracy. 'Truth prevails', 'love thy neighbor as yourself', 'learning is good as ends itself are a few examples of general values. Individual achievement, personal happiness, and materialism are major values of modern industrial society.

It is defined as a concept of the desirable, an internalized criterion or standard of evaluation a person possesses. Such concepts and standards are relatively few and determine or guide an individual's evaluations of the many objects encountered in everyday life.

The characteristics of values are :

- These are extremely practical, and valuation requires techniques and an understanding of the strategic context.
- These can provide standards of competence and morality.
- These can go beyond specific situations or persons.
- Personal values can be influenced by culture, tradition, and a combination of internal and external factors.
- These are relatively permanent.
- These are more central to the core of a person.
- Most of our core values are learned early in life from family, friends, neighborhood school, the mass print, visual media, and other sources within society.
- Values are loaded with effective thoughts about ideas, objects, behavior, etc.
- They contain a judgmental element in that they carry an individual's ideas as to what is right, good, or desirable.
- Values can differ from culture to culture and even from person to person.
- Values play a significant role in the integration and fulfillment of man's basic impulses and desire stably and consistently appropriate for his living.
- They are generic experiences in social action made up of both individual and social responses and attitudes.
- They build up societies and integrate social relations.
- They mold the ideal dimensions of personality and depth of culture.
- They influence people's behavior and serve as criteria for evaluating the actions of others.
- They have a great role to play in the conduct of social life. They help in creating norms to guide day-to-day behavior.

The values of a culture may change, but most remain stable during one person's lifetime.

Socially shared, intensely felt values are a fundamental part of our lives. These values become part of our personalities. They are shared and reinforced by those with whom we interact.

Since values often strongly influence attitude and behavior, they serve as a personal compass for employee conduct in the workplace.

This help determines whether an employee is passionate about work and the workplace, which can lead to above-average returns, high employee satisfaction, strong team dynamics, and synergy.

8.7 TYPES OF VALUES :

Values refer to stable life goals that people have, reflecting on what is most important to them.

These are established throughout one's life as a result of accumulating life experiences and tend to be relatively stable. The values that are important to people tend to affect the types of decisions they make, how they perceive their environment, and their actual behaviors. Moreover, people are more likely to accept job offers when the company possesses the values people care about.

Value attainment is one reason people stay in a company, and when an organization does not help them attain their values, they are more likely to leave if they are dissatisfied with the job itself.

Rokeach divided values into two types.

The values important to people tend to affect their decisions, how they perceive their environment, and their actual behaviors.

There are two types of values are

1. Terminal Values.
2. Instrumental Values.

1. Terminal Values :

Terminal Values are most desirable to humans, and Instrumental values are views of how human desires should be achieved.

These are values that we think are most important or desirable.

Terminal Values refer to desirable end-states of existence, the goals a person would like to achieve during his or her lifetime. They include happiness, self-respect, recognition, inner harmony, leading a prosperous life, and professional excellence.

2. Instrumental Values :

Instrumental values deal with views on acceptable modes of conductor means of achieving the terminal values.

These include being honest, sincere, ethical, and ambitious. These values are more focused on personality traits and character.

There are many typologies of values. One of the most established surveys to assess individual values is the Rokeach Value Survey.

This survey lists 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values in alphabetical order.

They are given below :

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
A comfortable life (a prosperous life)	Ambitious (hardworking)
An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)	Broadminded (open-minded)
A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)	Capable (competent, efficient)
A world of peace (free of war and conflict)	Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)
A world of beauty (the beauty of nature and the arts)	Clean (neat, tidy)
Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)	Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)
Family security (taking care of loved ones)	Forgiving (willing to pardon)
Freedom (independence, free choice)	Helpful (working for the welfare of others)
Happiness (contentedness)	Honest (sincere, truthful)
Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)	Imaginative (daring, creative)
Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)	Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)
National security (protection from attack)	Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)
Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)	Logical (consistent, rational)
Salvation (saved, eternal)	Loving (affectionate, tender)
Self-respect (self-esteem)	Obedient (dutiful, respectful)

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
Social recognition (respect, admiration)	Polite (courteous, well-mannered)
A true friend (close companionship)	Responsible (dependable, reliable)
Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)	Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)

The values a person holds will affect his or her employment.

For example, someone who has an orientation toward strong stimulation may pursue extreme sports and select an occupation that involves fast action and high risks, such as a firefighter, police officer, or emergency medical doctor.

Someone who has a drive for achievement may more readily act as an entrepreneur.

Several studies confirm that the RVS values vary among groups. People in the same occupations or categories (e.g., corporate managers, union members, parents, and students) tend to hold similar values.

For instance, one study compared corporate executives, members of the steelworkers' union, and members of a community activist group.

Although a good deal of overlap was found among the three groups, there were also some very significant differences.

The activists had value preferences that were quite different from those of the other two groups.

They ranked "equality" as their most important terminal value; executives and union members ranked this value 12 and 13, respectively. Activists ranked "helpful" as their second-highest instrumental value.

The other two groups both ranked it 14. These differences are important because executives, union members, and activists are vested in what corporations do.

8.8 SOURCES OF VALUES :

Sources of value are a comprehensive guide to financial decision-making suitable for beginners as well as experienced practitioners.

It treats financial decision-making as both an art and a science and proposes a comprehensive approach through which companies can maximize their value.

Generally, no values tend to be relatively stable and enduring.

A significant portion of the values we hold is established in our early years by parents, teachers, friends, and others. There are so many sources from which we can acquire different values.

1. Sources of values are :

- ❖ Family : Family is a great source of values. A child learns his first value from his family.
- ❖ Friends & peers : Friends and peers play a vital role in achieving values.
- ❖ Community or society : As a part of society, a person learns values from society or different groups of society.
- ❖ School : As a learner, schools, and teachers also play a very important role in introducing values.
- ❖ Media : Media such as – Print media, Electronic media also play the role of increasing values in the mind of people.
- ❖ Relatives : Relative also helps to create values in the minds of people.
- ❖ Organization : Different organizations and institutions also play a vital role in creating value.

2. Values and Beliefs

Values are socially approved desires and goals that are internalized through conditioning, learning, or socialization and become subjective preferences, standards, and aspirations. They focus on the judgment of what ought to be. This judgment can represent the specific expression of the behavior.

They are touched with moral flavor, involving an individual's judgment of what is right, good, or desirable.

Thus -

- Values provide standards of competence and morality.
- These are ideas that we hold to be important.
- They govern the way we behave, communicate, and interact with others.
- They transcend specific objects, Situations, or persons.
- These are relatively permanent, and there is resistance to change them.

Beliefs are the convictions we generally hold true, usually without actual proof or evidence.

They are often, but not always, connected to religion. Religious beliefs could include a belief that Allah is alone and created the earth.

Religions other than Islam also have their own set of beliefs.

Nonreligious beliefs could include: that all people are created equal, which would guide us to treat everyone regardless of sex, race, religion, age, education, status, etc., with equal respect.

Conversely, someone might believe that all people are not created equal. These are basic assumptions that we make about the world, and our values stem from those beliefs.

Our values are things that we deem important and can include concepts like equality, honesty, education, effort, perseverance, loyalty, faithfulness, conservation of the environment, and many, many other concepts. Our beliefs grow from what we see, hear, experience, read and think about.

From these things, we develop an opinion that we hold to be true and unmovable at that time.

We derive our values from our beliefs, which can be correct or incorrect compared to evidence but hold for us! Everyone has an internalized system of beliefs developed throughout their lives.

These may stem from religion or may develop separately from religion.

- a. Beliefs are concepts that we hold to be true.
- b. These may come from religion, but not always.
- c. Beliefs determine our attitudes and opinions.

8.9 SUMMARY :

Values help to guide our behavior. It decides what we think of as right, wrong, good, or unjust. Values are individual beliefs that motivate people to act one way or another. They serve as a guide for human behavior. Generally, people are predisposed to adopt the values that they are raised with. People also tend to believe that those values are “right” because they are the values of their particular culture. values are the things that you believe are important in the way you live and work. They (should) determine your priorities, and, deep down, they're probably the measures you use to tell if your life is turning out the way you want it to. Value is an estimate of the value of a business, business ownership interest, security, or intangible asset, arrived at by applying the valuation procedures appropriate for a valuation engagement.

8.10 KEYWORDS :

- 1. Moral Value** : Moral values are defined as guidelines that assist a person in deciding between right and wrong.

2. Values : Values are individual beliefs that motivate people to act one way or another.

3. Statement of Value : A values statement should be memorable, actionable and timeless.

8.11 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Define value? Explain the importance of values ?
2. Discuss the terminal and instrumental values?
3. Converse the importance of value at workplace as well as in society?
4. Enlighten the objectives and characteristics of values?

8.12 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Organisational Behaviour, by Asawathappa, HIMALAYA PUBLISHING HOUSE, ISBN-13 - 978-9352990887. January 2018.
2. Essentials of organisational behaviour, by T N Chhabra, Sun India Publications, 1 January 2019.
3. Organisation Behaviour by Dr. F. C. Sharma, SBPD Publications, ISBN:9789383697878, 9383697873, Year December 2020.
4. Organizational Behavior Includes latest Indian case studies and research Eighteenth Edition By Pearson, 31 May 2022, by Neharika Vohra Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A. Judge, ISBN-13 - 978-9356064270.

Dr. V. Tulasi Das

LESSON - 9

A T T I T U D E S

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To learn about attitude
- ✓ To know the positive attitude
- ✓ To study the functions of attitude
- ✓ To read the factors of attitude

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 9.1 Introduction and Definition
- 9.2 Components of Attitude
- 9.3 Factors Influencing Attitudes
- 9.4 Types of Attitudes
- 9.5 Functions of Attitudes
- 9.6 Difference Between Attitude and Behavior
- 9.7 Characteristics of Attitude
- 9.8 Barriers to Change Attitudes
- 9.9 Ways of Changing Attitudes
- 9.10 Workplace and Attitudes
- 9.11 Attitude Surveys
- 9.12 Attitudes and Beliefs
- 9.13 Summary
- 9.14 Keywords
- 9.15 Self - Assessment Questions
- 9.16 Suggested Readings

9.1 INTRODUCTION AND DEFINITION :

An attitude is a positive, negative, or mixed evaluation of an object expressed at some level of intensity. It is an expression of a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of a person, place, thing, or event. These are fundamental determinants of our perceptions of and actions toward all aspects of our social environment. Attitudes involve a complex organization of evaluative beliefs, feelings, and tendencies toward certain actions.

We tend to approach, seek out, or be associated with things we like; we avoid, shun, or reject things we do not like.

Some examples of attitudes are- he has a positive attitude about the changes, she is friendly and has a good attitude, he was showing some attitude during practice today, so the coach benched him, I like my friends that means I am expressing my attitudes towards my friends, etc.

Attitude is the manner, disposition, feeling, and position about a person or thing, tendency, or orientation, especially in the mind.

According to Gordon Allport, “An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related.”

Frank Freeman said, “An attitude is a dispositional readiness to respond to certain institutions, persons or objects in a consistent manner which has been learned and has become one’s typical mode of response.”

Thurstone said, “An attitude denotes the total of man’s inclinations and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats, and other any specific topic.” Anastasi defined attitude as “A tendency to react favorably or unfavorably towards a designated class of stimuli, such as a national or racial group, a custom or an institution.”

According to N.L. Munn, “Attitudes are learned predispositions towards aspects of our environment. They may be positively or negatively directed towards certain people, services, or institutions.”

Attitudes are an ‘individual’s enduring favorable or unfavorable evaluations, emotional feelings, and action tendencies toward some object or idea.’ — David Krech, Richard S. Crutchfield, and Egerton L. Ballackey.

“Attitude can be described as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner for a given object.” — Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen.

“An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner.” — Milton Rokeach.

9.2 COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDE :

Attitudes are simply expressions of much we like or dislike various things. Attitudes represent our evaluations, preferences, or rejections based on the information we receive.

3 components of attitude are

- (1) Cognitive Component,
- (2) Affective Component, and
- (3) Behavioral Component.

It is a generalized tendency to think or act in a certain way in respect of some object or situation, often accompanied by feelings. It is a learned predisposition to respond consistently concerning a given object.

This can include evaluations of people, issues, objects, or events. Such evaluations are often positive or negative, but they can also be uncertain at times. These are the way of thinking and shape how we relate to the world both in work and Outside of work.

Researchers also suggest that there are several different components that makeup attitudes. One can see this by looking at the three components of an attitude: cognition, affect, and behavior.

1. Cognitive Component :

The cognitive component of attitudes refers to the beliefs, thoughts, and attributes that we would associate with an object. It is the opinion or belief segment of an attitude. It refers to that part of the attitude that is related to the general knowledge of a person. Typically these come to light in generalities or stereotypes, such as ‘all babies are cute’, ‘smoking is harmful to health, etc.

2. Affective Component :

The affective component is the emotional or feeling segment of an attitude. It is related to the statement which affects another person. It deals with feelings or emotions that are brought to the surface about something, such as fear or hate. Using the above example, someone might have the attitude that they love all babies because they are cute or that they hate smoking because it harms health.

3. Behavioral Component :

The behavior component of an attitude consists of a person’s tendencies to behave in a particular way toward an object. It refers to that part of attitude that reflects the intention of a person in the short-run or long run.

Using the above example, the behavioral attitude may be ‘I cannot wait to kiss the baby,’ or ‘we better keep those smokers out of the library, etc.

9.3 FACTORS INFLUENCING ATTITUDES :

By attitudes, we mean the beliefs, feelings, and action tendencies of individuals or individuals towards objects, ideas, and people. Attitudes involve some knowledge of a situation.

However, the essential aspect of the attitude is found in the fact that some characteristic feeling or emotion is experienced and, as we would accordingly expect, some definite tendency to action is associated. Subjectively, then, the important factor is the feeling or emotion.

Many different factors can influence how and why attitudes form. These are –

1. Social Factors.
2. Direct Instruction.
3. Family.
4. Prejudices.
5. Personal Experience.
6. Media.
7. Educational and Religious Institutions.
8. Physical Factors.
9. Economic Status and Occupations.

1. *Social Factors :*

Every society has the majority of people who prefer to lead a harmonious life. They try to avoid unnecessary friction or conflicts with people. Naturally, they are inclined to develop positive attitudes towards most people and issues.

Our attitudes may facilitate and maintain our relationships with members of positively valued groups. Social roles and social norms can have a strong influence on attitudes. Social roles relate to how people are expected to behave in a particular role or context. Social norms involve society's rules for what behaviors are considered appropriate.

2. *Direct Instruction :*

In general, the individual being conformist or the direction of the attitude of the people it deems important. Sometimes direct instruction can influence attitude formation. For example, somebody gives information about the usefulness of some fruit. On the basis of this information, we can develop a positive or negative attitude about that fruit.

3. *Family :*

The family is the most powerful source for the formation of attitudes. The parents, elder brother, or sister provide information about various things.

Attitudes developed by an individual, whether positive or negative, are the result of family influence, which is very powerful and difficult to change.

4. *Prejudices :*

An attitude may involve a prejudice, in which we prejudge an issue without giving unbiased consideration to all the evidence.

Prejudices are preconceived ideas or judgments where one develops some attitudes toward other people, objects, etc.

If we are prejudiced against a person, who is, accused of a crime, we may regard him as guilty regardless of the evidence. We can also be prejudiced in favor of something.

5. Personal Experience :

In order to be the basis of attitudes, personal experiences have left a strong impression. Therefore, the attitude will be more easily formed when personal experience involves emotional factors. In situations involving emotions, appreciation will be a more in-depth experience and longer trace.

6. Media :

As a means of communication, mass media, such as television and radio, has a major influence in shaping people's opinions and beliefs.

There is new information on something that provides the foundation for the emergence of new cognitive attitudes toward it.

7. Educational and Religious Institutions :

As a system, educational and religious institutions strongly influence attitudes because they lay the foundation of understanding and moral concepts within the individual.

Understanding the good and the bad, the dividing line between something that can and cannot do is obtained from the center of the educational and religious institutions.

8. Physical Factors :

Clinical psychologists have generally recognized that physical health and vitality are important factors in determining adjustment, and it has frequently been found that malnutrition, disease, or accidents have interfered so seriously with normal development that serious behavioral disturbances have followed.

9. Economic Status and Occupations :

Our economic and occupational positions also contribute to attitude formation.

They determine, in part, our attitudes towards unions and management and our belief that certain laws are 'good' or 'bad. Our socio-economic background influences our present and future attitudes.

Attitudes reflect more than just positive or negative evaluations: they include other characteristics, such as importance, certainty, accessibility, and associated knowledge.

Attitudes are important in the study of social psychology because they influence the amount of attention and the type of judgment an individual may give to a specific subject.

Generally, we tend to assume that people behave in accordance with their attitudes.

However, social psychologists have found that attitudes and actual behavior are not always perfectly aligned.

9.4 TYPES OF ATTITUDES :

Attitude is something that lies between emotions and thought processing. It may be positive or negative. A person can have thousands of attitudes, but organizational behavior focuses our attention on a very limited number of work-related attitudes. Most of the research in organizational behavior has been concerned with three attitudes.

3 types of attitudes are :

1. Job Satisfaction
2. Job Involvement
3. Organizational Commitment

1. Job Satisfaction :

Job satisfaction is the level of contentment a person feels regarding his or her job. This feeling is mainly based on an individual's perception of satisfaction.

A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes about the job, while a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds a negative attitude about the job.

A person having a negative attitude shows a personality disposition that is inclined to experience nervousness, tension, upset, distress, etc. whereas those with a positive attitude will feel happy themselves, others and their work.

Generally, it is deemed a high level of job satisfaction means positive attitudes towards the job and vice versa.

When people speak of employee attitudes, more often than not they mean job satisfaction. In fact, the two are frequently used interchangeably.

2. Job Involvement :

Job involvement refers to the degree with which an individual identifies psychologically with his or her job and perceives his or her perceived performance level important to self-worth.

High levels of job involvement are related to fewer absences and lower resignation rates.

However, it seems to more consistently predict turnover than absenteeism, according to as much as 16 percent of the variance in the former.

3. Organizational Commitment :

The last job-attitude refers to organizational commitment. It is understood as one's identification with his or her organization and feels proud of being its employee.

It is defined as a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and, its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization.

Different studies demonstrate that an individual's level of organizational commitment is a better indicator of turnover than the far more frequently used job satisfaction predictor, explaining as much as 34 percent of the variance.

Basically, turnover and absenteeism are low when employees have an organizational commitment.

9.5 FUNCTIONS OF ATTITUDES :

Based on an extensive review of surveys of employers, an analysis concluded that "the most important consideration in hiring and the biggest deficit among new workforce entrants are the attitudes concerning work that they bring with them to their jobs. Any particular attitude may satisfy one or more functions.

The most important function of an attitude can only be ascertained by considering the person who holds it and the environment in which they operate.

Consequently, what is the same attitude may serve rather different purposes depending on who holds it and where/when it becomes salient to them. Attitudes differ in strength.

Strong, central attitudes refer to important attitude objects that are strongly related to the self. These attitudes are often related to important values. Daniel Katz outlines 4 functions of attitudes.

1. Adjustment Function
2. Ego-Defensive Function
3. Value-Expressive Function
4. Knowledge Function
5. Performing a Social Role

1. Adjustment Function :

Attitudes often help people to adjust to their work environment. When employees are well-treated, they are likely to develop a positive attitude toward management and the organization.

When employees are criticized and given a minimal salary, they are likely to develop a negative attitude toward management and the organization.

These attitudes help employees adjust to their environment and are a basis for future behavior. The adjustment function directs people toward pleasurable or rewarding objects and away from unpleasant, undesirable ones. It serves the utilitarian concept of maximizing reward and minimizing punishment.

Thus, the attitudes of consumers depend to a large degree on their perceptions of what is needed to be satisfying and what is punishing.

2. Ego-Defensive Function :

The ego-defensive function refers to holding attitudes that protect our self-esteem or that justify actions that make us feel guilty.

This function involves psychoanalytic principles where people use defense mechanisms to protect themselves from psychological harm. Mechanisms include denial, repression, projection, rationalization, etc.

For example, an older manager whose decisions are continually challenged by a younger subordinate manager may feel that the latter is brash, cocky, immature, and inexperienced.

In truth, the younger subordinate may be right in challenging the decisions. The older manager may not be a very effective leader and may constantly make poor decisions.

On the other hand, the older manager is not going to admit this but will try to protect the ego by blaming the other party.

3. Value-Expressive Function :

Whereas ego-defensive attitudes are formed to protect a person's self-image, value-expressive attitudes enable the expression of the person's centrally held values.

Central values tend to establish our identity and gain us social approval, thereby showing us who we are and what we stand for.

Some attitudes are important to a person because they express values that are integral to that person's self-concept.

Therefore consumers adopt certain attitudes to translate their values into something more tangible and easily expressed.

Our value-expressive attitudes are closely related to our self-concept.

One whose central value is freedom, the individual may express very positive attitudes toward the decentralization of authority in the organization, flexible work schedules, and relaxation of dress standards.

4. Knowledge Function :

The knowledge function refers to our need which is consistent and relatively stable. This allows us to predict what is likely to happen and so gives us a sense of control. Some attitudes are useful because they help to make the world more understandable.

They help people ascribe causes to events and direct attention towards features of people or situations that are likely to be useful in making sense of them.

Consequently, they help to make the world more understandable, predictable, and knowable. Knowing a person's attitude helps us predict their behavior.

For example, people unfamiliar with nuclear energy may develop an attitude that is dangerous and should not be used as an energy source.

Stereotyping is another example.

In the absence of knowledge about a person, we may use a stereotyped attitude for judging the person.

5. Performing a Social Role :

Attitudes help perform a social role, helping in an individual's self-expression and social interaction.

Subscribing to a given set of attitudes signals one's identification with important reference groups to express one's core values, and to establish one's identity. This social role of attitudes is known as social identity function, it underlies an individual's desire to establish his individual and social identity.

Smets and Holland investigated the relationship between the functions of attitudes and the importance of attitudes.

In a laboratory study, they assessed attitude centrality towards Amnesty International and the participants' self-esteem level.

Ultimately these functions serve people's need to protect and enhance the image they hold of themselves.

In more general terms, these functions are the motivational bases that shape and reinforce positive attitudes toward goal objects perceived as need-satisfying and/or negative attitudes toward other objects perceived as punishing or threatening. The functions themselves can help us to understand why people hold attitudes.

9.6 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ATTITUDE AND BEHAVIOR :

Attitude	Behaviour
Attitude is defined as a person's mental tendency, which is responsible for the way he thinks or feels for someone or something.	Behavior implies the actions, moves, conduct or functions or an individual or group towards other persons.
A person's attitude is mainly based on the experiences gained by him during the course of his life and observations.	On the other hand, the behavior of a person relies on the situation.
Attitude is a person's inner thoughts and feelings.	As opposed to, behavior expresses a person's attitude.
The way of thinking or feeling is reflected by a person's attitude.	On the contrary, a person's conduct is reflected by his behavior.

Attitude is defined by the way we perceive things whereas behavior is ruled by social norms.

Attitude is a human trait but behavior is an inborn attribute.

9.7 CHARACTERISTICS OF ATTITUDE :

Attitude can be described as a tendency to react positively or negatively to a person or circumstances.

Thus the two main elements of attitude are this tendency or predisposition and the direction of this predisposition.

It has been defined as a mental state of readiness, organized through experience, which exerts a directive or dynamic influence on the responses.

These can also be explicit and implicit.

Explicit attitudes are those that we are consciously aware of and that clearly influence our behaviors and beliefs. Implicit attitudes are unconscious but still affect our beliefs and behaviors. Psychologists Thomas, which imposes limits as a level attitude trend, is positive and negatively, associated with psychology.

1. Object psychology here includes symbols, words, slogans, people, institutions, ideas, etc.
2. Characteristics of Attitude are;
3. Attitudes are the complex combination of things we call personality, beliefs, values, behaviors, and motivations.
4. It can fall anywhere along a continuum from very favorable to very unfavorable.
5. All people, irrespective of their status or intelligence, hold attitudes.
6. An attitude exists in every person's mind. It helps to define our identity, guide our actions, and influence how we judge people.
7. Although the feeling and belief components of attitude are internal to a person, we can view a person's attitude from their resulting behavior.
8. Attitude helps us define how we see situations and define how we behave toward the situation or object.
9. It provides us with internal cognitions, beliefs, and thoughts about people and objects.
10. It can also be explicit and implicit. Explicit attitude is those that we are consciously aware of an implicit attitude is unconscious but still affect our behaviors.

11. Attitudes cause us to behave in a particular way toward an object or person.
12. An attitude is a summary of a person's experience; thus, an attitude is grounded in direct experience and predicts future behavior more accurately.
13. It includes certain aspects of the personality as interests, appreciation, and social conduct.
14. It indicates the total of a man's inclinations and feelings.
15. An attitude is a point of view, substantiated or otherwise, true or false, which one holds towards an idea, object, or person.
16. It has aspects such as direction, intensity, generality, or specificity.
17. It refers to one's readiness for doing Work.
18. It may be positive or negative and may be affected by age, position, and education.

Attitude may be defined as a feeling or disposition to favor or be against objects, persons, and situations.

It is a well-defined object of reference. It may be defined as 'an enduring predisposition or readiness to react or behave in a particular manner to a given object or situation, idea, material, or person.'

It describes and evaluates an object or a situation, with each belief having a cognitive effect and behavioral components.

Each of these beliefs is a predisposition that results in some preferential response towards the object or the situation.

Actually, it is frequently used in describing people and explaining their behavior.

For example : "I like her attitude," "He has a good attitude," etc. Actually, it is characterized by the tendency to feel and behave in a particular way toward some object.

9.8 BARRIERS TO CHANGE ATTITUDES :

Employees' attitudes can be changed, and sometimes it is in management's best interests to try to do so.

For example, if employees believe that their employer does not look after their welfare, the management should try to change employees' attitudes and develop a more positive attitude towards them.

However, the process of changing the attitude is not always easy.

Actually, the barriers are the limits that prevent the organization from achieving its predetermined goals.

So every organization should be aware of these and should take corrective actions.

Barriers to Change Attitudes are :

1. Prior Commitment.
2. Insufficient Information.
3. Balance and Consistency.
4. Lack of Resources.
5. Improper Reward System.
6. Resistance to Change.

1. Prior Commitment :

When people feel a commitment towards a particular course of action that has already been agreed upon, it becomes difficult for them to change or accept the new ways of functioning.

2. Insufficient Information :

It also acts as a major barrier to changing attitudes. Sometimes people do not see why they should change their attitude due to the unavailability of adequate information. Sometimes people do not see why they should change their attitude due to the unavailability of adequate information.

3. Balance and Consistency :

Another obstacle to a change of attitude is the attitude theory of balance and consistency. Human beings prefer their attitudes about people and things to be in line with their behaviors towards each other and objects.

4. Lack of Resources :

If plans become excessively ambitious, they can sometimes be obstructed by the lack of resources in a company or organization.

So, in this case, if the organization wants to change the employees' attitude towards the new plan, sometimes it becomes impossible for the lack of resources to achieve this.

5. Improper Reward System :

Sometimes, an improper reward system acts as a barrier to changing attitudes. Suppose an organization emphasizes short-term performance and results too much. In that case, managers may ignore longer-term issues as they set goals and formulate plans to achieve higher profits in the short term.

If this reward system is introduced in the organization, employees are not motivated to change their attitude.

6. Resistance to Change :

Another barrier is resistance to change.

Basically, change is a continuous process within and outside the organization to achieve the set goal.

When the authority changes a plan of the organization, the employees have to change themselves.

But some of them do not like this. If their attitude regarding the change of plan cannot be changed, the organization will not be successful.

9.9 WAYS OF CHANGING ATTITUDES :

Attitude can be changed if we differentiate a negative attitude from a positive attitude. A positive attitude can bring positive change in life; it is difficult to change attitude,s, but with some effort, it can be done.

The individual from a culturally deprived environment who holds an array of hostile attitudes may change often; he is given education opportunities.

A person from a privileged subculture, who has always held to a democratic attitude, may become negative towards some group because of one unfortunate experience. Well-established attitudes tend to be resistant to change, but others may be more amenable to change.

Attitudes can be changed b a variety of ways.

- New information will help to change attitudes.
- Negative attitudes are mainly formed owing to insufficient information.
- Attitudes may change through direct experience.
- Another way in which attitudes can be changed is by resolving discrepancies between attitudes and behavior.
- Change of attitude can come through the persuasion of friends or peers.
- Attitudes may change through legislation.
- Since a person's attitudes are anchored in his membership group and reference groups, one way to change the attitude is to modify one or the other.
- Fear can change their attitude. If low levels of fear are used, people often ignore them.
- Changing the attitude differs regarding the situation also.

9.10 WORKPLACE AND ATTITUDES :

Taking this a step further, we can assemble some ideas of how these three components can impact the workplace.

The workplace's challenge is that these components are now tied to work functions, policy, procedures, organizational structure, and the people and individuals in the organization. For example, we could have thoughts or beliefs (cognitive) about managers in general, and those thoughts or beliefs could manifest themselves as not trusting a manager (effective). Thus we would never want to develop a close relationship with a manager (behavioral).

It is important to make the point that these are attitudes – yes, they can be wrong. Just because we have an attitude that does not mean it is correct. It is just how we feel about a person or situation.

Obviously, not every manager is trustworthy, but if we let our negative attitudes dictate how we view and react to managers, we will never see if some are excellent people and can be trusted.

Certainly, having a good relationship based on trust with the manager is a great thing to have in the workplace.

9.11 ATTITUDE SURVEYS :

The concept of an “attitude” comes from Social psychology.

The term “attitude” is defined as “a psychological tendency expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor.”

It provides an understanding of how the employee perceives the organization and workgroups.

The preceding review indicates that knowledge of employee attitudes can help managers attempt to predict employee behavior.

The most popular method is the use of attitude surveys.

Often an essential component of organizational training and development, Employee Attitude surveys provide a picture of its needs.

These surveys often contain a series of multiple-choice items grouped along one or more dimensions of the organization.

Surveys of this type provide an understanding of how the employee perceives the organization.

Employee attitude surveys measure the employee's opinions on most of the aspects of a workplace, including :

- Overall satisfaction.
- Management/employee relations.
- Corporate culture.
- Career development.
- Compensation.
- Benefits.
- Recognition and rewards.
- Working conditions.
- Training.
- Staffing levels.
- Safety concerns.
- Policies and procedures.

Organizations are increasingly interested in retaining the right talents while targeting new talents; measuring employees' attitudes indicates how successful the organization is in fostering a conducive environment that nurtures a great attitude among employees toward their job and the company. The usual measures of employee attitude involve an employee attitude survey with a set of statements or scales. The employee is asked to evaluate each statement in terms of their perception of the organization's performance.

1. Uses of Employee Attitude Survey:

Employee opinion surveys are about improvement and providing the authority with the information they need to be successful.

Regular attitude surveys can alert management to potential problems and employees' intentions early so that action can be taken to prevent repercussions.

Uses for Employee Attitude Surveys include :

- Focusing on employee development programs.
- Enhancing management/employee relations.
- Training needs assessment.
- Evaluation of training.
- Organizational climate survey.
- Facilitating the development and organizational change.
- Getting employee feedback on the internal health of the organization.
- Measuring the impact of current programs, policies, and procedures.

- Motivating employees and improving job satisfaction.
- Customer satisfaction survey.
- Increase employee retention.

9.12 ATTITUDES AND BELIEFS :

An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioral tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events, or symbols.

It is a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner for a given object.

It is an expression of evaluation toward a person, place, thing, or event. It will always have a positive and negative elements and tend to behave in a certain way.

Attitudes are formed primarily based on underlying values and beliefs.

While attitude is the predisposition to act in a particular way towards an object or situation, opinion is the expression of an individual's judgment about a particular set of facts.

It is an evaluation of the circumstances presented to an individual.

Beliefs are acquired through real experiences, but the original experience related to a particular belief is mostly forgotten.

It affects the quality of our work and relationships because we experience what we believe, and it is not based on reality. They are an important part of our identity.

They may be religious, cultural, or moral.

Beliefs reflect who we are and how we live our lives. It is composed of multiple factors tending to family, society, and the structure of life. It is the trust that something is true and good without any doubt.

It is an internal feeling that something is true, even though that belief may be unproven or irrational.

I believe that walking under a ladder brings bad luck.

9.13 SUMMARY :

Finally, we can say that attitudes are evaluative statements favorable or unfavorable related to the person, object, or events.

Although there are some differences regarding attitudes, based on the above opinions, it can be concluded that attitude is a state in which man moves to act or do anything in response to a situation or condition of the objects in the surrounding environment.

It is a statement toward something or someone exhibited in one's beliefs, feelings, or intended behavior. It is a social orientation, an underlying inclination to respond to something either favorably or unfavorably.

9.14 KEYWORDS :

1. **Attitude** : An attitude is a positive, negative, or mixed evaluation of an object expressed at some level of intensity.
2. **Positive Attitude** : A person who has positive attitudes towards work and co-workers (such as contentment, friendliness, etc.) can positively influence those around them.
3. **Negative Attitude** : A person who displays negative attitudes (such as discontentment, boredom, etc.), will behave accordingly.
4. **Selfish Attitude** : It will guide an individual's actions in a selfish manner.

9.15 SELF – ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Define attitude ? Discuss the characteristics of attitude?
2. Explain the functions and factors of attitude?
3. Enlighten the attitude surveys?
4. Converse the barriers to Change Attitudes?

9.16 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Organizational Behaviour by Stephen P. Robbins Timothy A. Judge , Neharika Vohra, 1 November 2018, Published by Pearson Education, ISBN-13 978-9353067038.
2. Essentials of organisational behaviour, by T N Chhabra, Sun India Publications, 1 January 2019.
3. Organizational Behaviour Managing People in Dynamic Organizations, By Paul E. Smith, Wendy Yellowley, Christopher J. McLachlan, ISBN:9781000047226, 1000047229, Year Oct 2020.
4. Organisation Behaviour, by Kumar Pranit, Publisher GenNextPublication, ISBN-13-9789380222103, Year 2021.
5. Organizational Behavior by Steven L. McShane, Mary Ann Von Glinow and Himanshu Rai, 9th Edition, Publisher McGraw Hill, Year 26 July 2022.

LESSON – 10

P E R C E P T I O N

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To Learn the Components of Perception
- ✓ To Understand the Nature of Perception
- ✓ To Discuss the Factors Influencing the Perception
- ✓ To Study the Managerial Implications of Perception
- ✓ To analyses the Errors of Perception

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Definitions by Different Authors
- 10.3 Components of Perception
 - 10.3.1 Perception is a process of sensory organs
 - 10.3.2 Stimuli (Excitement)
 - 10.3.3 Attention
 - 10.3.4 Recognition
 - 10.3.5 Translation
 - 10.3.6 Behaviour
 - 10.3.7 Performance
 - 10.3.8 Satisfaction
- 10.4 Nature of Perception in Organizational Behavior
- 10.5 Factors influencing Perception
 - 10.5.1 Characteristics of the Perceiver
 - 10.5.2 Characteristics of the Perceived or Target
 - 10.5.3 Characteristic of the Situation
- 10.6 Perceptual Selectivity
 - 10.6.1 External factors in perceptual selectivity
- 10.7 Managerial Implications of Perception
 - 10.7.1 Interpersonal Working Relationship
 - 10.7.2 Staff Selection

- 10.7.3 Performance Appraisal
- 10.7.4 Level of Efforts
- 10.7.5 Increase in Loyalty Levels
- 10.8 Errors of Perception
- 10.9 Summary
- 10.10 Key words
- 10.11 Self Assessment Questions
- 10.11 Suggested Readings

10.1 INTRODUCTION :

Perception in Organizational Behavior is defined as the process by which an individual selects, organizes and interprets stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world. Perception is an intellectual process of transforming sensory stimuli to meaningful information. It involves both recognizing environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli. It is a cognitive process by which people attend to incoming stimuli, organize and interpret such stimuli into behavior.

Perception in Organizational Behavior

Stimulus is any unit of input to any of the senses; examples of stimuli (i.e. Sensory inputs) include products, packages, brand names; advertisement and commercials. Sensory receptors are the human organs (the eyes, ears, nose, mouth and skin) that receive sensory inputs. These sensory functions are to see, hear, smell, taste and feel respective.

The study of perception is largely the study of what we subconsciously add to or subtract from raw sensory inputs to produce a private picture of the world.

Sensation is the immediate and direct response of the sensory organs to simple stimuli and advertisement, a package, a brand name. Human sensitivity refers to the experiences of sensation.

Different individuals have different thinking styles, beliefs, feelings and motives etc. and almost every person behaves accordingly. It is only because of these factors that different people take different meanings for the same thing. One particular thing is right for some and completely wrong for some. It's all because of how you take things, what your point of view is, how you look at things. This is the perception.

10.2 DEFINITIONS BY DIFFERENT AUTHORS :

Stephen P. Robbins : “Perception may be defined as a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment.”

Joseph Reitz : “Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment — seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling.”

Fred Luthans : “Perception is an important meditative cognitive process through which persons make interpretations of the stimuli or situation they are faced with”

Perception is simply defined as how a person perceives the world around them and interprets that information. It is a subconscious thing that the mind does and is dependent on your ability to pay attention to your surroundings and your existing knowledge.

In organizational behaviour and business, perception often helps shape an individual’s personality and how they act in certain situations. These can affect how they react to certain things such as their performance in stressful situations—tasks, and even their creativity.

In order to deal with the subordinates effectively, the managers must understand their perceptions properly. Perception can be important because it offers more than objective output; it ingests an observation and manufactures an altered reality enriched with previous experiences.

For management, paying attention to personality traits in employees can help them determine an individual’s work ethic and strengths. i.e., if the manager’s perception is not disrupted in some way. Simply because people’s behaviour is based not on reality, but on their perception of what reality is. The world as it is perceived is the world that is practically important.

For example, in evaluating performance, managers use their assumptions about an employee’s behaviour as the basis for evaluation. One work position that highlights the importance of perception is the selection interview. Perception is also culturally determined. Depending on our cultural background, we see things in certain ways.

10.3 COMPONENTS OF PERCEPTION :

10.3.1 Perception is a process of sensory organs :

The mind receives information through the five sense organs, eyes, ears, nose, tongue and skin. The incoming stimuli to these organs can be through action, written message, verbal communication, smell, taste, touch of the product and people.

Perception begins with awareness of these stimuli

Recognizing these stimuli occurs only after paying attention to them. These messages are then translated into action and behaviour.

10.3.2 Stimuli (Excitement) :

The receipt of information is the stimulus, which results in sensation. Knowledge and behaviour depend on the senses and their stimuli. The physical senses used by people are sight,

hearing, touch, smell and taste. Intuition and hunch are known as the sixth sense. These senses are affected by a large number of stimuli, which can be actions, information, thoughts and feelings etc.

10.3.3 Attention :

People engage in stimuli selectively. Some stimuli are reacted to while others are ignored without attention. The stimuli to which attention is given purely depend on the selectivity of the people and the intensity of the stimuli. Educated employees pay more attention to any stimulus, e.g., bonus announcements, appeals to increase productivity, training and motivation. Management has to find out suitable stimuli, which can appeal to the employees at the maximum level.

10.3.4 Recognition :

After noticing the stimuli, employees try to identify whether the stimuli are worth feeling. Messages or incoming stimuli are recognized before they are transmitted in practice. Perception is a two-stage activity, i.e., receiving stimuli and converting stimuli into action. However, prior to the translation phase, the stimulus must be recognized by the individual.

10.3.5 Translation :

The stimuli are evaluated before they are converted into actions or behaviours. The evaluation process is translation. In the above example, the car driver uses the clutch and brake to stop the car after recognizing the stimuli. They have translated the stimulus into appropriate action immediately. The perception process is purely mental before it is converted into action. Conversion is translation. Management in an organization has to consider various processes of converting message into action. Employees should be assisted to convert stimuli into action.

10.3.6 Behaviour :

Behaviour is the result of a cognitive process. It is a response to changes in sensory inputs, i.e., stimuli. This is an obvious and covert response. Perceptual behaviour is not influenced by reality, but is the result of the individual's perception process, his or her learning and personality, environmental factors, and other internal and external factors at the workplace.

10.3.7 Performance :

Appropriate behaviour leads to high performance. High performers become a source of excitement and inspiration to other employees. A performance-reward relationship is established to motivate people.

10.3.8 Satisfaction :

Higher performance gives more satisfaction. The level of satisfaction is calculated from the difference between performance and expectation. If the performance exceeds the expectation,

people are pleased, but when the performance is equal to the expectation, it results in satisfaction. On the other hand, if performance is less than expected, people become frustrated and this requires a more attractive form of incentive to develop appropriate employee work behaviour and higher performance.

10.4 NATURE OF PERCEPTION IN ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

The nature of Perception in Organisational Behavior are as follows :

Perception is the process by which a person gives meaning to the environment;

People's actions, feelings, thoughts and emotions are driven by their perceptions about their surroundings;

Perception has been defined in various ways; It basically refers to the way in which a person experiences the world; and

Perception is an almost automatic process and works the same way within each individual, yet it usually produces different perceptions.

10.5 FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION :

The factors influencing perception in organisational behaviour are as follows :

Factors that shape (and can distort perception)

1. Characteristics of the Perceiver;
2. Characteristics of the Perceived or Target; and
3. Characteristic of the Situation.

When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she sees, that interpretation is heavily influenced by personal characteristics of the individual perceiver.

The more relevant personal characteristics affecting perception of the perceiver are attitudes, motives, interests, past experiences, and expectations.

Characteristics of the target can also affect what is being perceived. This would include attractiveness, gregariousness, and our tendency to group similar things together. For example, members of a group with clearly distinguishable features or color are often perceived as alike in other, unrelated characteristics as well.

The context in which we see objects or events also influences our attention. This could include time, heat, light, or other situational factors.

10.5.1 Characteristics of the Perceiver :

Many characteristics of the perceiver can affect perception. When a person looks at a goal

and attempts to interpret what it stands for, that interpretation is heavily influenced by the individual characteristics of the individual thinker. The major characteristics of the perceiver influencing perception are :

Needs & Motives

The perception of individuals is basically determined by their internal needs and motives. They approach things differently according to their different needs and objectives. Different needs result in different stimuli, in the same way that people choose different objects to satisfy their needs. According to Freud, “Wishful thinking is the means by which the ID, a part of the personality, attempts to reduce stress.” In such cases, people will only understand things that fit their wishful thinking.

Self-Concept

How a person actually views others or the rest of the world will clearly determine how he thinks of himself, or his self-concept. It is largely based on the complex psychological makeup of individuals. Self-understanding helps to understand others. An individual with a positive self-concept tends to notice positive attributes in another person. In contrast, a negative self-concept can lead a perceiver to pick out negative traits in another person.

Belief

A person’s belief has a direct impact on his perception. It is very difficult for a person to think beyond their personal beliefs because most people go by their beliefs and they feel that way. According to Daniel Katz :

A person self-censors his intake of communication so that his beliefs and practices are protected from attack.

A person seeks communication that supports his beliefs and practices.

The latter is especially true when the beliefs and practices in question have come under attack.

Past Experience

People’s perception is greatly influenced by their past experiences. A person having good experience in the past will perceive accordingly and vice versa. The experience of employees results in different levels of perception. A young employee takes time to understand the object and situation. Experienced employees generally understand objects quickly and correctly. However, in contradictory situations, it is difficult to correct aged persons, whereas the young are easily moulded towards achieving the objectives of the organization.

Current Psychological Status

The current psychological or emotional state of people plays an important role in

perception. The current state of the person defines how the person will perceive something. As such, a person in a good mood will perceive it in a different way than a person who is not in a good mood.

Expectations

Again, expectations are a major player in deciding how a person will feel. Expectations are related to the state of anticipation of a particular behaviour from an individual. E.g., If a person thinks that Mr. X will never do him any good, then even if Mr. X is right, that person will always be under the impression that Mr. X is wrong. The employees may expect more pay and so they perceive the management from that angle. The real stimuli are not properly perceived if expectations exist there on. The management has to evolve expectations for proper perception.

Attitude

The attitude and aptitude of employees influence perception formation. If they have positive attitudes towards the management, they directly perceive the stimuli given by management. In the case of negative attitudes, the employees suspect the management's approach. Employees of high aptitude have a desire and attitude for growth. They behave positively toward the management of an organization.

10.5.2 Characteristics of the Perceived or Target :

Characteristics in the target that is being observed can affect what is perceived. Physical appearance plays a big role in our perception of others. Extremely attractive or unattractive individuals are more likely to be noticed in a group than ordinary looking individuals.

Physical Appearance or Size

The larger the size of the perceived stimulus, the more likely it is to be perceived and vice versa. Physical appearance plays a big role in our perception of others. The perceiver will notice the target's physical features like height, weight, estimated age, race and gender. Perceivers tend to notice physical appearance characteristics that contrast with the norm, that are intense, or that are new or unusual. People understand things better when it is explained clearly and they understand accordingly.

Intensity

The more intense the external stimulus, the more likely it is to be perceived. A loud sound, bright colours, etc. are more likely to attract attention than a softer sound or a relatively dull colour.

Frequency

The higher the frequency of repetition of things, the higher the perceptual selectivity. This is also in accordance with the repetition principle of learning.

Status

Perception is also affected by the position of the thinker. High status people can have a greater influence on employee perception than low status people.

Contrast: – The stimulus which is opposite to the surrounding environment attracts more attention than the stimuli found in it.

10.5.3 Characteristic of the Situation :

Change in situation leads to incorrect perception about a person. Time, place and situation play an important role in the perception of communication. Such situational factors can be further classified as :

Physical Setting

It includes place, location, lighting, heat, ventilation, infrastructure etc. If all these things are reasonable then people can perceive positively and vice versa.

Social Setting

This includes human resources, i.e., people around you or affected parties or people concerned about you or people you are concerned about or people you work with. The strength of the situational cues also affects social perception. Some situations provide strong cues as to appropriate behaviour. In these situations, we assume that the individual's behaviour can be accounted for by the situation and that it may not reflect the individual's disposition.

Organizational Setting

It includes hierarchy, organizational setup, structure, etc. in the organization. All these affect perceptions.

10.6 PERCEPTUAL SELECTIVITY :

Perception is a selective process because people can perceive only a limited amount of information in the environment. Perception is the process by which individuals screen, select, organize, and interpret stimuli in order to give them meaning. Perceptual selectivity is the process by which individuals select certain stimuli for attention instead of others.

In everybody's environment there are various stimuli. These stimuli are in the form of objects, events and people. An individual cannot get attracted towards all these stimuli. So they are characteristically selective. By selection some aspects of the stimuli are examined and others are accepted.

Such selectivity in perception can be brought about by various factors which can be broadly classified as external and internal factors :

10.6.1 External factors in perceptual selectivity :

External factors are in the form of perceptual inputs or characteristics of stimuli. The influence of external factors on perceptual selectivity :

Size : Can influence perceptual selectivity by influencing the attractiveness of the perceiver. Usually, the larger the size of the perceived stimulus, the higher the probability that it attracts the attention of the perceiver and he can select it for perception. E.g., Large letters in books grab the attention of the readers and they tend to read the entire text before reading it.

Intensity : The more intense the external stimulus, the more likely it is to be perceived. Loud sound or strong smell, bright light. E.g., Advertisements on TV are a bit louder than the hoarding.

Repetition: Repeatedly the external stimulus is attracting more than one attention.

Novelty and Familiarity : Either a novel or a familiar situation can serve as an attention-getter. E.g., Job rotation makes people more attentive to their new job or better accepted communication in a familiar jargon.

Difference : Stimuli that stand out against the background or that people don't expect attract more attention. E.g., block letters, differently dressed person, different colour.

Motion : Moving objects attract more attention than stationary objects. E.g., TV commercials get more attention than print ads. All these factors should be used judiciously.

These are related to the complex psychological structure of individuals.

Self-Concept : The way a person sees the world depends to a great extent on the concept or image that it is about. People's own characteristics affect the characteristics they can see in others. They select only those aspects that match their characteristics to them.

Belief : A fact is not considered what it is, but what a person believes it to be. The individual typically censors the stimulus input to avoid disturbances in their existing beliefs.

Expectations : We expect the trade union officials to use abusive language. A mental set about beliefs, expectations and values filters perception.

Internal Requirement : People with different needs choose different objects to remember or respond to and experience different stimuli. When people are not able to meet their needs, they engage in wishful thinking to satisfy needs not in the real world but in the imaginary world. In such cases people understand only those things which are in line with their wishful thinking.

Response Disposition : Refers to a person's tendency to perceive familiar stimuli rather than unfamiliar ones. E.g., In one experiment people with dominant religious values took less time to

recognize such related words as priest or minister. Whereas it took them longer to recognize words related to economic values such as cost or price.

Response Salience : It is the set of attitudes that are not determined by familiarity with the stimulus situations, but by the cognitive tendencies of individuals themselves. E.g., A particular problem in an organization may be viewed by the marketing person as a marketing problem, but as a control problem for the accounting person and as a human resource problem for the personnel person.

Perceptual Defence : Refers to the screening of elements that create conflict and threatening situations among people. They may also perceive other factors to be present that are not part of the stimulus state.

10.7 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS OF PERCEPTION :

A manager is mainly concerned with the achievement of organizational objectives. Perception influences the behaviour of the employee. Therefore, necessarily the facts cannot always be accepted. Thus, understanding human perception is important for understanding and controlling behaviour. There are five major areas that require special attention with regard to perceptual accuracy, as follows :

10.7.1 Interpersonal Working Relationship

Managers in the organization need to know whether the members share the same or at least consistent perception. Interpersonal relationships can be strengthened if people are not misunderstanding each other, if they are not working with busy mind and having a positive attitude.

10.7.2 Staff Selection :

Selection is based on test, interview and background review of applicants. The perception of managers should not be biased. The selection of staff also depends on how the candidate is taking the questions. His answers will be accordingly. If the candidate is taking the questions in the same way as they are asked then he/she will be in a better position to answer it in an affirmative manner. The perceptual difference completely changes the meaning of the response which sometimes results in bigger problems.

10.7.3 Performance Appraisal :

Valuation is highly affected by the accuracy of managers' perceptions. In most of the cases promotion, transfer, increment, continuation of employees etc. depends upon the perceptual process of the boss. Performance appraisal is related to the performance of the employees and should be based on objective criteria. But despite this fact, it is dependent on subjective criteria E.g., Senior's personal likes and dislikes.

10.7.4 Level of Efforts :

The manager evaluates the qualitative aspect of the performance of the employees by looking at the level of effort of an individual. If he regards them as having made enough effort and being honest then he will give them a high status even if they do not achieve their goals and vice versa. The manager should be careful while judging in this aspect.

10.7.5 Increase in Loyalty Levels :

Loyalty levels can be increased with proper application of perception. If the employees feel that the management is not taking any undue advantage from them, the management is understanding them, then they will understand it as their own organization and the job swap will be reduced.

10.8 ERRORS OF PERCEPTION :

The main sources of errors in perception include the following :

Central Tendency : Appraising everyone at the middle of the rating scale.

Contrast Error : Basing an appraisal on comparison with other employees rather than on established performance criteria.

Different from me : Giving a poor appraisal because the person has qualities or characteristics not possessed by the appraiser.

Halo Effect : Appraising an employee undeservedly on one quality (performance, for example) because s/he is perceived highly by the appraiser on another quality (attractiveness).

Horn Effect : The opposite of the halo effect. Giving someone a poor appraisal on one quality (attractiveness) influences poor rating on other qualities. (Performance)

Initial Impression : Basing an appraisal on first impressions rather than on how the person has behaved throughout the period to which appraisal relates.

Latest Behavior : Basing an appraisal on the person's recent behavior.

Lenient or Generous Rating : Perhaps the most common error, being consistently generous in appraisal mostly to avoid conflict.

Performance Dimension Error : Giving someone a similar appraisal on two distinct but similar qualities, because they happen to follow each other on the appraisal form.

Spillover Effect : Basing this appraisal, good or bad, on the results of the previous appraisal rather than on how the person has behaved during the appraisal period.

Status Effect : Giving those in higher level positions consistently better appraisals than those in lower level jobs.

Strict Rating : Being consistently harsh in appraising performance

10.9 SUMMARY :

Perception may be defined as the process with which individuals detect and interpret environmental stimuli. What makes human perception so interesting is that we do not solely respond to the stimuli in our environment. We go beyond the information that is present in our environment, pay selective attention to some aspects of the environment, and ignore other elements that may be immediately apparent to other people. Our perception of the environment is not entirely rational. For example, have you ever noticed that while glancing at a newspaper or a news Web site, information that is interesting or important to you jumps out of the page and catches your eye? If you are a sports fan, while scrolling down the pages you may immediately see a news item describing the latest success of your team

10.10 KEY WORDS :

Perception : May be defined as a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment.”

Stimulus : Is any unit of input to any of the senses; examples of stimuli (i.e. Sensory inputs) include products, packages, brand names; advertisement and commercials

Attention : People engage in stimuli selectively. Some stimuli are reacted to while others are ignored without attention

Recognition : After noticing the stimuli, employees try to identify whether the stimuli are worth feeling

Translation : The stimuli are evaluated before they are converted into actions or behaviours. The evaluation process is translation

Behaviour : Behaviour is the result of a cognitive process. It is a response to changes in sensory inputs, i.e., stimuli

Performance : Appropriate behaviour leads to high performance. High performers become a source of excitement and inspiration to other employees

10.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Briefly Discuss the Components of Perception
2. Discuss the Nature of Perception
3. Analyse the factors influencing the Perception
4. Explain the Managerial Implication of Perception

10.12 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Robbins & Judge: Organizational Behavior, 12th Edition, 2007, PHI

2. Luthans: Organizational Behavior, Tenth Edition, 2005, McGraw-Hill
3. Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn: Organizational Behavior, 9th Edition, 2005, Wiley
4. Newstrom: Organizational Behavior-Human Behavior at Work, 12th Edition, 2007, Tata McGraw Hill
5. Rollinson: Organisational Behaviour and Analysis-An Integrated Approach, 3rd Edition, 2005, Pearson
6. McShane, Glinow & Sharma: Organizational Behavior, 3rd Edition, 2006, Tata McGraw Hill
7. Greenberg & Baron: Behavior in Organizations, 8th Edition, 2005, Pearson
8. Buchanan & Huczynski: Organizational Behaviour-An Introductory Text, 5th Edition, 2004, Prentice Hall
9. Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H. and Johnson, D.E: Management of Organizational Behavior-Leading Human Resources, 8th Edition, 2006, Pearson Education

Dr.K. Madhu Babu

LESSON - 11

LEARNING

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To study the learning
- ✓ To learn the types of learning
- ✓ To know the principles of learning
- ✓ To make out different theories of learning

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 11.1 Introduction and Nature
- 11.2 Meaning and Definition
- 11.3 Objectives of Learning
- 11.4 Principles of Learning
- 11.5 Types of Learning
- 11.6 Learning as a Managerial Role
- 11.7 Communities of learning
- 11.8 Measuring learning
- 11.9 Learning Theories
- 11.10 Summary
- 11.11 Keywords
- 11.12 Self - Assessment Questions
- 11.13 Suggested Reading

11.1 INTRODUCTION AND NATURE :

Learning is a powerful incentive for many employees to stick to certain organizations. Learning has a significant impact on individual behavior as it influences abilities, role perceptions and motivation. Along with its role in individual behavior, learning is essential for knowledge management. Knowledge management enhances an organization's capacity to acquire, share and utilize knowledge in ways that improve its survival and success.

Learning can be defined as the permanent change in behavior due to direct and indirect experience. It means change in behavior, attitude due to education and training, practice and experience. It is completed by acquisition of knowledge and skills, which are relatively permanent.

Nature of learning means the characteristic features of learning. Learning involves change; it may or may not guarantee improvement. It should be permanent in nature, that is learning is for lifelong.

The change in behavior is the result of experience, practice and training. Learning is reflected through behavior.

11.2 MEANING AND DEFINITION :

Learning is defined as "a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of prior experience." Learning is understood as the modification of behavior through practice, training, or experience. This is supplemented with five important components of learning:

- 1. Learning involves change :** A change may be for good or bad. Change may not be evident until a situation arises in which the new behavior can occur. Learning is not always reflected in performance
- 2. Not all changes reflect learning :** To constitute learning, change should be relatively permanent. Temporary changes may be only reflective and fail to represent any learning. This requirement, therefore, rules out behavioral changes caused by fatigue or drugs.
- 3. Learning is reflected in behavior :** A change in an individual's thought process or attitude, not accompanied by behavior, is no learning. It should be further clarified that learning needs to result in behavior potentiality and not necessarily in the behavior itself. The reason for this distinction lies in the fact that an individual may learn but owing to lack of motivation, may not exhibit any changed behavior.
- 4. The change in behavior should occur as a result of experience, practice or training :** this implies that behavior caused from maturity, disease, or physical damages does not constitute learning.

5. The practice or experience must be reinforced in order for learning to occur : If reinforcement does not accompany the practice or experience, the behavior will eventually disappear.

6. Though not implied in any standard definition of learning : Contrary to popular belief, learning is not confined to one's schooling. Learning occurs throughout one's life.

11.3 OBJECTIVES OF LEARNING :

The main objective of Organizational Behavior is to understand the human interactions in an organization find what is driving it and influence it for getting better results for attaining business goals.

The organizations in which people work have an effect on their thoughts, feelings, and actions. These thoughts, feelings, and actions, in turn, affect the organization itself. Organizational behavior studies the mechanisms governing these interactions, seeking to identify and foster behaviors conducive to the survival and effectiveness of the organization.

We have identified 8 objectives of organizational behavior :

1. Job Satisfaction : Understanding organizational behavior can shed light on the factors that can foster or hamper job satisfaction, such as physical settings, organizational rewards and punishments or work-group characteristics. Job satisfaction, in turn, can foster higher productivity and reduced turnover, while providing more leverage for the recruitment of top talent.

2. Finding the Right People : A ship with all sails and no anchors would flounder, one with all anchors and no sails would not get anywhere. Organizational behavior can be helpful for finding the right mix of talents and working styles required for achievement of the task at hand. This can assist in deciding who to include in a team or task force, as well as in deciding who to promote to a leadership position or even the ideal profile for new hires.

3. Organizational Culture : As organizations grow larger, it may become difficult to keep a sense of common purpose and unity of direction. Organizational behavior is useful for understanding and designing the communication channels and leadership structures that can reinforce organizational culture. As rapidly evolving business environments force organizations to adapt, entering, for example, into global markets or utilizing virtual workforce, organizational behavior can assist in maintaining a clear identity without losing flexibility and adaptability.

4. Leadership and Conflict Resolution : Playing by the book and not making waves may be fine for some organizations, but the command-and-control mentality of the manufacturing age may become counterproductive in the knowledge market. Organizational behavior can assist in fostering leadership, pro-activity and creative problem-solving. When creativity is allowed, the divergence of opinions is unavoidable; but- organizational behavior can provide the leadership and the arbitrage dynamics required for turning conflicts into constructive idea exchanges.

5. Understanding the Employees Better : Organizational behavior studies help us understand why employees behave the way they do, and also thereby predict how they are going to behave in the future.

6. Understand how to Develop Good Leaders : Organizational behavior patterns help in predicting who among the employees have the potential to become leaders. They also teach us how to mold these employees so that their leadership potential is utilized to its fullest.

7. Develop a Good Team : An organization is only as good as the weakest member of its team. It is essential that all members of the team work in coordination and are motivated to work together to achieve the best results. The teamwork theories of organizational behavior are an essential tool in the hands of any manager.

8. Higher Productivity : All this leads us to the most important goal of achieving the highest productivity in realizing the visions and goals of any organization. If implemented well, the organizational behavior principles help in motivating all the members to do their best. The levels of motivation can be the difference between a good and a bad result. Really organizational Behavior has so many objectives by which it serves the organizations, individuals, groups and in a word all the stake holders.

11.4 PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING :

Principles of learning are highly useful for trainer in order to impart maximum knowledge and skills to the trainees. However, blind adherence to these principles can cause more harm than good. Each principle should, therefore, be interpreted and applied carefully in full consideration of the particular task being learned and the most important of them are :

1. Motivation
2. Reinforcement
3. Whole versus part learning
4. Learning curves
5. Meaningfulness of material
6. Learning styles

1. Motivation :

The concept of motivation is basic because, without motivation learning does not take place or, at least, is not discernible. Motivation may be seen at different levels of complexity of a situation. A thirsty rat will learn the path through a maze to a dish of water; it is not likely to do so well, or even more purposefully at all, if it is satiated. On a broader level, a college student must have the need and drive to accomplish a task and reach a specific goal.

2. Reinforcement, punishment and extinction :

Reinforcement, punishment and extinction play a key role in learning process. Reinforcement issued to enhance desirable behavior; punishment and extinction are employed to minimize undesirable behavior.

Reinforcement is the attempt to develop or strengthen desirable behavior. There are two types of reinforcement: positive and negative.

A. Positive reinforcement :

Strengthens and enhances behavior by the presentation of positive enforcers. There are primary reinforcers and secondary reinforcers. Primary reinforcers satisfy basic biological needs and include food and water. However, primary reinforcers do not always reinforce. For instance, food may not be a reinforcer to someone who has just completed a five course meal. Most behaviors in organizations are influenced by secondary reinforcers. These include such benefits as money, status, grades, trophies and praise from others. These include such benefits as money, status, grades, trophies and praise from others. These become positive reinforcers because of their associations with the primary reinforcers and hence are often called conditioned reinforcers. It should be noted that an event that functions as a positive reinforcer at one time or in one context may have a different effect at another time or in another place. For example, food may serve as a positive reinforcer for a person who is hungry, but not when the person, as stated above, has already a large meal. Clearly, a stimulus that functions as a positive reinforcer for one person may fail to operate in a similar manner for another person. Within itself, positive reinforcement has several principles.

- The principle of contingent reinforcement states that the reinforcer must be administered only if the desired behavior has occurred.
- A reinforcer administered when the desired behavior has not been performed becomes ineffective.
- The principle of immediate reinforcement states that the reinforcer will be most effective if administered immediately after the desired behavior has occurred. The more time that elapses after the behavior occurs, the less effective the reinforcer will be.
- The principle of reinforcement size states that the larger the amount of reinforcement delivered after the desired behavior, the more effect the reinforcer will have on the frequency of the desired behavior. The amount or size of reinforcer is relative.

- A reinforcer that may be insignificant to one person may be significant to another person. Thus, the size of the reinforcer must be determined in relation both to the behavior and the individual.
- The principles of reinforcement deprivation states that the more a person is deprived of the reinforcer, the greater effect it will have on the future occurrence of the desired behavior.

However, if an individual recently has had enough of a reinforcer and is satisfied the reinforcer will have less effect.

In negative reinforcement, an unpleasant event that precedes a behavior is removed when the desired behavior occurs. This procedure increases the likelihood that the desired behavior will occur. Just as there are positive reinforcers, there are the stimuli that strengthen responses that permit an organism to avoid or escape from their presence. Thus, when we perform an action that allows us to escape from a negative reinforcer that is already present or to avoid the threatened application of one, our tendency to perform this action in the future increases. Some negative reinforcers such as intense heat, extreme cold, or electric shock, exert their effects the first time they are encountered, whereas others acquire their impact through repeated association. We see negative reinforcement in organizations and in personal life. Supervisors apply negative reinforcement when they stop criticizing employees whose poor performance has improved. By withholding the criticism, employees are more likely to repeat behaviors that enhance their performance. Negative reinforcement also occurs when parents give in to their children's tantrums- especially in public places, such as restaurants and shopping malls. Over time, the parent's tendency to give in may increase, because doing so stops screaming. Thus, both positive and negative reinforcement are procedures that strengthen or increase behavior. Positive reinforcement strengthens and increase behavior by the presentation of desirable consequences. Negative reinforcement strengthens and increases behavior by the threat of and the use of an undesirable consequence or the termination or withdrawal of an undesirable consequence. Negative reinforcement is sometimes confused with punishment, because both use unpleasant stimuli to influence behavior. However, negative reinforcement is used to increase the frequency of a desired behavior, where as punishment is used to decrease the frequency of an undesired behavior.

B. Schedules of reinforcement :

Reinforcement, positive or negative, needs to be properly scheduled. Schedules of reinforcement determine when reinforcers are applied. Psychologists have identified several different schedules of reinforcement. When reinforcement is administered uninterruptedly, it is called continuous reinforcement. Instead, in organizations, reinforcers are administered following partial reinforcement schedules. Four varieties of partial reinforcement schedules have great relevance to organizations. They are :

i) Fixed interval schedule : It means providing reinforcement on a predetermined, constant schedule. The first desired behavior to occur after the interval has elapsed is reinforced. Eg: monthly pay cheque

ii) Variable interval schedule : It also uses time as the basis for applying reinforcement, but it varies the intervals between reinforcements.

iii) Fixed ratio schedule : Reinforcement is administered after the desired behaviors occur a specified number of times. Eg: Piece rating

iv) Variable ratio schedule : In this a certain number of desired behaviors must occur before the reinforcer is delivered, but the number of behaviors varies around some average. This type of reinforcement schedule provokes most interest and is preferred by employees for some tasks. It tends to be the most powerful of all the reinforcement schedules. Slot machines and a number of gambling devices operate on a variable ratio schedule. Most of the time when people put a coin into the slot they lose. But, after some unknown number of plays, the machine will pay off.

Punishment is the attempt to eliminate or weaken undesirable behavior. It is used in two ways. One way to punish a person is to apply a negative consequence called punishers – following an undesirable behavior. For example, a professional athlete who is excessively offensive to an official (undesirable behavior) may be ejected from a game (punished). The other way to punish a person is to withhold a positive consequence following an undesirable behavior. For example, a sales representative who makes a few visits to companies (undesirable behavior) is likely to receive less commission (positive reinforcer) at the end of the month. Reverting to the principles of punishment, it may be stated that punishment may end up in unintended results – mainly negative outcomes. Even though punishment may stop an undesirable behavior of an employee, the potential negative outcomes may be greater than the cost of undesirable behavior. Punishment tends to minimize undesirable behavior. But if repeated, punishment may result in undesirable emotions, hostility towards boss, low performance and even high turnover and absenteeism. An alternate to punishing undesirable behavior is extinction. Extinction is the weakening of a behavior by ignoring it or making sure it is not reinforced. The rationale for using extinction is that a behavior not followed by any reinforcer is weakened. In other words, if rewards are withdrawn for behavior that was previously reinforced, the behaviors probably will become less frequent and die out. But extinction needs time and patience to be effective.

3. Whole versus part learning :

A great deal of work has been done in psychology of learning to decide whether learning a whole job is superior to breaking the job into parts and learning the parts. In parts learning, the individual is not only required to learn each individual part but must be able to combine the separate parts so that the whole performance can be accomplished. No overall conclusion, however, has been reached in this field.

4. Learning curves :

A highly useful learning concept which is valid for a wide range of situation is the learning curve, a diagrammatic presentation of the amount learned in relation to time. A typical learning curve will show on the Y-axis the amount learnt and the X-axis the passage of time. Certain characteristics are common to all learning curves. One such feature is the initial spurt. At the beginning, it is natural that the rate of learning exhibits spurt. Usually, the graph levels off at some stage, indicating that maximum performance has been achieved. Apparently at the beginning of the learning process, the subject is highly motivated and seems to exhibit a significant surge of effort. Many experienced trainers exploit this initial spurt by selecting the most important items to be communicated and presenting them as a package to the students at the beginning of the training unit. In many ways, it is possible to exemplify the initial spurt with the aphorism “the first step is the best step”

Another feature of the curve is the learning plateau. At some point in the learning process there is a flattening off in terms of the improvement, a plateau. Frequently, the process of learning is marked by discontinuities and involves escalating from one plateau to another. Most learners are only too aware of the experience of finding themselves on a plateau, which manifests itself in the feeling that they are never going to get anywhere. Jumping from one plateau to another is called organization of learning. Organization of learning is achieved when the learner discovers a new and more effective method of performing particular tasks. For example, when he learns to apply calculus to solve problems of business. Disorganization of learning is an actual fall off in performance. This arises when the subject has to choose between alternative methods of tackling a task. The last characteristic of the learning curve is the end spurt. The end spurt is preceded by fatigue which is likely to set in with the passage of time. When the training season draws nearer to an end and the subject realizes this, there occurs resurgence of interest and effort to learn more. This revival is called the end spurt.

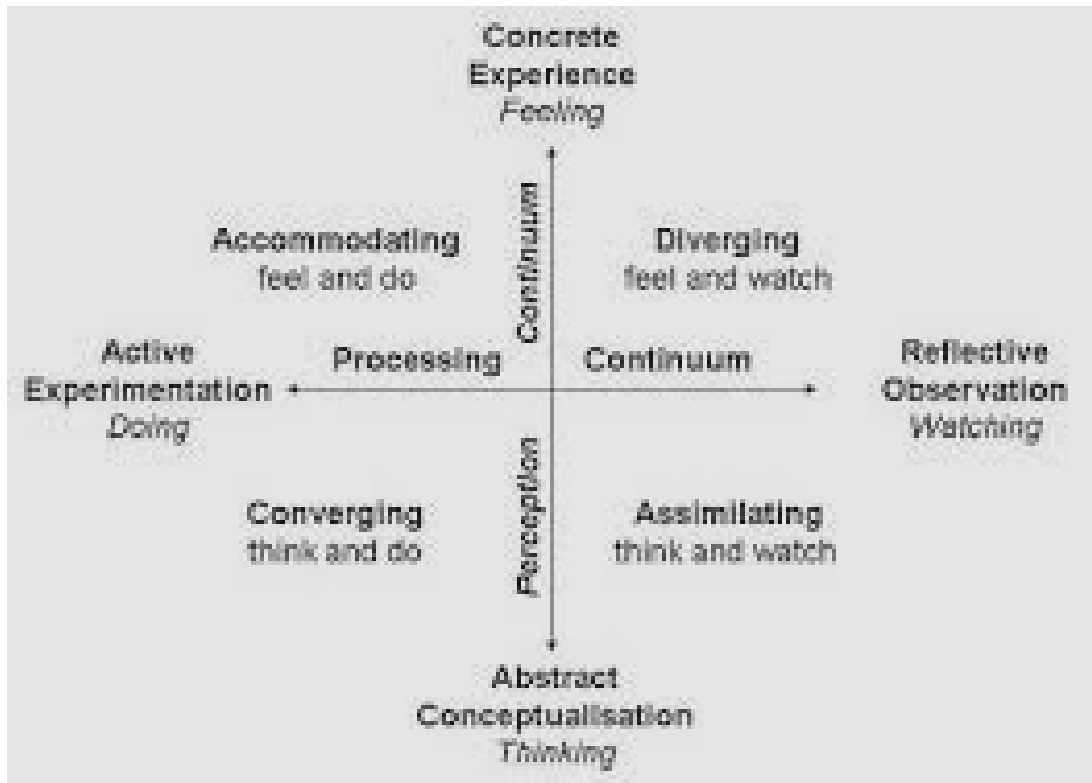
5. Meaningfulness of material :

A definite relationship has been established between learning and meaningfulness of the subject learnt. The more meaningful the materials, the better does learning proceed. Learning of nonsense syllables proceeds more slowly than that of prose or poetry. On a broader scale, aerogramme of learning, where, each task makes for meaningfulness, trainers do have certain techniques that increase meaning for the trainees. Organizing meaningfulness units, creating association with already familiar terms, and providing a conceptual basis of logical reason for the material are some of the practical possibilities.

6. Learning styles :

The final principle of learning is the learning styles. Learning style refers to the ability of an individual to learn. A manager’s long-term success depends more on the ability to learn than on the mastery of the specific skills or technical knowledge. There are four styles people use

when learning: accommodation, divergence, assimilation and convergence. The four styles are based on dimensions: feeling versus thinking and doing versus observing.



A. Accommodator : An accommodator learns by doing and feeling. He tends to learn primarily from hands-on experience. He tends to act on gut feeling rather than on logical analysis. An accommodator tends to rely more heavily on people for information while making decisions. He seeks action-oriented careers such as marketing, politics, public relations and management.

B. Diverger : A diverter learns by observing and feeling. The diverter has the ability to view concrete situations from different angles. When solving problems, diverter enjoys brainstorming. He takes time and analyses many alternatives. Diverger is imaginative and sensitive to the needs of the other people. He seeks careers in entertainment, arts and services sector.

C. Converter : A converter learns by doing and thinking. The converter seeks practical use for information. When presented with problems and making decisions, the converter tends to focus on solutions. Converter tends to prefer dealing with technical tasks and problems rather than social and interpersonal issues. Converter seeks technical careers in various scientific fields and work at engineering, production supervision, IT and managerial jobs.

D. Assimilator : an assimilator learns by observing and thinking. The assimilator is effective at understanding a wide range of information and putting in to concise and logical form. It is more important for the assimilator that an idea or theory is logical than practical. Assimilator tends to be more concerned with abstract idea and concept than with people. He tends to seek careers in education, information and science.

11.5 TYPES OF LEARNING :

- 1. Motor Learning :** Most of our activities in our daily life refer to motor activities. One has to learn them to maintain their regular life, for example walking, running, skating, driving, climbing etc. All of these activities involve muscular coordination.
- 2. Oral Learning :** This type of learning involves the language we speak, the communication tools we use. Signs, pictures, symbols, words, figures, sounds etc. are the tools used in such activities. We use words for communication.
- 3. Concept learning :** It is a form of learning that requires higher order mental processes like thinking, reasoning, intelligence etc. We learn different concepts from childhood. For example, when we look at a dog and attach the word 'dog', we learn that the word dog refers to a particular animal. Concept learning involves two processes, viz. Abstraction and Generalization. This learning is very useful in recognizing, identifying things.
- 4. Discrimination Learning :** Learning to differentiate between stimuli and showing appropriate responses to these stimuli is called discrimination learning. For example, sound horns of various vehicles like buses, cars, ambulances, etc.
- 5. Learning of Principles :** Individuals learn certain principles related to science, maths, grammar, etc. to manage their work effectively. These principles always reflect the relationship between two or more concepts. Example: formula, law, union, correlation, etc.
- 6. Problem Solving :** It is a higher order learning process. This learning requires the use of cognitive abilities – such as thinking, reasoning, observation, imagination, generalization, etc. It is very useful to overcome the difficult problems faced by the people.
- 7. Learning Attitude :** Attitude is a tendency that determines and guides our behaviour. We develop different perspectives about people, things and everything we know right from our childhood. Our behaviour can be positive or negative depending on our attitude. Example: Attitude of nurse towards her profession, patients etc.

11.6 LEARNING AS A MANAGERIAL ROLE :

In addition to the application of learning in Organizational Behavior, as explained earlier, there are several other dimensions of learning which have a bearing on individual behavior in organizations. A few important aspects are explained below.

- 1. Stimulus generalization in organizations :** Stimulus generalization refers to how people recognize the same or similar stimuli in different settings. In other words, it is the process by which they can generalize a contingent reinforcement from one setting to another.

Consider the plant manager of a manufacturing company who has a history of effective troubleshooting. Over the years he has been assigned to several plants, each with a serious operating problem. After successfully dealing with the difficulties, he has always received an

extended vacation, a bonus and an increase in his base salary. He has learned the basic contingencies or requirements of reinforcement for his job. The stimulus is the assignment, the response is correcting problems and the consequences are several positive reinforcers. When the manager gets his next assignment, he will probably generalize from his past experiences even though he will be in a different plant with different problems and employees he will know what is expected of him and understand what it takes to be rewarded.

2. Stimulus discrimination in organizations : Stimulus discrimination is the ability to recognize differences among stimuli. As in stimulus generalization, the person learns the basic stimulus-response-consequence sequence for one stimulus. When confronted with a new stimulus, however, he can discriminate between the two stimuli and respond differently assuming that the troubleshooting plant manager is assigned to the plant that is running smoothly. His routine response to new situations has always been to identify and solve problems, but he must now discriminate between his new situation and his earlier ones. He will also recognize that he will need a different set of behaviors, or responses, to meet performance expectations and receive positive reinforcement.

3. Learning and training : Learning is the major objective of training. If conducted keeping learning principles in mind, training becomes effective. Many organizations devote vast resources to training and development to expand the skills and abilities of their employees.

4. Learning through feedback : Feedback is any information that people receive about the consequences of their behavior. Feedback has a powerful effect on behavior and job performance by improving role perceptions, ability and motivation. With regard to role perceptions, feedback lets people know what behaviors are appropriate or necessary in a particular situation. Feedback improves employee ability by frequently providing information to correct performance problems. Employees develop better skills and acquire job-related information by watching instrument dials or non-verbal cues from customers. This is known as corrective feedback, because it makes people aware of their performance errors and helps them correct those errors quickly. Feedback is a source of motivation. Positive feedback fulfills personal needs and makes people feel more confident that they are able to accomplish certain tasks.

5. Employee indiscipline : Employee indiscipline exhibited in such acts as drunkenness on the job, late arrivals to work, insubordination, stealing company property and the like is common. Every manager is frequently confronted by such indiscipline. The manager will respond with disciplinary actions such as, verbal warnings, oral reprimands, or temporary suspensions. Research on discipline shows that the manager should act immediately to correct the problem, match the severity of punishment and the undesirable behavior. Punishment for indiscipline is hardly the answer to the problem. The person being punished can perceive the punishment as a result of being caught rather than as an incentive to replace undesirable behaviors with another set of behaviors. Disciplining employees for undesirable behavior only tells them what not to do. It does not tell them what alternative behavior is preferred. The result is that this form of punishment frequently leads to only short-term suppression of the undesirable behavior rather

than to its elimination. Continued use of punishment rather than positive reinforcement also tends to produce a conditional fear of the manager.

11.7 COMMUNITIES OF LEARNING :

Organizations gain knowledge in one of the four organizational communities of learning: individual, team, organizational, and inter-organizational. Organizational learning "involves the process through which organizational communities (e.g. groups, departments, divisions) change as a result of experience." An example of organizational learning is a hospital surgical team learning to use new technology that will increase efficiency.

1. Individual learning is the smallest community at which learning can occur. An individual learns new skills or ideas, and their productivity at work may increase as they gain expertise. The individual can decide whether or not to share their knowledge with the rest of the group. If the individual leaves the group and doesn't share their knowledge before leaving, the group loses this knowledge. In their study of software development, Boh, Slaughter and Espinosa (2007) found that individuals were more productive the more specialized experience they had with a certain system.

2. Group learning is the next largest community. There are conflicting definitions of group learning among researchers studying it. One belief is that group learning is a process in which a group takes action, gets feedback, and uses this feedback to modify their future action. Another belief is that group learning happens when a member shares their individual knowledge with other group members. Others have suggested that group learning is primarily a process of error detection and correction or that group learning is primarily about the processes of interpretation and integration. Once this happens, individual learning turns into group learning. Reagans, Argote, and Brooks (2005) studied group learning by examining joint-replacement surgery in teaching hospitals. They concluded that "increased experience working together in a team promoted better coordination and teamwork." Working together in a team also allowed members to share their knowledge with others and learn from other members. To sum up the different definitions cover following aspects: task independence (what one group member does affects and is affected by another group member); social psychological awareness (members perceive themselves as a group and are perceived as a group); and social embeddedness (the group exists in a larger social system).

3. Organizational learning is the way in which an organization creates and organizes knowledge relating to their functions and culture. Organizational learning happens in all of the organization's activities, and it happens in different speeds. The goal of organizational learning is to successfully adapt to changing environments, to adjust under uncertain conditions, and to increase efficiency. According to Argote (1993), managers in manufacturing plants saw organization learning occur when they found ways to make individual workers more proficient, improve the organization's "technology, tooling, and layout," improve the organization's structure, and determine the organization's strengths.

4. Interorganizational learning is the way in which different organizations in an alliance collaborate, share knowledge, and learn from one another. An organization is able to improve its "processes and products by integrating new insights and knowledge" from another organization. By learning from another organization, an organization is able to cut time costs, decrease the risks associated with problem solving, and learn faster. Learning from another organization can mean either applying the same ideas used by that organization or modifying these ideas, thereby creating innovation. Inter-organizational learning occurs frequently in fixed business models, such as franchising. The franchisee looking to use the franchisor's brand has to learn how to use the organization's business model before starting a franchise.

11.8 E -LEARNING :

E-learning refers to a learning system that can obtain through the internet using an electronic device. It also known as online learning or online education.

In other words, a learning system based on formalised teaching but with the help of electronic resources is known as E-Learning.

A. AIMS/GOALS OF E-LEARNING :

1) Cost Effective & Saves Time :

By reducing the time taken from the office, removing travel costs and doing away with printed materials, online learning helps us to save money and increases workforce productivity.

2) Learning 24/7 :

Online learning facilitates learning at anywhere at any place. In organizations also staff will be happier because they do not travel for training centers they can opt training even outside office hours also.

3) Serves Different Styles :

One of the greatest benefits of e-learning is that they have a world of content formats at their fingertips. Videos, notes, info graphics, games and other content types make e-learning engaging for everyone. Plus, different types of assessments, like quizzes and case studies, means that learners can be engaged according to their increasing level of understanding as they progress through the training.

4) Interactive and Gamification :

Learning requires active participation from people. Interactive eLearning courses allow employees to practice new skills. Simulations can provide the ultimate level of interactivity and practice, without the risk.

5) Accessable Support :

Almost all training can be delivered digitally, but sometimes there is still a need for live

facilitation and expert support. One of the benefits of online training for employees is that they can learn in their own time, at their own pace, while still having access to subject matter experts.

B. Measuring learning :

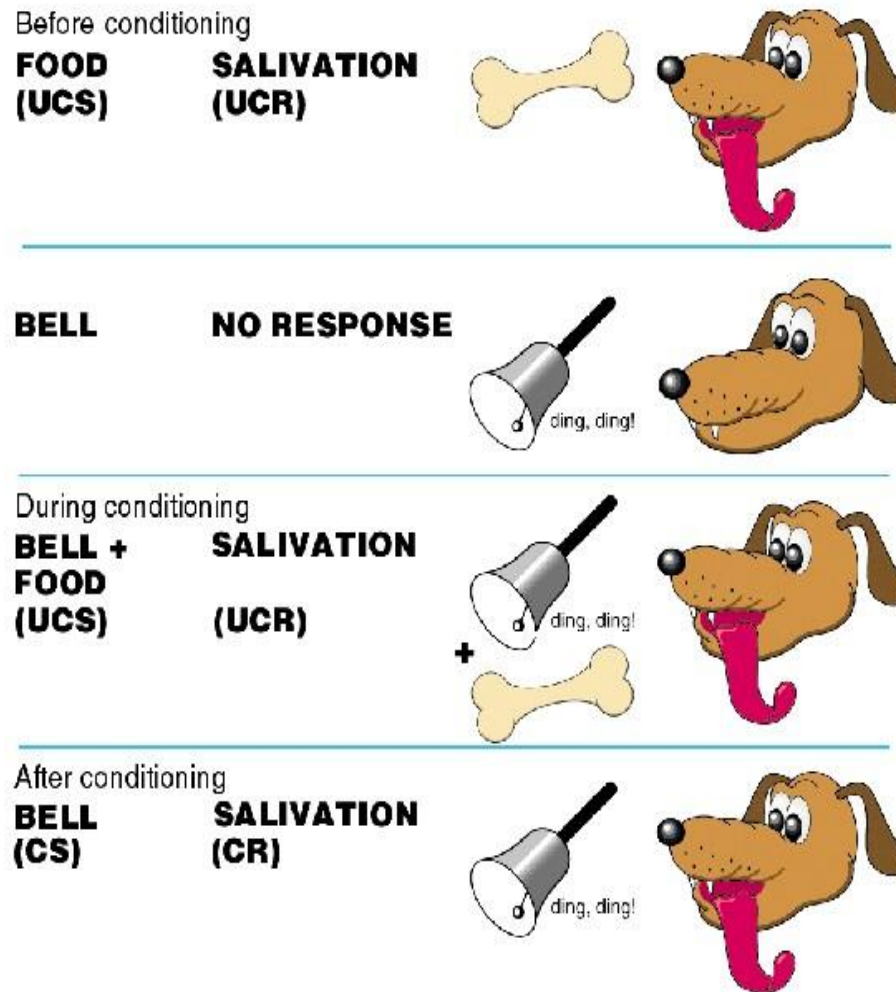
Organizational learning tracks the changes that occur within an organization as it acquires knowledge and experience. To evaluate organizational learning, the knowledge an organization creates, transfers, and retains must be quantified.

Researchers studying organizational learning have measured the knowledge acquired through various ways since there is no one way of measuring it. Silvia Gherardi measured knowledge as the change in practices within an organization over time, which is essentially learning from experience. In her study, she observed an organization acquire knowledge as its novices working at building sites learned about safety through experience and became practitioners. George Huber measured knowledge as the distribution of information within an organization. In his study, he noted that "organizational components commonly develop 'new' information by piecing together items of information that they obtain from other organizational units." He gives the example of "a shipping department [that] learns that a shortage problem exists by comparing information from the warehouse with information from the sales department." An increasingly common and versatile measure of organizational learning is an organizational learning curve demonstrating experience curve effects. A learning curve measures the rate of a metric of learning relative to a metric for experience. Linda Argote explains that "large increases in productivity typically occur as organizations gain experience in production." However, Argote also notes that organizations' rates of learning vary. Argote identifies three factors that affect these rates: increased proficiency of individuals, improvements in an organization's technology, and improvements in its structure (such as its routines and methods of coordination). Some organizations show great productivity gains while others show little or no gains, given the same amount of experience. The experience curves plot the decreasing unit cost versus the total cumulative units produced, a common way to measure the effect of experience. The linear-linear input form on the left is transformed into the log-log form on the right to demonstrate that the proficiency increase correlates with experience.

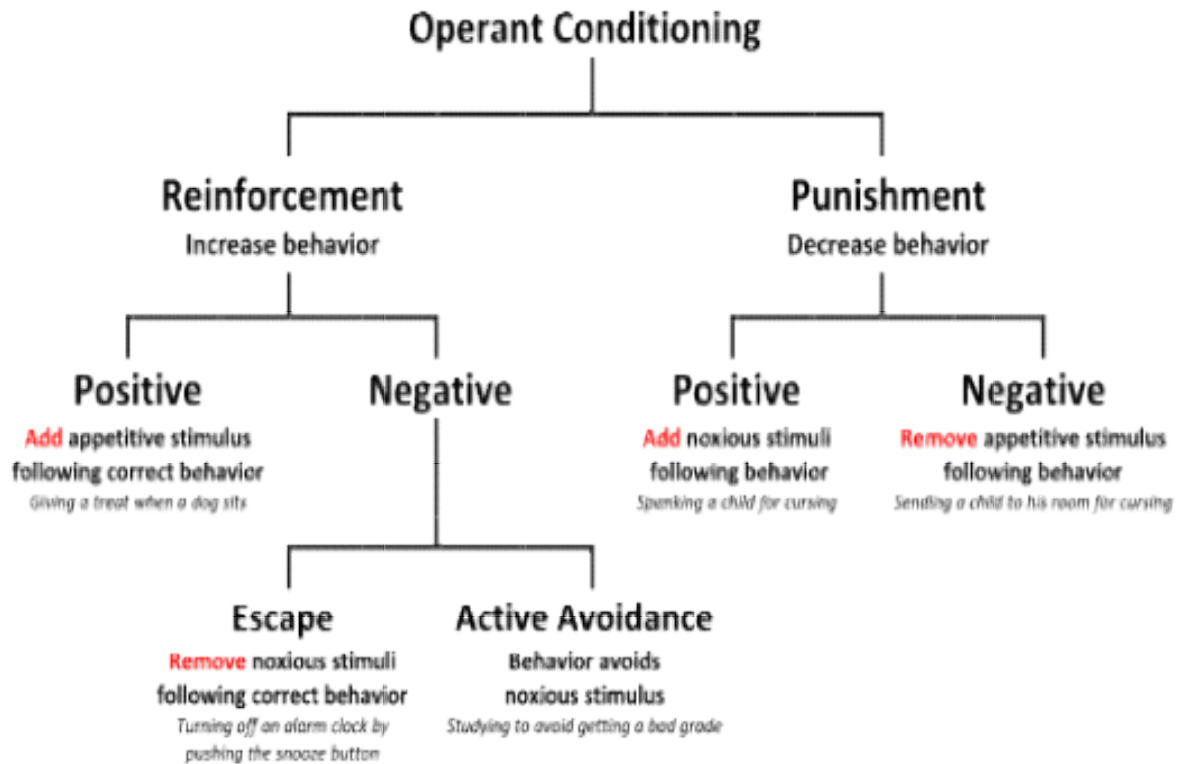
11.9 LEARNING THEORIES :

1. Classical Conditioning Theory : Classical conditioning is a type of conditioning in which a person reacts to certain stimuli that would not normally produce a response. Classical conditioning is acquiring a new response (the conditioned response) to a previously neutral stimulus (the conditioned stimulus) that reliably signals the arrival of an unconditioned stimulus. It is a learning process to add a particular thing to our environment to predict what will happen next. Classical conditioning occurs when a conditioned stimulus is combined with an unconditioned stimulus. Typically, the conditioned stimulus (CS) is an unbiased stimulus like the sound of a tuning fork, the unconditioned stimulus (US) is biologically dominant like the taste of food and the unconditioned response (UR) to an unconditioned stimulus is an unintentional one,

it is a reflex reaction such as salivation or sweating. After this pairing process is repeated (for example, learning may have already occurred after a pairing), an individual shows a conditioned response (CR) to the conditioned stimulus, when the conditioned stimulus is presented alone. The conditioned response is mostly similar to the unconditioned response, but unlike the unconditioned response, it must be acquired through experience and is almost temporary.



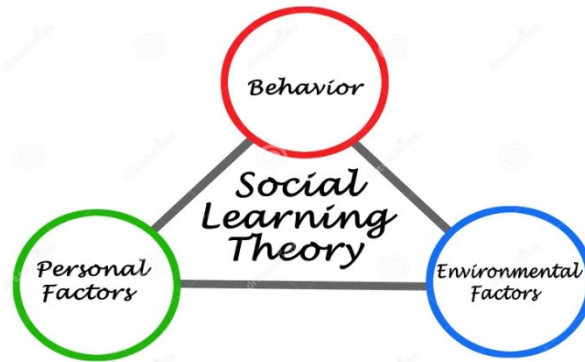
2. Operant Conditioning Theory : Operant conditioning theory is also known as instrumental conditioning. This principle is a learning process in which behaviour is sensitive to or controlled by its consequences. The second type of conditioning is called operant conditioning. Here, we learn that a particular behavior usually has a reward or punishment. What Pavlov did for classical conditioning, Harvard psychologist B.F. Skinner did it for operant conditioning. Operant conditioning argues that one's behavior will depend on a variety of situations. People will repeatedly behave in a specific way from which they will benefit. On the other hand, they will try to avoid behavior where they will get nothing. Skinner argued that creating pleasant consequences for specific forms of behavior would increase the frequency of that particular



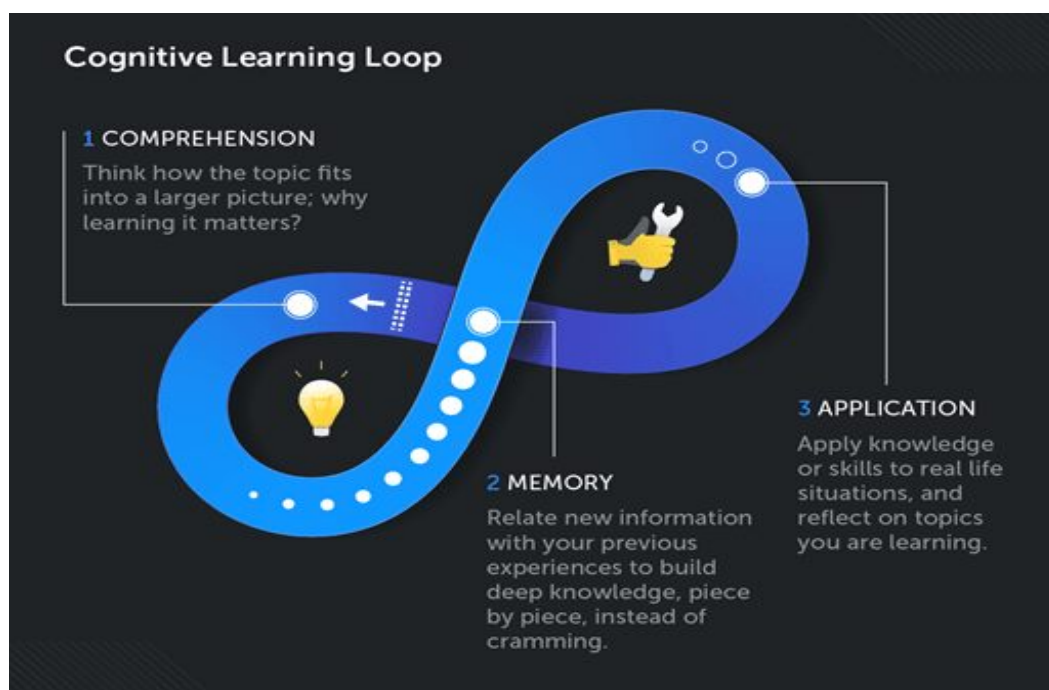
behavior. Let's take the example of a child. A child can learn to open a box to get candy inside, or learn to avoid touching a hot stove. In comparison, classical conditioning develops a relationship between a stimulus and a behaviour. The example can be further elaborated as the child may learn to tremble by looking at candy or seeing an angry parent. In the 20th century, the study of animal learning was ordered to analyse these two types of learning, and they are still at the core of behavioural analysis.

3. Social Learning Theory : Social Learning theory is also called observational learning theory. This theory emphasizes on learning through observation of other's. The main assumptions of social learning theory are as follows: –

- A. Learning is not actually behavioural, rather it is a cognitive process that takes place in a social context.
- B. Learning can occur by observing a behaviour and observing the consequences of the behaviour (known as vicarious reinforcement).
- C. Learning involves observation, extracting information from those observations, and making decisions about behaviour performance (known as observational learning or modelling). Thus, learning may go beyond an observable change in behaviour.
- D. Reinforcement plays an important role in learning but is not solely responsible for learning.
- E. The learner is not a passive recipient of information. Understanding, environment and behaviour all mutually influence each other.



4. Cognitive Learning Theory : Cognition defines a person's thoughts, ideas, knowledge, interpretation, understanding about himself and about the environment. This theory expresses the belief that learning involves gaining knowledge and understanding it by absorbing information in the form of principles, concepts and facts and then internalizing it. It assumes that a person learns the meaning of various objects and events and also learns to respond based on the meaning given to stimuli. The knowledge and understanding of learners can be enriched and internalized by exposing them to learning materials e.g. Case studies , projects, problem solving activities can also be used for this purpose. Self – directed learning, personal development, planning activities and discovery learning process with the help of facilitator and mentors are underpinned by cognitive learning theory. Cognitive theory has been used to explain mental processes as they are influenced by both internal and external factors, which ultimately bring about learning in an individual. Cognitive learning theory implies that the various processes related to learning are first explained by analyzing the mental processes. It envisions that with effective cognitive processes, it is easier to learn new information stored in memory over the long term. On the other hand, ineffective cognitive processes result in learning difficulties that one can trace back.



11.10 SUMMARY :

Learning is the acquisition and development of memories and behaviors, including skills, knowledge, understanding, values, and wisdom. It is the product of experience and the goal of education. Learning ranges from simple forms of learning such as habituation and classical conditioning seen in many animal species, to more complex activities such as play, seen only in relatively intelligent animals. Some years ago Säljö (1979) carried out a simple, but very useful piece of research. He asked a number of adult students what they understood by learning. Their responses fell into five main categories:

Learning as a quantitative increase in knowledge. Learning is acquiring information or 'knowing a lot'. Learning as memorizing. Learning is storing information that can be reproduced. Learning as acquiring facts, skills, and methods that can be retained and used as necessary. Learning as making sense or abstracting meaning. Learning involves relating parts of the subject matter to each other and to the real world. Learning as interpreting and understanding reality in a different way. Learning involves comprehending the world by reinterpreting knowledge. (quoted in Ramsden 1992: 26)

As Paul Ramsden comments, we can see immediately that conceptions 4 and 5 in are qualitatively different from the first three. Conceptions 1 to 3 imply a less complex view of learning. Learning is something external to the learner. It may even be something that just happens or is done to you by teachers (as in conception 1). In a way learning becomes a bit like shopping. People go out and buy knowledge - it becomes their possession. The last two conceptions look to the 'internal' or personal aspect of learning. Learning is seen as something that you do in order to understand the real world. In today's fast-changing world, an employee is periodically required to learn new knowledge and skills. This is dramatically apparent from the mushrooming uses of the Internet, as it changes the ways people perform routine functions and discover new ways of obtaining and acting on information.

11.11 KEYWORDS :

1. **Learning** : Learning is a powerful incentive for many employees to stick to certain organizations.
2. **Social Learning Theory** : Social Learning theory is also called observational learning theory.
3. **Cognitive Learning Theory** : Cognition defines a person's thoughts, ideas, knowledge, interpretation, understanding about himself and about the environment.
4. **Operant Conditioning Theory** : Operant conditioning theory is also known as instrumental conditioning.

11.12 SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Define learning? Explain the meaning and objectives of learning?
2. Discuss the principles of learning?
3. Converse the types of learning?
4. Enlighten the theories of learning?

11.13 SUGGESTED READING :

1. Organisational Behaviour, by Asawathappa, HIMALAYA PUBLISHING HOUSE, ISBN-13 - 978-9352990887. January 2018.
2. Essentials of organisational behaviour, by T N Chhabra, Sun India Publications, 1 January 2019.
3. Organisation Behaviour by Dr. F. C. Sharma, SBPD Publications, ISBN:9789383697878, 9383697873, Year December 2020.
4. Organizational Behaviour Concepts Skills And Best Practices, by Moody L, Published by Kaufman Press, ISBN - 9781666888225, Publish Year January 2022.

Dr.K. Madhu Babu

LESSON - 12
FOUNDATION OF GROUP BEHAVIOR

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To Understand the Types of Group
- ✓ To know the theories of Group Behavior
- ✓ To learn the consequences of Cohesiveness

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Types of Groups
 - 12.2.1 Formal Group
 - 12.2.2 Command Group
 - 12.2.3 Committee
- 12.3 Theories of Group Behaviour
 - 12.3.1 Propinquity
 - 12.3.2 Balance Theory
 - 12.3.3 Exchange Theory
 - 12.3.4 Group Dynamics
- 12.4 Degree of participation in group
 - 12.4.1 Attitude and Value
- 12.5 Consequences of Cohesiveness
 - 12.5.1 More Influence
 - 12.5.2 Success
 - 12.5.3 Participation
 - 12.5.4 Increased Productivity
 - 12.5.5 Satisfaction
 - 12.5.6 Better Communication
- 12.6 Summary
- 12.7 Key words
- 12.8 Self Assessment Questions
- 12.9 Suggested Readings

12.1 INTRODUCTION :

A work group is collection of two or more individuals, working for a common goal and are interdependent. They interact significantly to achieve a group objective. For a manager it is difficult to manage group because of varied nature, personality traits, attitude of individuals and personal interest in the group job the group members display. It is therefore important for managers to understand group member behaviour and deal effectively with the group because of the synergy they provide. Manager should be able to achieve not only group objective but should be able to fulfill individual objectives within the overall organizational frame work.

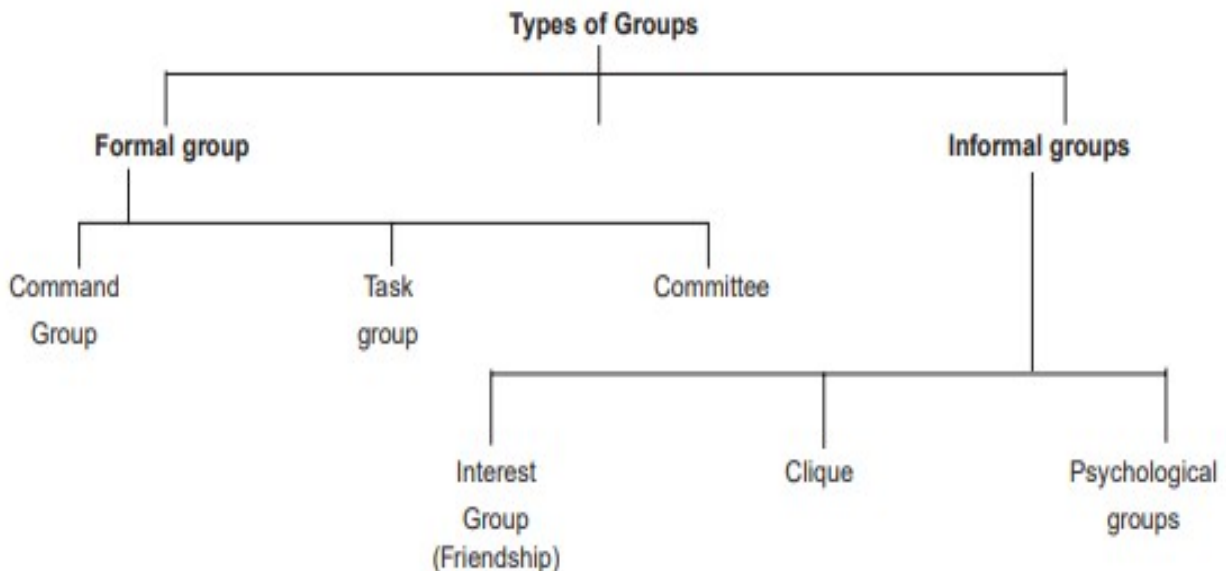
Group members should be able to achieve greater (volume and quality) than the sum total of individual contribution. This is achieved by joint idea generation, finding out various courses open, and selecting and implementing the best course of action. Because of the joint efforts of the group, it possible to use skill, knowledge and experience of group members to achieve quality decisions and achieve group goals. Fred Luthans states that if a group exists in an organization, its members :

1. Are motivated to join.
2. Perceive a group as unified unit of interacting people.
3. Contribute to various amounts to the group processes.
4. Reach agreement and disagreements through various forms of interaction.

12.2 TYPES OF GROUPS :

12.2.1 Formal Group :

A typical group layout is given at Figure 1 below :



Formal group is designated work group defined by the organizational structure. It is collection of employees who work together to contribute towards achievement of organizational objective. For example air crew. Formal groups are formed based on the work and human resources required by skill, knowledge and experience to achieve organizational task. In a manufacturing unit, the organizational task is sub divided into groups and teams. Each group is composed of various members based on the human resource requirement. The members of the group report to a designated leader. They interact with each other on official level.

12.2.2 Command Group :

It is formed to carry out a specific task. There is a leader in a group who is also designated by the organization. He receives orders from his superior and reports to him about group activities and performance. A task group is made up of individuals from across the functional areas. They work together to complete a job/task. Task group boundaries are not limited to its hierarchical superior. Once the task is complete the group members fall back to their respective parent groups/units.

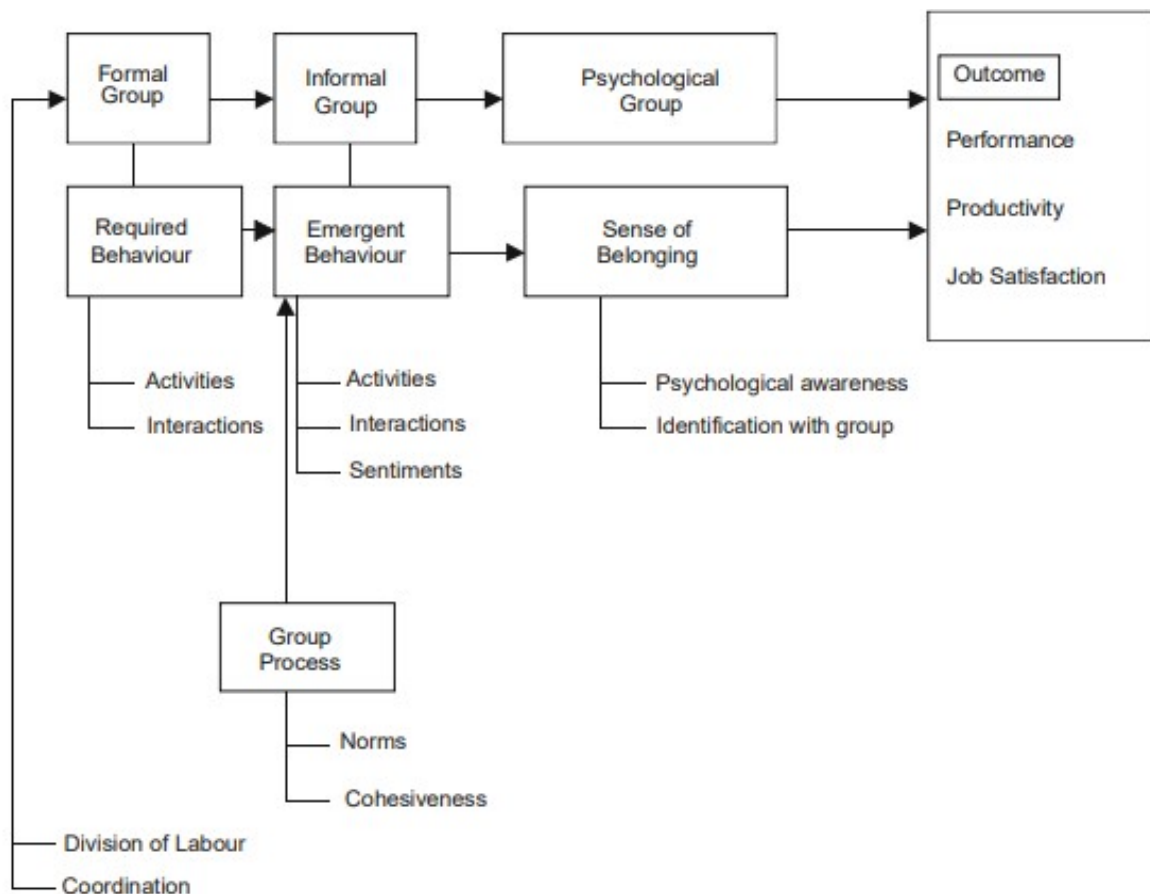
12.2.3 Committee :

The other form of formal group is committee. It can be of permanent or temporary nature. Planning committee, finance committees are of permanent nature, they keep working all along and have a designated authority to control the work. There are temporary committees, which are formed to accomplish a one-time works like committees formed at district levels to issue identity cards to citizens. They are formed for specific work and disbanded once they have completed their work. Informal Groups Informal groups are groups that are not formally organized in the work system to get the job done but develop on their own randomly at workplaces because of common interest and mutual liking of the group members. For example members of production department, body manufacturing department, HR department members and few individual from finance dept may form a friendship group. This development takes place because of the interaction they have with each other during the official work. Members from within one group or members from different departments or even an organization can form an informal group. The features of such groups are as under :

- (a) Informal groups are formed by various members themselves, it has no official sanctity.
- (b) These groups are formed based on commonality of culture, religious function, liking for each other and common interests.
- (c) Their contribution for success of formal group is immense if properly handled by official authority.
- (d) These groups evolve their own structure, elect their own leaders and have followers. They work based on group norms, social norms and code of conduct.

- (e) They represent the human side of an organization.
- (f) The group exist without any rigid rules. Their common interest is bond for existence.

Psychological Groups We had earlier discussed ‘emergent’ behavior that is related to behavior of group members in informal group and involving themselves in various activities, interactions and sentiments based on common interests, value system and social bondage they develop. When such informal group members develop highest level of sentiments or affinity among themselves and become aware of each-others needs and potential contribution to further group objectives. These groups are called psychological groups. The distinct feature of such informal group is that the members become close knit, develops strong feeling of togetherness and get identified by the group. A feeling that ‘we’ belong to a particular group sets in deep into the behaviour pattern of all group members. At times the strength of informal group identity becomes so strong that the members are more loyal to their friendship group as compared to their normal group. The managers restructuring the task activities and using appropriate group processes should channel the emergent behaviours in such a way that will help organizations to achieve its goal. This phenomenon can be used effectively for the betterment of organizations.



Psychological groups

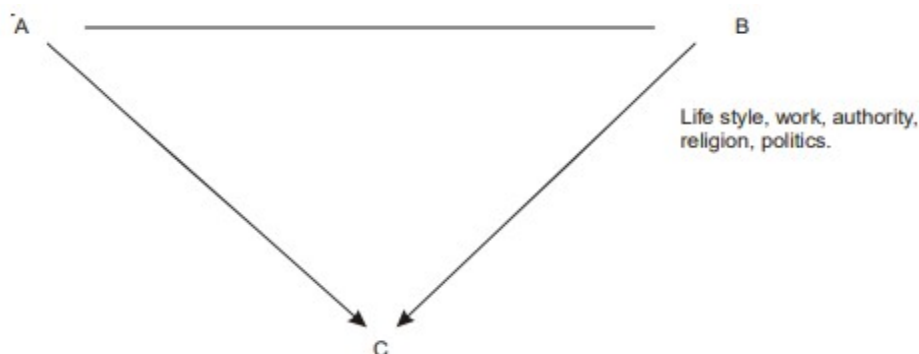
12.3 THEORIES OF GROUP BEHAVIOUR :

12.3.1 Propinquity :

Theory of Group Behaviour (George Homans 1950-60) Propinquity means affiliation which may be due to spatial or due to geographical proximity. Group Behaviour refers to activities, interactions and sentiments. In any organization, the behaviour of a group is analysed based on 'required' behaviour that refers to those actions the organization expects employees to perform effectively. It relates to the job that each group has to perform. The instructions for job performance are communicated to the group by way of job description, meetings, instructions by supervisors to the workers and other formal instructions that may be used from time to time. The managers expect that the employees follow these instructions in letter and spirit. While on the contrary, members of the group display an emergent behaviour. It refers to the activities the members get involved in the workplace which are of private nature and applicable to common interest of the members of the group. Whatever be the type of behaviour, each member is involved in various activities, carryout interaction with group members and develops sentiments. Activities are those behaviours when a group member is involved with other member or group to perform his duties as is laid down in the work schedule. More complex the job and critical nature of work, more will the activities involved. These are certain activities like chatting or taking coffee together is called emergent activities that the group often gets involved. Activities that are required to be carried out officially with the other members of the group involves interaction. Group member also interact with other members on social platform, which may be called emergent behaviour that relates to feelings, beliefs and values held by group members. All these activities require interaction and exchange of knowledge, knowhow and ideas to perform. More of such interactions develop a bond of friendship (or even hate) among the group members. Apart from official side there are certain impersonal side of organizational systems and process that must be promoted for better group member relationship for higher productivity and conflict free organizational work environment.

12.3.2 Balance Theory :

Balance theory was proposed by Theodore Newcomb that states "persons are attracted to one another on the basis of similar attitudes and common interest relevant to some object or a group goal"



As long as there is a balance, the relationship lasts. If due to some reason an imbalance is created efforts are made by both to restore the balance by compromising. If that does not work the relationship breaks. Reasons for maintaining relationship is based on common interest in politics, religion, similar life style, authority etc. In the Organization interest, it is the responsibility of the manager to ensure effective functioning of the group.

12.3.3 Exchange Theory :

Exchange theory is based on cost-reward relationship. Every individual before joining the group evaluates its outcome. If he feels that the outcome (reward) is greater than the cost he joins the group, he will form the part of the group. It should be noted that an individual joins group if a minimum positive level of outcome exists in order to establish attraction and affiliation to take place. The cost of relationship or affiliation is measured in terms of outcome that relates to fulfillment of various levels of needs of an individual.

12.3.4 Group Dynamics :

Group dynamics is concerned with interaction and forces between group members in a social situation. Concept of group dynamics was first evolved by Kurt Lewin in 1930s who viewed the concept from the perspective of internal nature of group, why they form, how they form, the structure of group, how they function and its effect on other group members, other groups and the organization. Following concepts are relevant for the study of group dynamic. Norms “Group Norms are set of beliefs, feelings, and attitude commonly shared by group members. These are also referred to as rules of standards of behaviour that apply to group members”. These are prescriptions of behaviour accepted and determined by the group. As per the Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, the Norm is defined as “acceptable standards of behaviour that are shared by the group members.” All groups have established norms, that is - norms tell members what they ‘ought’ and ‘ought not’ to do a thing under certain circumstances. From an individual stand point, they tell what is expected of them in certain situations. When agreed to and accepted by the group, norms act as a means of influencing the behaviour of group members with a minimum of external control. Norms differ among groups, communities and societies, but they all have them.

Behaviour of an individual as a group member must be acceptable to all the members, this will give an individual “Good standing” and recognition in the group. If norms are violated by an individual, corrective measures such as strokes are applied. In case the individual persist in his behaviour contrary to the group norms he will be totally neglected by other members and can even loose the membership of the group by way of total ignorance by other members of the group and thereby loosing status in the group. Types of Norms Norms may differ from organization to organization, nature of work and the location. Following norms are generally found and practiced by all the organizations.

(a) Performance Norms :

Performance standard is set by the individual worker and approved by the superiors. These are general norms, industry standards prevailing in a particular type of industry and restricted to geographical limits. All the individuals are expected to fulfill their task within the stipulated time. If some worker is slow and can not cope up with the work load, is assisted by other group members. On the contrary if some worker produces more than what is required to do is reprimanded by the group members and discouraged to produce more than upper limits set by the organization so that management does not raise their expectations.

(b) Appearance Norms :

Appearance norms is related to dress code and code of conduct in the organization. In good organization dress while on work, dress for sports function or for dinner are laid down. In defence services such norms are inbuilt in the organizational culture. As regards to code of conduct, an individual is expected to be loyal and display total dedication to the organization he serves. Workers are not expected to report about fellow workers to the superiors. In the same way members are not expected to divulge company secrets to any other organization they form, the structure of group, how they function and its effect on other group members, other groups and the organization. Following concepts are relevant for the study of group dynamic. Norms “Group Norms are set of beliefs, feelings, and attitude commonly shared by group members. These are also referred to as rules of standards of behaviour that apply to group members”. These are prescriptions of behaviour accepted and determined by the group. As per the Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, the Norm is defined as “acceptable standards of behaviour that are shared by the group members.” All groups have established norms, that is - norms tell members what they ‘ought’ and ‘ought not’ to do a thing under certain circumstances. From an individual stand point, they tell what is expected of them in certain situations. When agreed to and accepted by the group, norms act as a means of influencing the behaviour of group members with a minimum of external control. Norms differ among groups, communities and societies, but they all have them. A study conduct by P.C.De La Porte showed that the group norms that are favourable to the organization were — organizational pride, team work, honesty, security, planning and customer relations. The norms about profitability and supervision were unfavorable to the organization (De La Porte, PC)

(c) Cohesion :

Cohesiveness defines the degree of closeness that the members feel with the group. It identifies the strength of the members desires to remain in the group and degree of commitment to the group. Cohesiveness of the group is reflected to the extent of unity displayed by the group members and adherence to the group norms. It is “WE” feeling displayed by the members of the group. Cohesion can be achieved when there is a feeling of attraction and adherence to group norms. Cohesiveness of a group can produce miracles in the organization if group objectives and organizational objectives are complementary to each-other. If they differ then the group

cohesiveness can be disastrous for the organization. For example if organization wants to improve sales by 10%, this can be achieved provided group is assured of deviants out of additional revenue accrued by additional sales. If no incentives are provided then the cohesiveness of sales group will become counter productive and dysfunctional for the organization. If the organization and the group can subscribe to the common goals, then the high cohesive group will be valuable. In such situation required and emergent behaviour of the group become identical. But if group does not subscribe to the organizational goals then the cohesive group will be detrimental to the organization's goal. In this situation required and emergent behaviour are incongruent and cohesive group become dysfunction to the organization. It is therefore important for a manager to use group cohesiveness to the best advantage of the organization by identifying group member goals and aligning the same with organizational goals.

(d) Conformity :

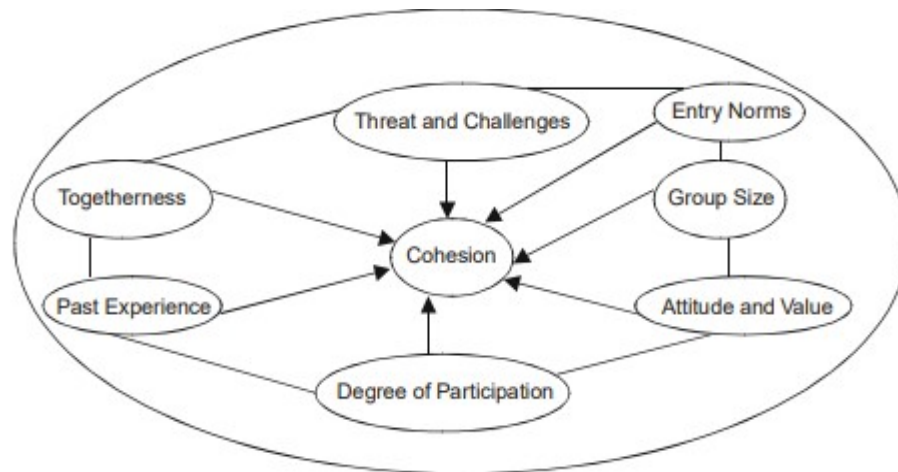
Members in the organization want to belong to a group for various reasons. First they want to belong to a group to fulfill the need of social security. The second reason is the conformity to group decisions in conflicting and confusing situation as a best bet. When individual belong to a group he abides by group norms and the group decision against ones own judgment. Individuals need for affiliation is satisfied when an individual is fully accepted in the group by group members. In conflicting situation an individual goes by the decisions made by the group. Conformity with group norms and group decision provide an individual enough emotional strength to cope up with organization stress. There are some individuals who have dominant ego factor, may not accept group decisions and therefore refuse to accept conformity. These individuals are called deviants. Such non-conformist have strong individual views and independent opinion on a particular issue. They can survive as group members for being non-conformist. They are subsequently isolated from the other members of the group.

(e) Groupthink :

Groupthink is a phenomenon in which the norms for consensus overrides the realistic appraisal of alternative course of action(Robbins OB 2000). Groupthink is a situation when all the members of a group are aligned to each other in the group and blindly abide by the group decisions. No external pressure is applied. In the process it has been seen that poor decision are made by the group as no one resist the decision, groupthink phenomenon is bad for group decision making because group members don't take decision based on rationality, non use of available data, and over estimation about ability. Too much of group cohesion is dangerous for equality decisions.

(f) Group Cohesiveness :

Following factors contribute to group Cohesiveness



Factors contributing to group cohesiveness

(g) Togetherness :

It is a natural tendency that people want to remain together. When they interact, they know each other better and are attracted by their nature and behaviour pattern. People share their happiness and hardships, and a bond of togetherness is formed. In an organizational setting, people on the same floor, department, residing in the same colony, bus stop friendship are attracted to each other because of their close proximity. It will invariably be found that the people who are closely associated by virtue of even seating arrangement in the work-place share their views and display more cohesiveness than those who are located away. Group Size Cohesiveness of a group depends upon the close interaction of the group members with each other. In a large group, it is not possible for the individual to communicate with each other; hence there is a likelihood of a large group being less cohesive than the small group. In a work environment, a small group is more effective. If a group is large, there is also a possibility of formation of small sub groups within a large group. This will lead to delusions of group norms and power politics within the sub group, which is not desirable. Another interesting factor about group cohesion is the sex, whether the group composes of all male members or female members. Studies showed that if all members were of the same sex, then small groups had better cohesion than large ones (Robbins, Stephen).

In a mixed group situation, even a larger group has a better cohesion because people like to be a part of a mixed group and are more interactive with opposite sex, which increases group cohesion. What should be the optimum size for an effective group cohesion can not be decided, as other factors like attitude of group members and demographic factors play a decisive role. However, 8 to 10 members could be an ideal group size for optimum group cohesion to be achieved. Beyond the above limit, the cohesiveness of the group decreases gradually. Large groups are least cohesive.

(h) Entry Norms :

There are organizations whose membership is difficult to obtain. There are also clubs which are reserved for exclusive members of a particular background like Defence Services Officers club. Joining of such group elevates the status, position and members feel a sense of pride and accomplishment. Because the membership of such clubs is exclusive. At times, there is also a long waiting list to join such groups. More exclusive the group more cohesive it will be. More difficult to get entry, more cohesive the group would be.

(i) Threat and Challenges :

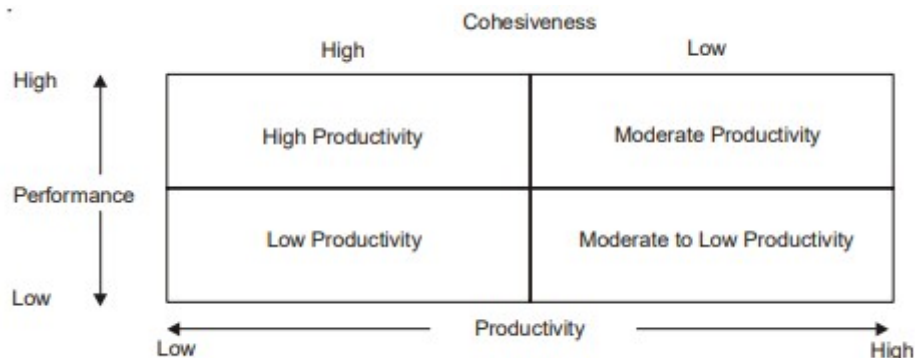
Every group has its objectives. It has been experimented that whenever there is a threat to disturb the group norm or group objective, group members get more united to protect the group objective from the party threatening the same. It will be noticed that external threat brings higher degree of cohesion to the group. In the fast moving world to day, the importance of group has increased many fold. Employees have sacrificed their perks and privileges to ensure higher productivity by adhering to group norms. For example employees in a well organized industry work beyond specified time to achieve group goals. Meeting higher challenges brings personal satisfaction to group members and higher level cohesiveness to the group they are part of.

12.4 DEGREE OF PARTICIPATION IN GROUP :

Activities Participation in group activities is important as it leads to more frequent interaction between group members. Success in group activities also bring cohesiveness as each of the participants feels that he has been the contributor for achievement of group goals. For example participation in sports team and achieving the victory.

12.4.1 Attitude and Value :

“Birds of the same feather flock together”. Group members having identically attitude and high level of value system will behave themselves identically and promote group norms and achieve Cohesiveness. In such situation decision making and implementation of group task is comparatively easy . Conflict situations are avoided and a smooth sailing is achieved. Interest of the group is well protected due to cohesiveness of the group



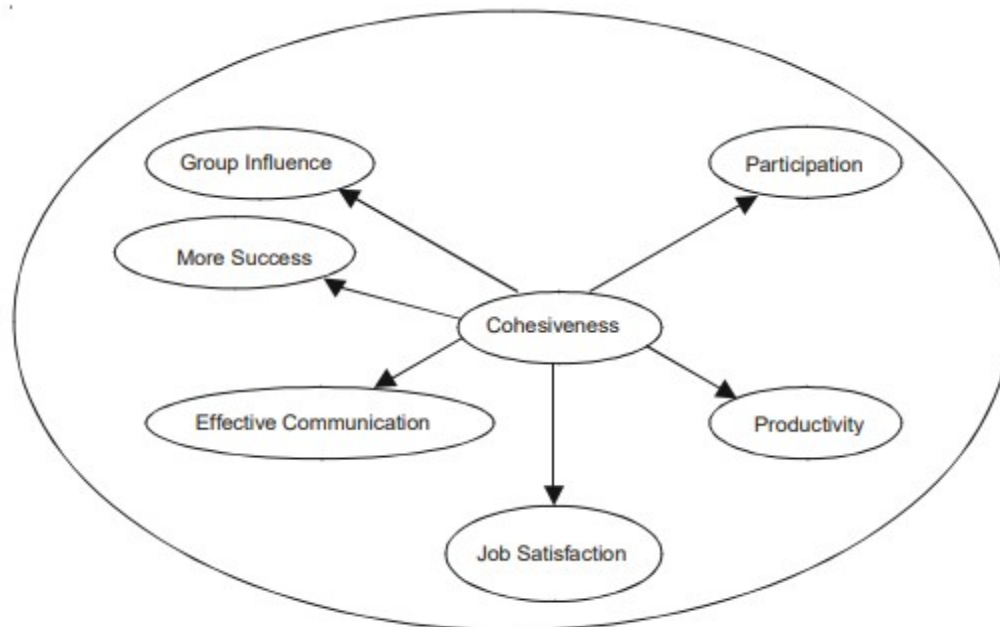
Relationship between cohesiveness, performance norms on productivity

Study of cohesiveness is important because it has an impact on productivity of the organization. Relationship of group Cohesiveness, performance norms and productivity is given in the figure above.

Performance norms are those work and behaviour related activities that have been accepted as norm like Cooperation, Quality of output, interpersonal behaviour etc. A cohesive group will be more productive than a less cohesive group. If cohesiveness is high and performance norms are low, productivity will be low thereby establishing the superiority of performance norms. If cohesiveness is low and performance norms are high, productivity will increase. When performance norms and Cohesiveness is low, productivity will fall. To achieve group cohesiveness following suggestion are made (J L Gbson and J M Lvancevich).

- (a) Small group have better Cohesiveness.
- (b) Encourage unilateral acceptance of group goals.
- (c) Time spent by members for group activities should be increased.
- (d) Increase status of group and group members.
- (e) Create an environment of perceived difficulty in attaining group membership.
- (f) Competition with other groups.
- (g) Introduce reward systems.
- (h) Physical Isolation of group increases cohesiveness.

12.5 CONSEQUENCES OF COHESIVENESS :



Consequences of group cohesiveness

12.5.1 More Influence :

Every group has a leader. If it is a formal group then the leader will be appointed by virtue of organizational structure. If a group is informal and a leader is not nominated, then the leader will automatically arise due to various situations and requirements. Leader who apart from being appointed, exercises considerable influence over the group members is accepted as leader by the group members. Leader who is autocratic exercises even more power to handle the external situation. Leader must be sincere and care for the expectations of the group members. Leader's decisions will be accepted when he displays considerable amount of concern and well of the majority of members. For example, Leader's agreement with union on a particular issue would be accepted by members of the group if leader wields internal power over the group members.

12.5.2 Success :

Group is formed to achieve a particular group objective. When achieving group objective, the personal objective takes a back seat. Group Cohesiveness and success are interdependent. When group is highly cohesive the success is almost assured. On the contrary if the group is not cohesive the members will display separate interests and fulfillment of group objective will merely remain as an objective and its accomplishment will be difficult. For example, take a crew of the passenger aircraft flying from Bombay to Paris. The objective is clear, there is a common objective, every member of the crew (group) is contributing to safe passage. Flight engineer, Navigator, pilot, attendants all are committed to achieve group goal and personal interest (goal) if any is kept aside. It is therefore necessary to achieve a high degree of cohesiveness by adopting to group norms and conforming to it to achieve success.

12.5.3 Participation :

Once a high level of cohesiveness is achieved each member develops a sense of belonging to the group. He craves to be intensely involved in group activities. He also develops an intimate relationship with each member and consider the group as a family. The members participation gives an opportunity to fulfill social needs.

12.5.4 Increased Productivity :

Group efforts is expected to bring better results than the sum total of individual efforts. Studies show that outcome is not only related to group cohesiveness but also to group compliance with organizational goals. According to Richard M Steers when group cohesiveness is high and acceptance of organizational goal is high performance will be high. Similar results would be expected for low Cohesiveness and high goal acceptance although the results may not be as strong. On the other hand performance would not be expected to be high when cohesiveness is high and goal acceptance is low. In this case, group efforts will probably be

directed away from organizational goals valued by the group. Finally when both cohesiveness and goal acceptance are low, efforts will probably become dissipated leading to low productivity

12.5.5 Satisfaction :

In a group environment satisfaction is guided by cumulative effect of external factors like respect for each other, support from group members, expert guidance, achievement and sense of safety in group environment. These factors bind members to each other and achieve cohesiveness. If members are not satisfied they would cease to be part of the group.

12.5.6 Better Communication :

Members form a group, remain member of the group because of the value system they share with each other. By virtue of this an effective communication is evolved that reduces conflict to a large extent. Members of the group enjoy the freedom of action by virtue of respect for each other and the social relationship.

12.6 SUMMARY :

Concept of group came in existence along with division of work. The group is collection of two or more individuals working for a common goal and are inter dependent. To achieve organizational objective the group has to accomplish its (group) objective so that the 'whole' is achieved. The same can be achieved by co-ordinating group activities. It is difficult for a manager to understand each individual because of different behavioural patterns of the members. Concept of Group dynamics was first introduced by Kurt Lewin in 1930s. There are two types of groups. These are formal group of which command group, task group and committee form the part. The second type of group is informal group. This contains interest group, clique and psychological group. There are various theories of group behaviour. Homans proposed Proximity theory of group behaviour. The theory deals with activities, interactions and sentiments of individuals that leads to affiliation caused due to spatial or geographical proximity. It has been observed that individuals display required or emergent behaviour in work environment. Second theory of group behaviour was introduced by Theodore Newcomb called 'balance theory'. The theory explains as to how people are attracted to each other based on common attitude and value system. This may include life style, work, authority, religion and politics. Exchange theory deals with affiliation that takes place based on cost-reward relationship that is measured by psychological aspects like feelings anxiety and so on. Following concepts are relevant for the study of group dynamics. These are as under: Norms are set of beliefs, feelings, attitudes commonly shared by group members. Norms are of various types. These are performance norms, appearance norm and behaviour norms.

Development of norms is a continuous process and are based on behaviour displayed by various members of the group on various occasions. These include explicit statement made by group members, critical events in the life of the group, primacy of behaviour and the past experience. Status and cohesiveness.

Cohesiveness identifies the strength of the members' desire to remain in the group and degree of commitment displayed by them. Cohesiveness of a group can be developed by conforming to the group norms by according secondary position to individual interests as against the group interests. Groupthink is a phenomenon in which norms overrides any alternative course of action if a group is required to be strong. Togetherness, group size, entry norms and ability of group members to face threats and challenges posed by various situations.

Degree of participation in group activities, attitude and value displayed by the group members are also important for group cohesiveness. There is a close relationship between cohesiveness, performance norms and productivity. For high productivity a group must ensure high cohesiveness and high performance norms. Low performance norms will lead to low or moderate productivity.

A highly cohesive group displays, greater participation in group activities, higher productivity, more influence among group members, effective communication, more success in the organizational mission and above all a higher job satisfaction

12.7 KEY WORDS :

Formal group is designated work group defined by the organizational structure. It is collection of employees who work together to contribute towards achievement of organizational objective.

Command Group -It is formed to carry out a specific task. There is a leader in a group who is also designated by the organization

Committee -The other form of formal group is committee. It can be of permanent or temporary nature. Planning committee, finance committees are of permanent nature, they keep working all along and have a designated authority to control the work

Group dynamics is concerned with interaction and forces between group members in a social situation. Concept of group dynamics was first evolved by Kurt Lewin in 1930s who viewed the concept from the perspective of internal nature of group, why they form, how they form, the structure of group, how they function and its effect on other group members, other groups and the organization

Appearance norms is related to dress code and code of conduct in the organization. In good organization dress while on work, dress for sports function or for dinner are laid down. In defence services such norms are inbuilt in the organizational culture

Cohesion-Cohesiveness defines the degree of closeness that the members feel with the group. It identifies the strength of the members desires to remain in the group and degree of commitment to the group.

12.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

- 1 Explain the concept of group.
- 2 What are various types of group?
- 3 Explain various theories of group behaviour.

- 4 Study of norms and status is essential for the study of group dynamics. Explain.
- 5 “Cohesiveness is the degree of closeness that the members feel with the group”. In the light of the above statement explain cohesiveness and factors contributing to it.
- 6 With the help of a diagram explain relationship between group cohesiveness, performance norms and productivity.

12.9 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Organizational Behaviour by Stephen P. Robbins Timothy A. Judge , Neharika Vohra, 1November 2018, Published by Pearson Education, ISBN-13 978-9353067038.
2. Essentials of organisational behaviour, by T N Chhabra, Sun India Publications, 1 January 2019.
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4. Organisation Behaviour, by Kumar Pranit, Publisher Gen Next Publication, ISBN-13-9789380222103, Year 2021.
5. Organizational Behavior by Steven L. McShane, Mary Ann Von Glinow and Himanshu Rai, 9th Edition, Publisher McGraw Hill, Year 26 July 2022.

Dr.K. Madhu Babu

LESSON - 13

L E A D E R S H I P

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To Know the concept of Leadership
- ✓ To understand the three competencies of leadership
- ✓ To learn the leadership styles
- ✓ To analyse the Major Leadership theories

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Concept of Leadership
- 13.3 Are leaders Born or Made?
- 13.4 Three Competencies of Leadership
- 13.5 Management Versus Leadership
- 13.6 Leadership Styles
- 13.7 Major Leadership Theories
 - 13.7.1 Trait Theories
 - 13.7.2 Behavioral Theories
 - 13.7.3 Rensis Likert's Management Systems
- 13.8 The Leadership Grid
- 13.9 Contingency / Situational Theories
- 13.10 Fiedler's Contingency Model
 - 13.10.1 Identifying Leadership Style
 - 13.10.2 The Situational Factor
 - 13.10.3 Leader-Situation Matches
- 13.11 Path Goal Theory
- 13.12 Leader Behavioural Style
- 13.13 Summary
- 13.14 Key words
- 13.15 Self Assessment Questions
- 13.16 Suggested Readings

13.1 INTRODUCTION :

Leader is an individual within a group or an organisation who wields the most influence over others. Barry Posner remarked that in the past, business believed that a leader was like the captain of the ship-cool, calm and collected. Now, we see that leaders need to be human. They need to be in touch, they need to be empathetic, and they need to be with people. Leaders need to be part of what's going on, and not apart from what's going on.

13.2 CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP :

Some of the widely accepted definitions of leadership are as follows :

- a. According to George R Terry, "Leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives."
- b. Robert Tannenbaum, Irving R. Weschler and Fred Massarik define leadership as "interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specialized goal or goals."
- c. Harold Koontz and Heinz Wehrich have defined leadership as the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the achievement of group goals.

The main features of leadership are as follows :

1. Leadership is the use of non-coercive influence to shape the group or organisation's goals, and motivate behaviour towards the achievement of those goals.
2. It is a process in which one individual exerts influence over others.
3. Leadership involves other people –employees or followers– who by the degree of their willingness to accept direction, help to define the leader's status.
4. It involves authority and responsibility, in terms of deciding the way ahead and being held responsible for the success or failure in achieving the agreed objectives.
5. Leadership involves an unequal distribution of power between leaders and group members. Group members are not powerless; they can and shape group activities in a number of ways. Still, the leader will usually have more power.
6. Leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and other situational variables : $L = f(l, f, s)$

In short we can say that leadership is the process in which one person, a leader influences a follower in a non-coercive manner to attain a goal

Leadership can be formal and informal. Formal leadership is based on occupying a position in an organization, called assigned leadership. Informal leadership occurs when an individual demonstrates leadership outside the scope of a formal leadership role or as a member of a group, rather than as the head or leader of the group. The informal leader can be considered to emerge as a leader when accepted by others and perceived to have influence.

The fundamental principle of leadership can be described as, “Since people tend to follow those who, in their view, offer them a means of satisfying their own personal goals, the more managers understand what motivates their subordinates and how these motivations operate, and the more they reflect this understanding in carrying out their managerial actions, the more effective they are likely to be as leaders.”

13.3 ARE LEADERS BORN OR MADE ?

Whether leadership can be learned is an issue that has perplexed researchers for decades. If leaders are born, why spend time reading and developing your skills? Your leadership success or failure has already been determined. If leaders are made, then everyone can become a leader, and there is hope for us all. As Jay Conger suggests, ‘these perspectives are quite different, and their implications for the training and development of leaders are profoundly different. If leadership ability is genetically determined training could hardly play a role in its development.

But if leadership is learned through experience, training might well be used to develop new skills and to help synthesize past experiences into useful insight.” Our position, and that of almost all other leadership researchers as well, is that leaders are both born and made, particularly within broad context of leadership. Formal and informal experience also play a critical role; in particular “work experience, hardship, opportunity, education, role models and mentors all go together to craft a leader.”

13.4 THREE COMPETENCIES OF LEADERSHIP :

Leading or influencing requires three general skills, or competencies :

- (1) Diagnosing understanding the situation we are trying to influence;
- 2) Adapting – altering our behaviour and the other resources we have available to meet the contingencies of the situation; and
- (3) Communicating – interacting with others in a way that people can easily understand and accept.

a) **Diagnosing is a cognitive or cerebral competency.** It is understanding what the situation is now and knowing what we can reasonably expect to make it in the future. The discrepancy between the two is the problem to be solved. The discrepancy is what the other competencies are aimed at resolving.

- b) **Adapting is a behavioural competency.** It involves adapting our behaviours and other resources in a way that helps close the gap between the current situation and what we want to achieve.
- c) **Communicating is a process competency.** Even if we are able to understand the situation, even if we are able to adapt behaviour and resources to meet the situation, we need to communicate effectively. If we cannot communicate in a way that people can understand and accept, we will be unlikely to meet our goal.

13.5 MANAGEMENT VERSUS LEADERSHIP :

Managers have to be leaders, and leaders are often, but not always, managers. But a distinction can be made between the processes of management and leadership. Management is concerned with achieving results by effectively obtaining, deploying, utilizing and controlling all the resources required, namely people, money, facilities, plant and equipment, information and knowledge.

Leadership focuses on the most important resource, namely people. It is the process of developing and communicating a vision for the future, motivating people and gaining their commitment and engagement.

According to Bennis and Nanus, “Managers do things right, leaders do the right thing.”

Leadership Functions	Management Function
Establishing direction: vision of the future, develop strategies for change to achieve goals.	Plans & budgets; decide actions and timetables.
Aligning people: communicate vision and strategy, influence creation of teams which accept validity of goals.	Organizing & Staffing: decide structure and allocate staff, develop policies, procedures and monitoring.
Motivating and inspiring: energize people to overcome obstacles, satisfy human needs.	Control & problem solving: monitor results against plan and take corrective actions.
Outcomes : Produces positive and sometimes dramatic changes.	Produces order, consistency and predictability.

According to Mintzberg, leadership is one of the interpersonal roles. Mintzberg's research suggested that, in practice, the distinction between leadership and management is blurred. The roles overlap. Leadership is one dimension of a multi-faceted management role. The effective manager requires at least some leadership qualities. The neat conceptual distinction between leader and manager does not translate neatly into practice.

13.6 LEADERSHIP STYLES :

The three common leadership styles are :

Autocratic leadership involves centralized decision making, with the leader making decisions and using power to command and control others.

Democratic leadership is participatory, and authority is delegated to others. The democratic leader uses expert power and the power base afforded by having close, personal relationships to be influential.

Laissez-faire leadership is passive and permissive, and the leader defers decision making.

13.7 MAJOR LEADERSHIP THEORIES :

The major leadership theories can be classified as —

Trait Theories (focuses on leader qualities)

Behavioural Theories (focuses on leader actions)

Contingency Theories (focuses on situations)

13.7.1 Trait Theories :

Prior to 1945, the most common approach to the study of leadership concentrated on leadership traits. These studies suggested that certain characteristics, such as physical energy or friendliness, were essential for effective leadership. These inherent personal qualities, like intelligence, were felt to be transferable from one situation to another. Because all individuals did not have these qualities, only those who had them would be considered potential leaders.

Consequently, this approach seemed to question the value of training individuals to assume leadership positions. It implied that if we could discover how to identify and measure these leadership qualities (which are inborn in the individual), we should be able to screen leaders from nonleaders. Leadership training would then be helpful only to those with inherent leadership traits.

Reviews of research using this trait approach to leadership revealed few significant or consistent findings. Eugene E. Jennings concluded that “fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and nonleaders.” This is not to say that certain traits won’t hinder or facilitate leadership; the key is that no set of traits has been identified that clearly predicts success or failure.

According to the Great Man Theory, individuals are born either with or without the necessary traits for leadership. Trait theories of leadership sought personality, social, physical or intellectual traits that differentiate leaders from nonleaders. Edwin Gheselli identified six traits

for effective leadership — need for achievement; intelligence; decisiveness; self-confidence; initiative; and supervisory ability.

Historic findings reveal that leaders and followers vary by –intelligence, dominance, selfconfidence, level of energy and activity and task relevant knowledge. The contemporary findings show that –people tend to perceive that someone is a leader when he or she exhibits traits associated with intelligence, masculinity, and dominance; people want their leaders to be credible, and credible leaders are honest, forward-looking, inspiring and competent. The major limitations of the trait theories of leadership are—no universal traits found that predict leadership in all situations; unclear evidence of the cause and effect of relationship of leadership and traits; and trait view has little analytical or predictive value.

13.7.2 Behavioral Theories :

The main period of the behavioural approaches to leadership occurred between 1945, with the Ohio State and Michigan studies, and the mid-1960s, with the development of the Managerial Grid.

By behavioural approaches, we mean approaches that use paper-and-pencil instruments such as questionnaires to measure behaviour or attitudes or predispositions toward leader behaviour.

In this section, we will consider three leadership theories —

the Ohio State studies;

the Michigan studies including Rensis Likert's work; and

the Leadership Grid.

a) Ohio State Leadership Studies :

The leadership studies initiated in 1945 by the Bureau of Business Research at The Ohio State University attempted to identify various dimensions of leader behaviour. The researchers, directed by Ralph Stogdill, defining leadership as the behaviour of an individual when directing the activities of a group toward goal attainment, eventually narrowed the description of leader behaviour to two dimensions: initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure refers to a type of leader behaviour that describes the extent to which a leader is task oriented and directs subordinates' work activities toward goal achievement. On the other hand, consideration refers to a type of leader behaviour that describes the extent to which a leader is sensitive to subordinates, respects their ideas and feelings, and establishes mutual trust.

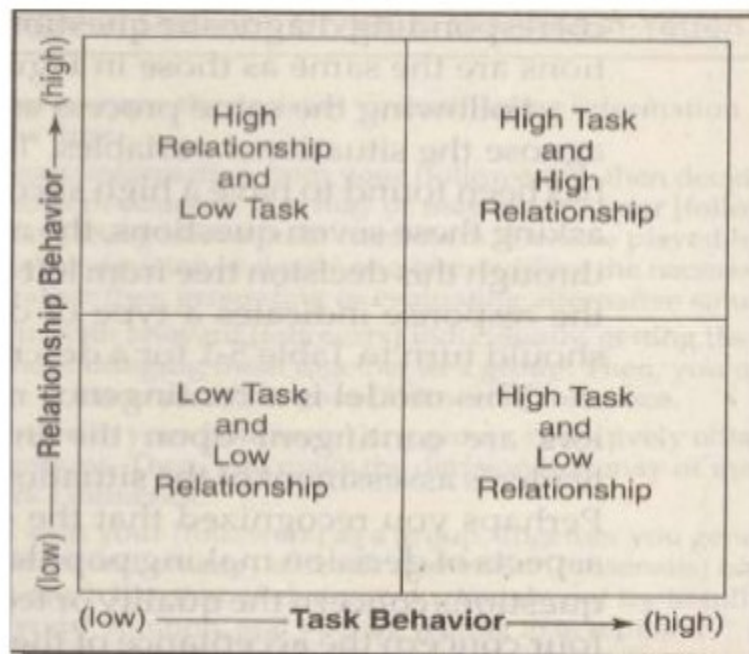
To gather data about the behaviour of the leaders, the Ohio State staff developed the leader behaviour description questionnaire (LBDQ), an instrument designed to describe how leaders carry out their activities. The LBDQ contains 15 items pertaining to consideration and to initiating structure. Respondents judge the frequency with which their leader engages in each

form of behaviour by checking one of five descriptions-always, often, occasionally, seldom or never.

Thus, consideration and initiating structure are dimensions of observed behaviour as perceived by others.

Although the major emphasis in the Ohio State Leadership studies was on observed behaviour, the staff did develop the leader opinion questionnaire (LOQ) to gather data about leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership style. The LBDQ was completed by leaders' followers, supervisors, or associates (peers), but the LOQ was scored by the leaders themselves.

In studying leader behaviour, the Ohio State staff found that initiating structure and consideration were separate and distinct dimensions. A high score on one dimension does not necessitate a low score on the other. Thus, it was during these studies that leader behaviour was first plotted on two separate axes rather than on a single continuum.



Source : Management of Organizational Behavior-Leading Human Resources, Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H. and Johnson, D.E, 8th Edition, 2006, pp-94.

Michigan Leadership Studies Researchers at the University of Michigan conducted leadership studies, starting in 1945. In the early studies, there was an attempt to approach the study of leadership by locating clusters of characteristics that seemed to be related and by determining various indicators of effectiveness. The studies identified two concepts, which the researchers called employee orientation and production orientation.

Leaders who were described as employee-oriented emphasized the relationships aspect of their job. They felt that every employee is important and took interest in everyone, accepting

their individuality and personal needs. Production-oriented leaders emphasized production and the technical aspects of the job; employees are seen as tools to accomplish the goals of the organization.

13.7.3 Rensis Likert's Management Systems :

Using the earlier Michigan studies as a starting place, Likert did some extensive research to discover the general pattern of management used by high-producing managers in contrast to the pattern used by the other managers. He found that "supervisors with the best records of performance focus their primary attention on the human aspects of their employees' problems and on endeavoring to build effective work groups with high performance goals." These supervisors were called employee-centered. Other supervisors who kept constant pressure on production were called job-centered and were found more often to have low-producing sections.

The four systems of management describe the relationship, involvement, and roles between management and subordinates in industrial settings. The four systems of management are:

- a) **Exploitive authoritative system (I) :** In this type of management system the job of employees is to abide by the decisions made by their managers. The subordinates do not participate in any decision-making process in the organisation. The main focus of the organisation is to complete the work. Fear and threats may be used to make sure that the employees complete the work set for them. There is no teamwork involved.
- b) **Benevolent authoritative system (II) :** In this system also the decisions are made by those at the top of the organisation and management. The employees are motivated through rewards rather than fear and threats. The rewards are in proportion to their contribution. The flow of information from the subordinates to managers may be permitted, but it is restricted to "what management wants to hear".
- c) **Consultative system (III) :** In this type of management system, subordinates are motivated by rewards and a degree of involvement in the decision-making process. The management will constructively use the ideas and opinions of their employees. However, involvement is incomplete and major decisions are still made by the senior management. In comparison to the benevolent authoritative system, there is a greater flow of information from the subordinates to management.
- d) **Participative (group) system (IV) :** In case of participative management system, there is lot of communication between the management and the employees and the employees are fully involved in the decision-making process. The management expresses a high degree of confidence in their employees. Teamwork is encouraged in the participative system. Different teams are linked together by the people who are members of more than one team. The employees belonging to more than one group/team are known as "linking pins". Employees throughout the organisation feel responsible for achieving the

organisation's objectives. The employees are also involved in the organizational goal setting process. As a motivational tool, economic rewards are offered to the employees for achieving the organizational goals.

13.8 THE LEADERSHIP GRID :

In discussing the Ohio State, Michigan, and Likert leadership studies, we concentrated on two theoretical concepts—on emphasizing task accomplishment and the other stressing the development of personal relationships. Robert R. Blake and Anne Adams McCauley modified these concepts in their leadership Grid (formerly the Managerial Grid by Robert B. Blake and Jane S. Mouton) and have used them extensively in organisation and management development programmes.

In the Leadership Grid, five different types of leadership based on concern for production (task) and concern for people (relationship) are located in four quadrants similar to those identified by the Ohio State studies. Concern for production is illustrated on the horizontal axis.

Production becomes more important to the leader as the rating advances on the horizontal scale.

A leader with a rating of nine on the horizontal axis has a maximum concern for production. Concern for people is illustrated on the vertical axis. A leader with a rating of nine on the vertical axis has maximum concern for people. The five leadership styles are described as follows :

1,1 Impoverished Management. Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organisation membership.

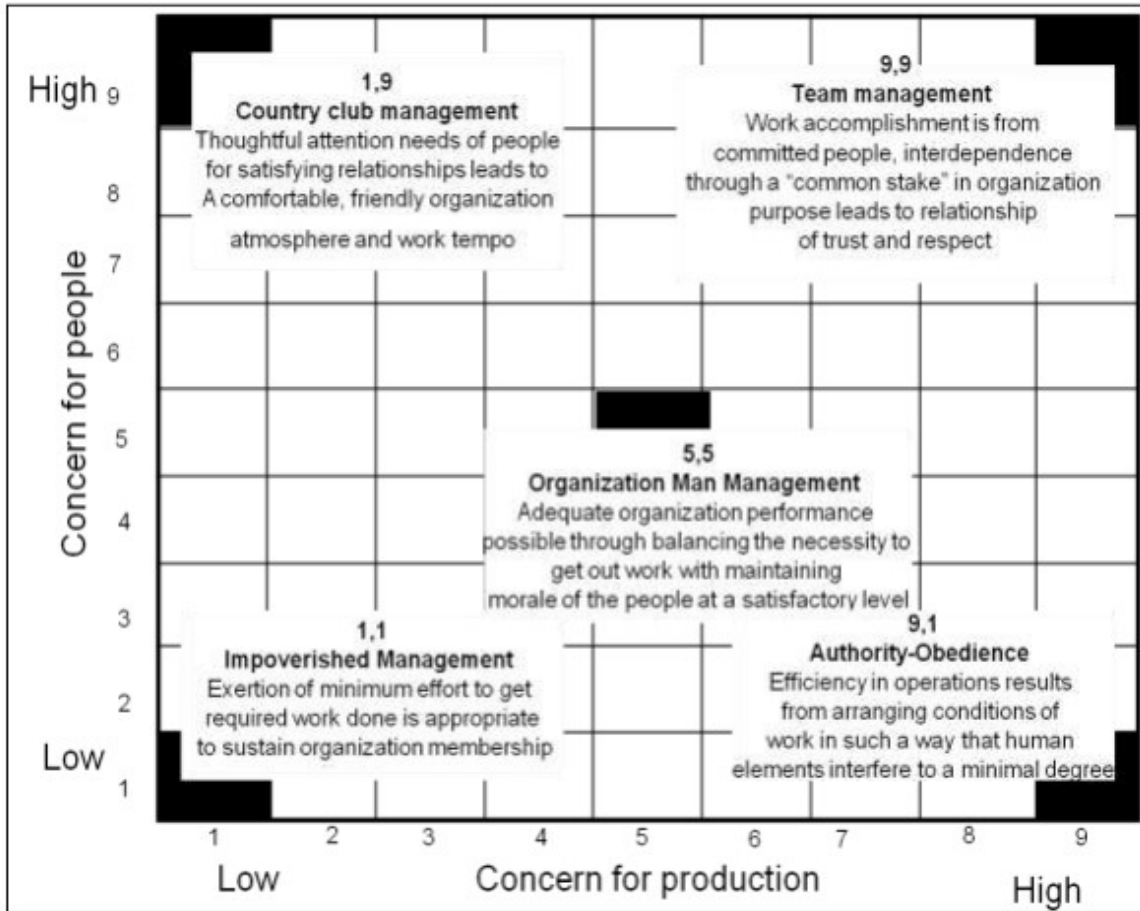
1,9 Country Club Management. Thoughtful attention to the needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable, friendly organisation atmosphere and work tempo.

9,1 Authority-Obedience Management. Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree

5,5 Organisational Man Management. Adequate organisation performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get work out while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

9,9 Team Management. Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a 'common stake' in organisation purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

The Leadership Grid



Source: Management of Organizational Behavior-Leading Human Resources, Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H. and Johnson, D.E, 8th Edition, 2006, pp-101.

13.9 CONTINGENCY / SITUATIONAL THEORIES :

The three main components of the leadership process are the leader, the follower and the situation. Situational approaches to leadership examine the interplay among these variables in order to find causal relationships that will lead to predictability of behaviour. All situational approaches require the leader to behave in a flexible manner, to be able to diagnose the leadership style appropriate to the situation, and to be able to apply the appropriate style.

Although there are many situational models and theories, we will focus on three that have received wide attention in leadership research: Fiedler's Contingency model, the Path-Goal theory, and the Hersey and Blanchard situational leadership model.

13.10 FIEDLER'S COTINGENCY MODEL :

Widely respected as the father of the contingency theory of leadership, Fred Fiedler developed the Leadership Contingency Model. Fiedler's theory views that effective group

performance depends on the proper match between the leader's style and the degree to which the situation gives control to the leader.

13.10.1 Identifying Leadership Style :

According to Fiedler, one of the key factors determining leadership success is the basic individual's basic leadership style. Fiedler created the least preferred coworker (LPC) questionnaire to measure whether a person is task-oriented or relationship-oriented. The LPC questionnaire containing sets of 16 contrasting adjectives such as pleasant-unpleasant, efficient inefficient, was used to determine the leadership styles. Fiedler stated that leaders with high LPC scores are relationship oriented—they need to develop and maintain close interpersonal relationships. In contrast, leaders with low LPC scores are task-oriented, and tend to evaluate the individuals with whom they least like to work fairly negatively.

13.10.2 The Situational Factor :

Fiedler's theory viewed leader behavior as dependent upon the interaction of the leader's personality and the needs of the situation. The needs of the situation or how favorable the situation is toward the leader is determined by three major situational variables— leader-member relationships, the degree of task structure, and the leader's position power.

Leader-member relations are the feelings and attitudes of followers regarding acceptance, trust, and credibility of the leader. It refers to degree of the group's acceptance of the leader.

Task structure means the degree to which work is defined with specific procedures, explicit directions, and goals.

Position power is the degree of formal authority and influence associated with the position.

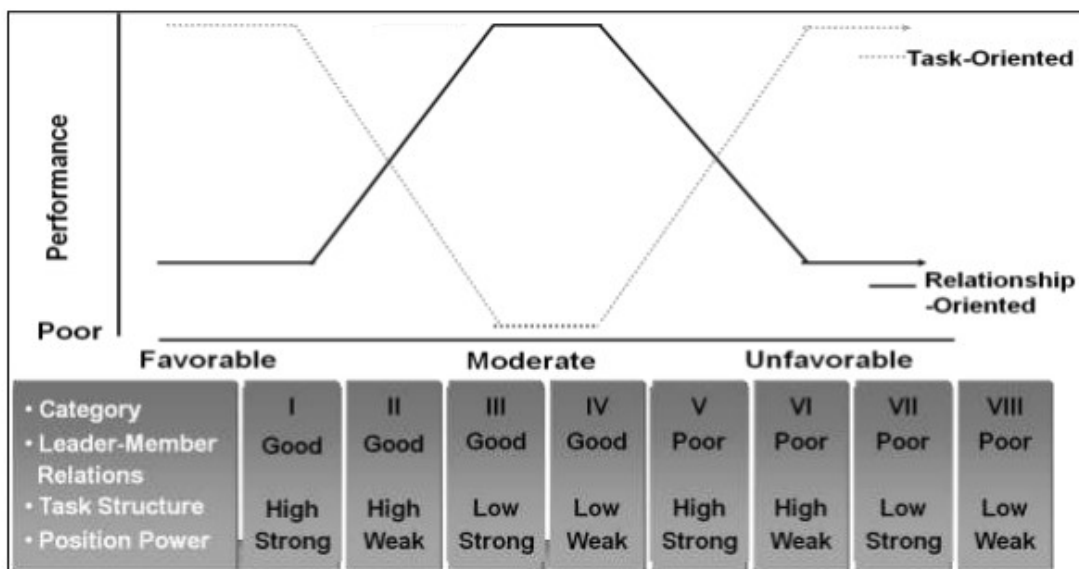
Fiedler defined the favourableness of a situation as “the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert influence over the group. The situation is most favourable for a leader when the relationship between the leader and group members is good, when the task is highly structured, and when the leader's position power is strong (Cell I). The least favourable situation occurs under poor leader-member relations, an unstructured task, and weak position power (Cell VIII).

13.10.3 Leader-Situation Matches :

Some combinations of leaders and situations work well; others do not. In search of the best combinations, Fiedler examined a large number of leadership situations. He argued that most leaders have a relatively unchangeable or dominant style, so organisations need to design job situations to fit the leader.

While the model has not been fully tested, and tests have often produced mixed or contradictory findings, Fiedler's research indicates that relationship-oriented (high LPC) leaders are much more effective under conditions of intermediate favorability than under either highly favourable or highly unfavorable situations. Fiedler attributes the success of relationship-oriented leaders in situations with intermediate favorability to the leader's nondirective, permissive attitude. For highly favorable and unfavorable situations, task-oriented leaders (those with a low LPC) are very effective. As tasks are accomplished, a task-oriented leader allows the group to perform its highly structures tasks without imposing more task-directed behaviour. The job gets done without the need for the leader's direction. Under unfavourable conditions, task-oriented behaviours, such as setting goals, detailing work methods, and guiding and controlling work behaviours, move the group toward task accomplishment.

Fiedler's Contingency Model Leadership – Situation Matches



Source: Organizational Behaviour, Robbins, S. P & Judge, T.A, 12th Edition, 2007, pp.411

[Adapted from F.E Fiedler and M. M. Chemers, 1974, Leadership and Effective Management, Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman]

13.11 PATH GOAL THEORY :

The path goal theory of leadership was originally proposed by Robert House (1971) and has its roots in the expectancy theory of motivation which argues that the motivation to perform a task is a function of two connected factors:

Expectancy - whether a person believes that good performance will lead to certain identifiable outcomes;

Valence - the extent to which an individual values those outcomes.

In House's view effective leadership consists of selecting the most appropriate style of behaviour for a particular situation, and the leaders can change their styles to meet the prevailing circumstances. The path-goal theory defines an appropriate style as one which achieves two important outcomes: tasks are successfully completed; followers achieve outcomes that they value for completing the task

To achieve this state of affairs, House argues that a leader should structure the situation to have three important effects on a group:

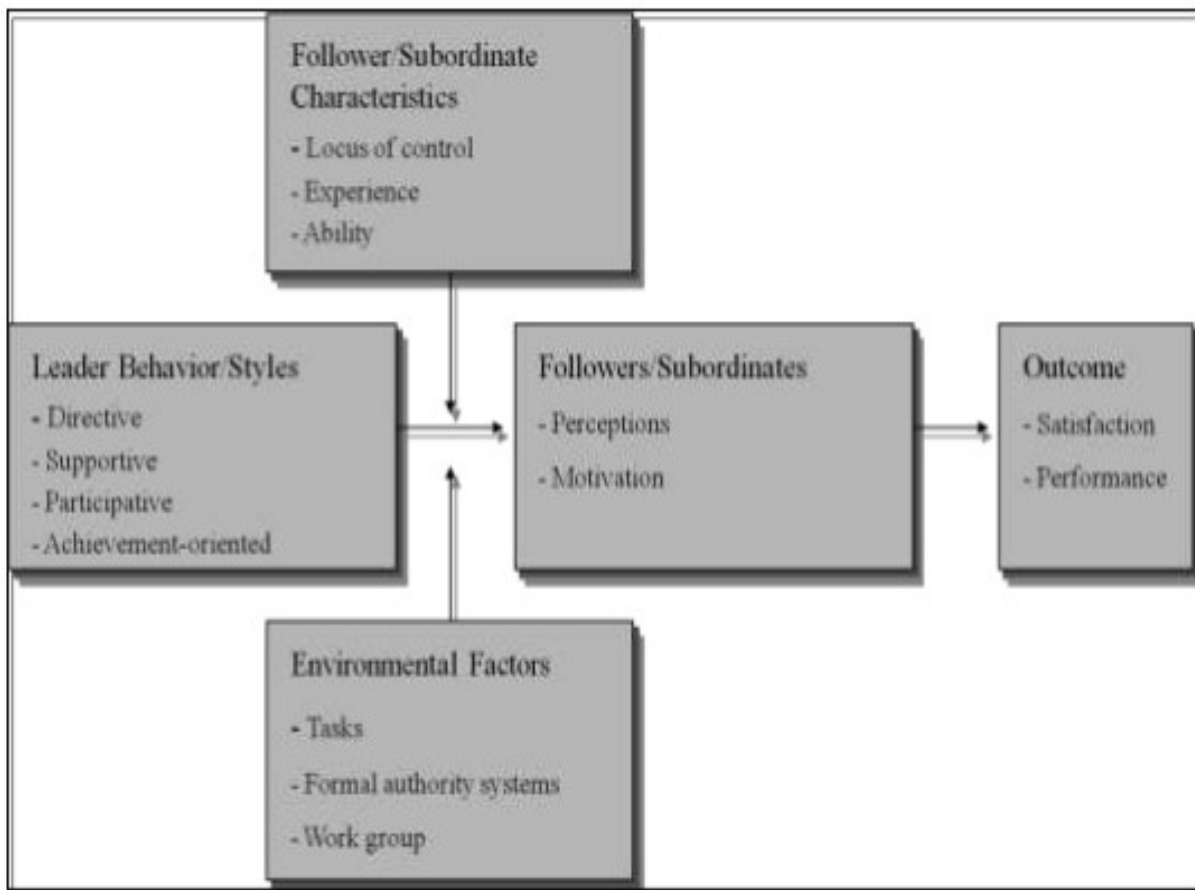
Subordinates should only be able to achieve the valued outcomes if the task itself is completed effectively;

Reducing barriers to task completion;

Providing the necessary guidance and support.

From this it follows that House views effective leadership as behaving in a way that creates motivating circumstances for followers. However, since no two groups are exactly alike and the conditions can differ considerably, whether the outcomes are achieved depends on how the followers perceive the leader and react to his or her behaviour.

The Basics of the Path – Goal process



13.12 LEADER BEHAVIORAL STYLE :

The path goal theory suggests that four leadership styles can be used in order to affect subordinates' perceptions of paths and goals. Directive Leadership: This style involves providing clear guidelines to subordinates so that they can understand what is expected out of them. The leaders describe the work methods, develop work schedules, provide standards of performance to achieve, and indicate the basis for outcomes or rewards.

Supportive Leadership : This style is characterized by the creation of a pleasant, friendly atmosphere in the group and consideration for the needs and well-being of subordinates.

Participative Leadership : It is a consultative style that involves seeking suggestions and ideas from subordinates, and involving them in decisionmaking.

Achievement-oriented Leadership : This style uses non-directive ways to set challenging goals for subordinates and seeks improvements in performance, usually by holding up excellent standards as a model to be achieved and by showing that there is confidence that they can achieve these standards.

The path-goal theory suggests that these four styles are used by the same leader in different situations. Apart from the expectancy theory variables, the other two contingency/situational factors contributing to effective leadership include — follower characteristics and environmental factors.

Follower Characteristics :

The follower characteristics largely determine how subordinates will react to a supervisor's behaviour and these determine the need for variations in style.

Locus of control :

It is a reflection of whether a person believes that outcomes are under his or her control, or whether they are determined by external factors that cannot be controlled. People with a strong internal locus are likely to find a participative leadership style more acceptable, whereas those with an external locus would probably be quite happy with a directive style.

Perceived task ability :

It refers to the followers' own views of their abilities. Those who evaluate themselves highly and feel confident about performing tasks are unlikely to feel a need for directive leadership, while those with less confidence might prefer a directive leader.

Experience :

It is an important variable in this group that is likely to affect followers' confidence in their task ability.

Need for Achievement (N. Ach) :

It influences whether an individual welcomes the opportunity to overcome a challenge. Subordinates with high N. Ach. are likely to find participative and achievement-oriented leadership more acceptable

Need for Clarity :

It reflects subordinates' lack of tolerance for ambiguity. Subordinates with strong needs of this type are likely to prefer directive leadership style, while those with greater tolerance to ambiguity are comfortable with participative or achievement-oriented leadership style.

Environmental Factors :

This is the second contingency factor which affects the appropriateness of a particular leadership style and it includes features of the work context in which subordinates and supervisor interact.

- **Employee task:** It refers to the characteristics of the work subordinates undertake. In case of routine, predictable task subordinates would prefer supportive leadership style.
- **The authority system:** It expresses the normal patterns of authority and power in the work environment.
- **The work group:** It embraces characteristics such as whether it is cohesive and whether members support each other without the leader having to perform this function.

In terms of supporting evidence for the model, House's original aim was not to offer perspective recommendations, but to stimulate discussion and research. In this respect the model has largely been successful and research has resulted in support for its basic ideas.

13.13 SUMMARY :

Leadership is an important concept for understanding group behaviour. The early researches tried to identify the traits of effective leaders. The behavioural theories identified the task-oriented and people-oriented leadership styles. A major breakthrough in the understanding of leadership came with the contingency theories of leadership. The contingency theories established the fact the leadership process is a function of leaders, followers and situations.

13.14 KEY WORDS :

Leadership : It is the process in which one person, a leader influences a follower in a non-coercive manner to attain a goal.

Autocratic leadership : It involves centralized decision making, with the leader making decisions and using power to command and control others.

Democratic leadership : It is participatory, and authority is delegated to others.

Laissez-faire leadership : It is passive and permissive, and the leader defers decision making.

Expectancy : Whether a person believes that good performance will lead to certain identifiable outcomes.

Valence : The extent to which an individual values those outcomes.

13.15 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Define leadership.
2. Briefly explain the leadership process.
3. Contrast leadership and management.
4. What are the essential competencies of a leader?
5. Explain the behavioural theories of leadership.
6. Critically examine the Fiedler's contingency model.

13.16 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Robbins & Judge: Organizational Behavior, 12th Edition, 2007, PHI
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Dr. M. Rama Satyanarayana

LESSON - 14

POWER AND POLITICS

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To diagnose the extent, location and types of power in an organisation;
- ✓ To understand how and by whom power is exercised in an organisation;
- ✓ To examine different aspects of power dynamics in an organisation.
- ✓ To appreciate the role of politics in an organisation;
- ✓ To identify various political strategies used for gaining power in organisations; and
- ✓ To take note of organisational politics in understanding behaviour in organisations.

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Concept of Power
- 14.3 Characteristics of Power
- 14.4 Views of Power and Influence
- 14.5 Differentiating Power from authority and influence
- 14.6 Sources of Power
 - 14.6.1 Reward power
 - 14.6.2 Coercive power
 - 14.6.3 Legitimate Power:
 - 14.6.4 Expert power:
 - 14.6.5 Referent power:
- 14.7 Structural Sources of Power
- 14.8 The Bases of Power
- 14.9 Using Power Ethically
- 14.10 Individual Vs. Organisational Power
- 14.11 The Dynamics of Power
 - 14.11.1 Resistance in Organisations:
 - 14.11.2 Distribution
 - 14.11.3 Uncertainty
- 14.12 Determinants of Power

14.12.1 Symbols

14.2.2 Reputation

14.13 Summary

14.14 Key words

14.15 Self-Assessment Questions

14.16 Suggested Readings

14.1 INTRODUCTION :

Power is a potentially sinister subject. Power' says Bierstedt (1950), ' stands behind every association and sustains its structure. Without power there is no organisation and without power there is no order.' Paradoxically, the most potent exercise of power may be invisible. Power relations can be subtly changing and ambiguous. In theory, managers command and employees obey. In practice, it is not always so. Indeed, what appears as unquestioning obedience may actually be a covert form of resistance. It is useful, therefore, to understand something about the nature of power in organizations.

Politics is not just about international affairs, parliaments and domestic issues. Organisations are themselves systems of political activity. Economics may influence organisational decisions but politics is the ultimate arbiter. It is not enough for managers to be planners, organisers, analysts and strategists. They must also be politicians in their respective organisations. Power and politics are very closely related concepts. A recognition of the political realities of power acquisition in today's organisations and an examination of some specific political strategies for acquiring power are of particular interest for understanding the dynamics of organisational behavior.

14.2 CONCEPT OF POWER :

Power is said to be like love, impossible to define but easy enough to recognise (Martin, 1977).

Power is understood as the ability to influence other people and events. In the words of White and Bednar, "Power is the ability, to influence people of things, usually obtained through the control of important resources." A comprehensive definition of power is given by Dahl (1957), when he wrote that "A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something B would not otherwise do." Russell (1938) conceptualizes power as "the production of intended effects." Dehl's definition suggests that power must overcome resistance in order to succeed whereas according to Russell, power need not imply resistance. All the above definitions suggest that power involves compulsion. These has been a recent trend towards empowerment, the shifting of power away from managers and into bands of subordinates. Empowerment occurs in varying degrees in different organisations.

14.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF POWER :

The following are the characteristics of power :

- 1) **Specific** : Power is specific in the sense that it may be exercised by some people in some circumstances. Power may not be exercised by all people in all circumstances.
- 2) **Dependency** : The main feature of power is dependency. The greater the dependence of one person on you, the greater is the amount of power you can exert on him.
- 3) **Expand or Contract** : Power is elastic. People who are habituated to exercise power, may try to acquire more power and expand it. In some organisations, due to change in position of a manager in the organisation, that is, shift from one department to the other may cause contraction in power.
- 4) **Reciprocal Relationship** : Power relationships in an organisation are reciprocal in nature. Power exists due to relationship between two or more persons. It is based on two-way concept of influencing others and being influenced.

14.4 VIEWS OF POWER AND INFLUENCE :

There are different views of power which a manager takes to increase the power of both managers and their employees.

1) **Autocratic View of Power** : In autocratic view, the power flows downward, it basically comes from the authoritative structure from the management. In autocratic view, someone loses and someone gains, as it has fixed amount.

2) **Participative View of Power** : In participative view, the power varies i.e. Power has variable amount. It flows in all directions. The power comes from both official and unofficial channels and applied by activities in a group. Positive and Negative Consequences of Power The fact that we can see and succumb to power means that power has both positive and negative consequences. On one hand, powerful CEOs can align an entire organization to move together to achieve goals. Amazing philanthropists such as Paul Farmer, a doctor who brought hospitals, medicine, and doctors to remote Haiti, and Greg Mortenson, a mountaineer who founded the Central Asia Institute and built schools across Pakistan, draw on their own power to organize others toward lofty goals; they have changed the lives of thousands of individuals in countries around the world for the better (Kidder, T. (2004).

14.5 DIFFERENTIATING POWER FROM AUTHORITY AND INFLUENCE :

Usually, the term power is intertwined with another concept, authority. But there is a difference between the two concepts. Power refers to the capacity to influence others. The person who possesses power has the ability to manipulate or change the behaviour of others. Authority,

on the other hand, is the source of power. Authority is legitimate and it confers legitimacy to power.

Power itself need not be legitimate. Authority exists where one person has a formal right to command and another has a formal obligation to obey. Authority may be seen as institutionalized power

For example, a police officer has authority to 'stop' a motorist. The motorist is legally obliged to comply. Managers are said to possess a 'right to manage'. Employees are legally obliged to obey the employer's instructions provided these are lawful and within the scope of the contract of employment. Whereas power and authority are potentially mandatory, influence, by contrast implies persuasion. Influence is usually conceived of being broader in scope, than power, Influence is more closely associated with leadership than power, but both obviously are involved in the leadership process. Marx was highly influential but not powerful. In contrast Stalin was powerful but not influential. In organisations, employees may influence decisions through joint consultative committees and other mechanisms, yet the organisation reserves the final say.

14.6 SOURCES OF POWER :

Interpersonal Sources of Power French and Raven identify five interpersonal sources of power: reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, expert power, and referent power.

14.6.1 Reward power :

Reward power is an individual's ability to influence others' behaviour by rewarding their desirable behaviour. Employees comply with requests and directives because of the authority of managers to grant rewards in the form of praise, promotions, salary increase, bonuses, and time-off. Reward power can lead to better performance, but only as long as the employee sees a clear and strong link' between performance and rewards.

14.6.2 Coercive power :

Coercive power is an individual's ability to influence others' behaviour by means of punishment for undesirable behaviour. For example, subordinates may comply because they expect to be punished for failure to respond favourably to managerial directives. Punishment may be major or minor, depending on the nature of omission or commission.

14.6.3 Legitimate Power :

Legitimate power most often refers to a manager's ability to influence subordinates' behaviour because of the manager's position in the organisational hierarchy. Subordinates may respond to such influence because they acknowledge the manager's legitimate right to prescribe certain behaviours. Legitimate power is an important organisational concept. Typically, a

manager is empowered to make decisions within a specific area of responsibility, such as quality control, accounting, human resource, marketing, and so on.

14.6.4 Expert power :

Expert power is an individual's ability to influence others' behaviour because of recognized skills, talents, or specialised knowledge. To the extent that managers can demonstrate competence in analysing, evaluating, controlling, and implementing the tasks of subordinates, they will acquire expert power.

14.6.5 Referent power :

Referent power is an individual's ability to influence others' behaviour as a result of being liked or admired. For instance, subordinates' identification with a manager often forms the basis for referent power, this identification may include the desire of the subordinates to emulate the manager. Referent power is usually associated with the individuals who possess admired personality characteristics, charisma, or a good reputation.

14.7 STRUCTURAL SOURCES OF POWER :

Much of the attention directed at power in organisations tends to focus on the power of managers over subordinates. An additional perspective is that the characteristics of the situation affect or determine power. Important structural sources of power include knowledge, resources, decision making and networks.

Knowledge as power :

Organisations are information processors that must use knowledge to produce goods and services. The concept of knowledge as power means that individuals, teams, groups, or departments that possess knowledge are crucial in attaining the organization's goals. Intellectual capital represents the knowledge, know-how, and competency that exists in the organisation. This intellectual capital can provide an organisation with a competitive edge in the marketplace.

Resources as power :

Organisations need a variety of resources, including money, human resources, equipment, materials, and customers to survive. The importance of specific resources to an organization's success and the difficulty in obtaining them vary from situation to situation.

The departments, groups, or individuals who can provide essential or difficult-to-obtain resources acquire more power in the organisation than others.

Decision making as power :

The decision-making process in an organisation creates more or less power differences among individuals or groups. Managers exercise considerable power in an organisation simply

because of their decision-making ability. Although decision making is an important aspect of power in every organisation, cultural differences make for some interesting differences in the relationship. For example, in Chinese organisation, decision making power was more decentralized in manufacturing firms than in service organisations. The reverse was True in British firms, with power being more decentralized in the service organisation than in the manufacturing firms.

Networks as power :

The existence of structural and situational power depends not only on access to information, resources and decision making, but also on the ability to get cooperation in carrying out tasks. Managers and departments that have connecting links with other individuals and departments in the organisation will be more powerful than those who don't have.

14.8 THE BASES OF POWER :

Etzioni identifies three basic resources of power namely,

- (a) coercion,
- (b) remunerative power, and
- (c) normative power.

Coercion means the ability to manipulate physical sanctions including physical chastisement, forcible detention, to deprive a person of food, sleep and other physiological needs. Force is therefore required in order to obtain compliance. Examples of such organisations include jails, detention centres, concentration camps, and some psychiatric hospitals

Remunerative power refers to the ability to manipulate material rewards and sanctions including salaries, wages, promotions and training. Utilitarian organisations engage in 'producing goods and services for sale in the market place. Material inducement is required to procure compliance.

Such organisations include factories, hotels and commercial enterprises. Normative power rests upon human need for approval and recognition. It refers to the ability to manipulate symbols including medals, gadgets, badges and certificates. Normative organisations are those whose mission is primarily idealistic or value- based. Such organisation include voluntary organisation and political groups, schools, universities and hospitals. The members of these organisations are highly committed.

According to Etzioni each form of power is associated with a particular form of involvement. Coercion is associated with alienation and hostility, remunerative power with calculative involvement and normative power with moral involvement. Another influential

contribution to the literature and power in organisations is French and Raven's typology of power.

14.9 USING POWER ETHICALLY :

To be considered ethical, power-related behaviour must meet three criteria :

- 1) Does the behavior produce a good outcome for people both inside and outside the organisation? If the power-related behaviour serves only the individual's self-interest and fails to help the organisation reach its goals, it is considered unethical.
- 2) Does the behaviour respect the rights of all parties? The question emphasizes the criterion of individual rights. Free speech, privacy, and the process are individual rights that are to be respected, and power-related behaviours that violate these rights are considered unethical.
- 3) Does the behaviour treat all parties equitable and fairly? This question represents the criterion of distributive justice. Power-related behaviour that treats one party arbitrarily or benefits one party at the expense of another is unethical

The Reaction to Power How do employees respond when managers use the different kinds of power? According to Herbert Kelman, three distinctly different types of reactions are likely to occur as people respond to attempts to influence their behavior. They are compliance, identification, and internalization.

Compliance ensues when people conform to the wishes or directives of others so as to acquire favorable outcomes for themselves in return. They adopt new attitudes and behaviors not because they agree with the orders. They obey it just because they can get some rewards or avoid some punishments. As long as the rewards or punishment still exist, they will still obey the rules.

Identification occurs when people accept the direction or influence of others because they identify with the power holders and seek to maintain relationships with them—not because they value or even agree with what they have been asked to do. I am your friend, so I do as you ask me to do because I still want to be your friend.

Internalization : people may adopt others' attitudes and behaviors because this course of action satisfies their personal needs or because they find those attitudes and behaviors to be congruent with their own personal values. In either case, they accept the power holders' influence wholeheartedly.

Above all the types of power reward power, coercive power, process power, information power and representative power will lead to compliance, legitimate power, expert power, rational

persuasion will lead to internalization, referent power will lead to identification. Using Power Behavior A Manager or leader uses power by several methods.

- 1) Legitimate request The manager requests that the subordinate comply because the subordinate recognizes that the organisation has given the manager the right to make the request. Most day to day interactions between manager and subordinate are of this type.
- 2) Instrumental compliance It is based on the reinforcement theory of motivation. In this form of exchange, subordinate complies to get the reward the manager controls. Suppose that a manager asks a subordinate to do something outside the range of subordinate's normal duties, such as working extra hours. The subordinate complies and as a direct result reaps praise and a bonus from the manager.
- 3) Coercion A manager is using coercion when she suggests or implies that the subordinate will be punished, fired or warned if he does not do something.
- 4) Rational persuasion It occurs when the manager can convince the subordinate that compliance is in the subordinate's best interests. For example, a manager might argue that the subordinate should accept a transfer because it would be good for the subordinate's career.
- 5) Personal identification A manager who recognises that he has referent power over a subordinate can shape the behaviour of that subordinate by engaging in desired behaviours. The manager consciously becomes as model for the subordinate and exploits personal identification. Sometimes a manager can induce to do something consistent with a set of higher ideals or values through inspirational appeal.
- 6) Information distortion The manager withholds or distorts information to influence subordinates behaviour. For example, if a manager has agreed to allow everyone to participate in choosing a new group member but subsequently finds one individual whom he really prefers, he might withhold some of the credentials of other qualified applicants so that the desired member is selected. This use of power is dangerous. It may be unethical, and if the subordinates find out that the manager has deliberately mislead them, they will lose their confidence in the manager.

14.10 INDIVIDUAL VS. ORGANISATIONAL POWER :

Power is the ability to exert influence in the company beyond authority. Managers get power both from organisational and individual sources. They derive organisational power by virtue of their position in the company. On an individual basis, the manager has personal power which is based on his expertise and his power to control behaviour. A supervisor's individual power may include job knowledge, personal influence, interpersonal skills and ability to get results, empathetic ability, persuasive ability and physical strength.

Information power is based upon persuasiveness or content of a communication and is independent of the influencing individual. Managers who are good communicators are able to persuade the subordinate to accept an unpopular task.

In order to keep leadership position and maintain stability in employment managers need to enhance their personal power. One way is to continue to upgrade their expertise and knowledge.

Develop a likeable personality, dress professionally, and make friends with in their division and outside because the help from many people may be needed in future.

Managers should be aware of the strategies for exercising influence as influence leads to more power. Some common strategies include using facts to support a logical argument. Use flattery, praises, and goodwill to win friends both inside and outside the workplace.

They need to have friends among the higher authority who can help them to enhance their authority and to adopt their recommendations. Such friends are a great asset to their long term survival in the company. Enhancing and maintaining power and authority does not come naturally.

Resistance occurs when the influence target does not wish to comply with the request and either passively or actively repels the influence attempt. Compliance occurs when the target does not necessarily want to obey, but they do. Commitment occurs when the target not only agrees to the request but also actively supports it as well. Within organizations, commitment helps to get things done, because others can help to keep initiatives alive long after compliant changes have been made or resistance has been overcome

14.11 THE DYNAMICS OF POWER :

Power is a part of the fabric of organisation. To appreciate the reality of organisations it is necessary to know something about the nature and dynamics of power in organizations

Informal Power: In theory an employee is allotted sufficient power to enable him to do his job, no more and no less. In practice people in organisations can acquire power beyond what their formal role might suggest. Power without authority is sometimes known as illegitimate or informal power. Informal power arises because organisations cannot legislate for every contingency.

Organisational rules specify what employees can or cannot do in particular circumstances. For example, financial regulations may stipulate which office holders have authority to sign cheques or enter into contracts. Yet in every organisation there is inevitably room to exercise discretion.

Discretion means that a person has the option of acting differently. Indeed without it the organisation would run into difficulties. Power relations are inherently dynamic and apt to change over time. For instance, if rewards are administered regularly they may be regarded as coercion because of the threat of withdrawal. Informal power is usually legitimated in time. Any source or person who is regularly consulted becomes an authority.

14.11.1 Resistance in Organisations :

The impetus to resistance in organisations stems from the potential for tension between organisational and individual interest. What is good for the organisation may be detrimental to its employees and vice versa. One form of resistance is where employees try to escape managerial domination by 'distancing' themselves physically or symbolically from those in control, Another form of resistance involves demand for greater involvement in participative decision-making and implementation in the organisation. The dynamics of power can be studied from several angles, viz., distribution, dependency, uncertainty, compliance, indicators, power determinants, power consequences, and symbols and reputation.

14.11.2 Distribution

There is no rational in the distribution of power among organisational members. Some may yield more power than others. Often, the power wielded by one member may be disproportionate to the organisational position he holds.”

Those in power try to grab more of it. They strongly resist any attempt to weaken the power they wielded.

An individual cannot have power at all places and at all times. He may be forced to forgo his power or he may be stripped of it. He resists attempts to weaken his power, in the event of failure he will try to form coalition. There is strength in numbers. Dependency
As indicated earlier, power largely depends on dependency relationship. The greater X depends on Y, the greater the power of Y on X.

The greater the dependency of an organisation on a limited number of individuals, the greater the power these individuals enjoy,

A person who cannot be easily displaced enjoys more power than others whose services can be easily replaced

14.11.3 Uncertainty :

Organisations seek to avoid uncertainty as far as possible, People who can absorb uncertainty wield more power,

Uncertainty depends on the nature of the organisation. In a marketing firm, for instance, sales executives confront uncertainty and naturally wield more power.

14.11.3 Uncertainty :

Of all the types of power, People generally comply with legitimate power.

People perceive reward and coercive powers as weak for complying with manager's requests.

Power Indicators

1. It is difficult to tell when power is being used. Those who use power usually do not want others.
2. to know about it. Indeed, power is most effective when it is not visible.
3. People tend to resist the use of power when they see themselves being influenced in a way that is contrary to their own desires.
4. Individuals who are using power frequently fail to recognise what they are doing. They honestly feel that they are exerting rational influence that can be justified for legitimate reasons other than their personal wishes. They sincerely think their influence is rational rather than political.

14.12 DETERMINANTS OF POWER :

1. One method of assessing power focuses on the potential to exert influence and consists of measuring how many determinants of power are available to each member.
2. These are five bases of personal power. One of the bases of power is expertise. Individuals who possess better knowledge and expertise can exert higher influence in situations where their knowledge is important. Consequences of Power
3. Since power is used to influence decision, those with the greatest power should be the ones who obtain the most favourable outcomes.
4. The relationship between power and consequences needs to be interpreted carefully, It is also important to distinguish between the ability to influence a situation and the ability to force at
5. what would have occurred at any event.

14.12.1 Symbols :

The power of different individuals can be assessed by examining how many symbols of power they possess.

- Symbols include such things as titles, office size and location, special parking privileges, special eating facilities, automobiles, airplanes, and office furnishings.
- The location of offices on different floors often reflect the relative power of the office-holders.

14.2.2 Reputation :

- One way of assessing power in an organisation is to ask its members to possess greater power or exert the greatest influence . However, potential activities of the most powerful and influential individuals may be understated or overlooked both by themselves and others.
- Another way of assessing power is to determine which individuals and groups are the most heavily represented on committees and other significant administrative position

Why Are Organisations Political

In theory, politics have no place in organisations. Organisations are supposedly rational entities engaged in the pursuit of particular goals. Also the decisions are based upon the principle of optimum utility. However, in reality organisations are typically composed of different sub-units/departments espousing different cultures, different outlooks and priorities. Decisions are often surrounded by considerable uncertainty.

The importance of the political aspects of power comes to the forefront in the realistic view of organisations. Organisations, particularly large ones, are like governments in that they are fundamentally political entities. To understand them, one needs to understand organisational politics, just as to understand governments, one needs to understand governmental politics

Political Perspective of Organisations

If everyone in an organisation agree all the time, there will be no politics. In other words, the potential for political activity arises wherever disagreement exists. One factor which can prompt disagreement is diversity. Some units in an organisation are more powerful than others and each may have different goals. For example, software engineers may want to provide the organisation with a highly sophisticated and technologically advanced IT system. On the other hand, line managers may simply want a design which enables them to communicate with one another.

Scarcity can prompt political activity if there are competing claims upon resources. For example, the scope for conflict exists where department A requires twenty additional items and department B the same number, but the budget is allocated only for twenty.

A central feature of politics is the notion of interest. Interests are defined as positions which people wish to protect or goals they seek to achieve (Miller 1962). If no one cares whether company A is awarded a contract for supplies in preference to company B, then there is no disagreement about the matter and potentiality, no politics. Even in such a matter like celebration of a festival, politics plays its role in its choosing, fixing the date, time and place. Interests may be classified into

- (a) task interests,
- (b) external interests, and
- (c) career interests

Task interests concern an individual's work in the organisation. For instance, a hospital manager's interest would be to discharge patients as quickly as possible. On the contrary, a medical consultant's interest would be to continue to allow the patients to remain in hospital.

External interests include domestic pressures, obligations to professional associations and trade unions, and relationships with subcontractors, suppliers and customers. For instance, obligations to a trade union may compel an employer to recruit people from a particular locality or language.

Career interests can prompt to resist change or to support decisions which are against an organisation's best interests. For instance, managers may appoint mediocre candidates to subordinate positions in order to protect themselves from challenge.

Politics as a means of resolving conflicting Interest

Organisations can be seen as political cauldrons where argument, compromise and negotiation occur constantly (Morgan 1996). Conflict requires resolution. Politics can be seen as the means whereby conflict is resolved.

Politics, according to Aristotle, involves recognizing the interplay of competing interest. Politics is a non-coercive means of producing order out of diversity (Crick 1976). In the words of Lasswell (1963), politics, not economics determines who gets what, when and how in organisations. There is no political activity in a dictatorship because disagreement is not permitted

Influence the Decision Making and Process

Organisations can be seen as decision making systems. The decision making process in the epicentre of political activity. Hence people frequently try to influence the decisions making process. In theory, decision makers gather all the relevant data about a particular option and analyse it extensively. In practice, the information which decision makers receive maybe highly processed and carefully presented. As organisations grew larger, skills became increasingly fragmented and specialized, and positions became more functionally differentiated. Strategies

were developed to steer a common path for the organisation by centralising power. Knowledge is divided between that which is more valued (mental rather than manual) and that which is less valued. Implicit in these distinctions is the notion of contemporary organisation and design.

Some jobs have been designated as supervisory and managerial, while other posts exist simply to execute orders from superiors. Hence power is structured into organisation design.

An approach to the way in which power is structured into organisation design has been derived from the work on class structures (Clegg and Dunkerley). Marx argued that class interests are structurally predetermined irrespective of other bases of identity. They follow from the relations concerning the ownership and control of the means of production. Power has typically been seen as the ability to get others to do what you want them to, if necessary against their will (Weber).

Weber acknowledged that power was derived from owning and controlling the means of production but differed with Marx's categorization of ownership and non-ownership of the means of production. From Weber's perspective, power also derived from the knowledge of operations as much as from ownership

14.13 SUMMARY :

The concept of power refers to the capacity to change the behavior or attitudes of others in a desired manner. In organisation, power derives from structure, i.e., the division of labour and communication system. Sources of power stem from interpersonal and structural factors in an organisation. Interpersonal power sources can be categorized as reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, expert power, and referent power. Structural power differences stem from unequal access to information, resources, decision making, and networks with others. Knowledge is an important source of power in organisations. The dynamics of power can be perceived from different dimensions. People in organisation can acquire power informally because organisations cannot legislate for everything. Executives can use power and authority in many different, concrete and symbolic ways. However, effective and really powerful executives tend to use power in a manner which contributes to organisational development. Politics play a crucial role in organisational behaviour. The essence of politics lies in disagreement, diversity, scarcity, and interest. Politics provides a noncoercive means of resolving conflicting interest, of producing order out of diversity. Power and politics are closely linked. Organisational decision processes can be the focus of intense political activity. People use political tactics in organisations for (a) obtaining control of financial resources, creating resource dependence, (b) influencing the decision process, (c) unobtrusive measures, and (d) coalition building. Symbols play an important role in politics because they are a subtle means of exercising power. Individual and group interests also play a pivotal role in politics. Political competence may be as important to executives as technical skills

14.14 KEY WORDS :

Power : The ability, to influence people or things, usually obtained through the control of important resources.

Reward power : It is the individual's ability to influence others' behaviour by rewarding their desirable behavior.

Coercive power : An individual's ability to influence others' behaviour by means of punishment for undesirable behaviour.

Legitimate power : Most often refers to a manager's ability to influence subordinates' behaviour because of the manager's position in the organisational hierarchy.

Expert power : An individual's ability to influence others' behaviour because of recognized skills, talents, or specialised knowledge.

Referent power : An individual's ability to influence others' behaviour as a result of being liked or admired.

14.15 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

- 1) Distinguish between power, authority and influence.
- 2) Argue for and against the statement: "The use of power in organisations is unethical."
- 3) Compare and contrast interpersonal and structural resources of power in organisations.
- 4) Define political behaviour. What are some of the factors that can contribute to organisational politics?

14.16 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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2. Luthans: Organizational Behavior, Tenth Edition, 2005, McGraw-Hill
3. Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn: Organizational Behavior, 9th Edition, 2005, Wiley
4. Newstrom: Organizational Behavior-Human Behavior at Work, 12th Edition, 2007, Tata McGraw Hill
5. Rollinson: Organisational Behaviour and Analysis-An Integrated Approach, 3rd Edition, 2005, Pearson

6. McShane, Glinow & Sharma: Organizational Behavior, 3rd Edition, 2006, Tata McGraw Hill
7. Greenberg & Baron: Behavior in Organizations, 8th Edition, 2005, Pearson
8. Buchanan & Huczynski: Organizational Behaviour-An Introductory Text, 5th Edition, 2004, Prentice Hall
9. Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H. and Johnson, D.E: Management of Organizational Behavior-Leading Human Resources, 8th Edition, 2006, Pearson Education

Dr. M. Rama Satyanarayana

LESSON - 15
WORK TEAMS AND GROUP DYNAMICS

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To Learn the stages of Group Dynamics
- ✓ To Understand the classification of Group
- ✓ To Know the Characteristics of group
- ✓ To Discuss the Historical Perspective of group

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Stages of Group Dynamics
 - 15.2.1 Forming
 - 15.2.2 Storming
 - 15.2.3 Norming
 - 15.2.4 Performing
- 15.3 Classification of group
 - 15.3.1 Primary and Secondary Group
 - 15.3.2 Organized and Unorganized Group
 - 15.3.3 "Out Group" or "They Group"
 - 15.3.4 Accidental and Purposive Group
- 15.4 Characteristics of a Group
- 15.5 Effect of Forces on Individual Behaviour
- 15.6 Historical Perspective
- 15.7 The Field Theoretical Approach
- 15.8 The Factor Analysis Approach
- 15.9 The Formal Organization Approach
- 15.10 The Sociometric Approach
- 15.11 The Interaction Analysis Approach
- 15.12 The Psychoanalytic Approach
- 15.13 The Social Group Work Approach

- 15.14 The Modern Era
- 15.15 Group Functions
- 15.16 Group Cohesiveness
- 15.17 Teams
- 15.18 Transactional Analysis: First Order Structural Model
- 15.19 Joseph Luft's Johari Window:
- 15.20 Summary
- 15.21 Key words
- 15.22 Self Assessment Questions
- 15.23 Suggested Readings

15.1 INTRODUCTION :

Group A group is when "two or more people share a common definition and evaluation of themselves and behave in accordance with such a definition." (Vaughan & Hogg, 2002, Page 200).

Another way to explain a group is that "it is collection of people who interact with one another, accept rights and obligations as members and who share a common identity".

"A group is any collection of human beings who are brought into social relationship with one another". (Maclver).

Definitions :

Sheriff and Sheriff explain :

"A group is a social unit which consists of a number of individual who stand in definite status and role relationship to one another and which posses a set of values or norms of its own regulating the behaviour of individual members at least in matters of consequence to the group".

Green et.al defined a group as an "aggregate of individual which persists in time, which has one or more interests and activities in common and which is organized".

In other words a group is formed when collection of people lead to a common GOAL. group". Green et.al defined a group as an "aggregate of individual which persists in time, which has one or more interests and activities in common and which is organized". In other words a group is formed when collection of people lead to a common GOAL. Group Dynamics In the most basic sense

"Group Dynamics" refers to the complex forces that are acting upon every group throughout its existence which cause it to behave the way it does. The group will have a name

for example, Nurse administrators. It would have its constitution - all the ward sisters, departmental sisters, assistant nursing superintendents and nursing director. It would have the ultimate purpose - to improve the patient care (as for the example given above). A group will also have dynamics - it is always moving, doing something, changing, interacting and reacting.

The interaction of these forces and their resultant effects on a given group constitute its dynamics. Stages of Group Development It is common to view the development of group as having four stages:

15.2 STAGES OF GROUP DYNAMICS :

Forming

Storming

Norming

Performing

15.2.1 Forming :

Forming is the stage when the group first comes together. Everybody is very polite and very dull. Conflict is seldom voiced directly, mainly personal and definitely destructive. Since the grouping is new, the individuals will be guarded in their own opinions and generally reserved. This is particularly so in terms of the more nervous and/or-subordinate members who may never recover. The group tends to defer -to a large extent to those who emerge as leaders (poor fools!).

15.2.2 Storming :

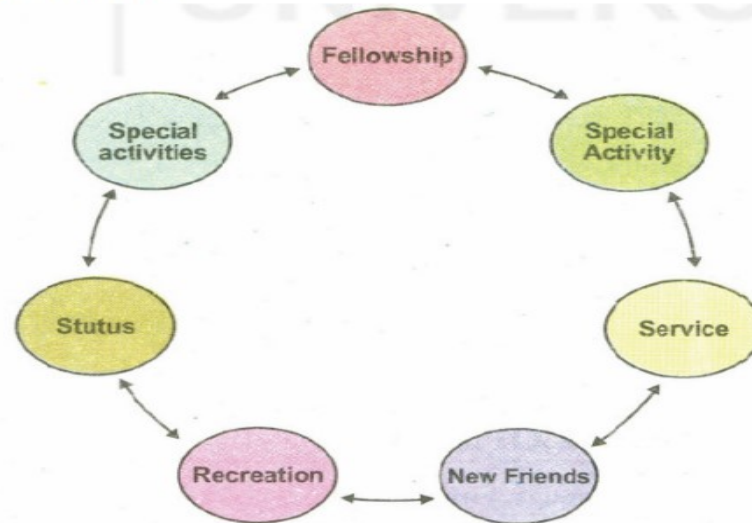
Storming is the next stage, when "all Hell breaks loose" and the leaders are questioned. Factions form personalities clash, no-one concedes a single point without first fighting tooth and nail. Most importantly, very little communication occurs since no one is listening and some are still unwilling to talk openly. True, this battle ground may seem a little extreme for the groups to which you belong - but if you look beneath the veil of civility picture come more into focus.

15.2.3 Norming :

At this stage the sub-groups begin to recognize the merits of working together and the in-fighting subsides. Since a new spirit of cooperation is evident, every member begins to feel secure in expressing their own viewpoints and these are discussed openly with the whole group. The most significant improvement is that people start to listen to each other. Work methods become established and recognised by the group as a whole.

15.2.4 Performing :

This is the culmination, when the group has settled on a system which allows free and frank exchange of views and a high degree of support by the group for each other and its own decisions.

Basis of Group Formation

However, there are three general basis for group formation, Group Dynamics

Familistic

Ties of kinship, also out of these ties which are considered as important, how large are such groups and what are their functions. How these groups differ from one society to another.

Spatial

These groups are based upon persons having a common place or area from "our town" from "our country" "our profession".

Special Interest

These groups are formed on the basis of special interest. Common recreation, music groups, religious prayer group. These groups are not based on kinship.

Reasons for Group Affiliation

The group are joined due to various reasons Some join a group to enhance their status other join because of value placed on service like joining a group on HIV/ AIDS counselling. The cause would be social Some join groups for contacts and financial gains Other join for personal gain motivation Some join because of tradition of family Some join because all their friends belong to the group and being a member of the group is a way to be with their friends.

15.3 CLASSIFICATION OF GROUP :

The groups can be classified into a number of ways and each individual may belong to many groups. The individual may be a member of a family, club, work group, world, state, country, community, village, political party, ethnic group or international organization. Cooley has classified group into two :

15.3.1 Primary and Secondary Group :

Primary Groups are characterized by intimate face-to-face association and cooperation. They are primary in several senses but chiefly they are fundamental in forming the social nature and ideas of the individual. Secondary Groups are those in which the individuals are not in direct contact. The members of secondary groups influence each other in an indirect manner and through the various agencies. Groups are also formed according to the degree of organization :

15.3.2 Organized and Unorganized Group :

In organized groups the members believe in cooperation, work as a unit and try to accommodate each other. They remain bound with specific discipline and so their moral level is usually high. The unorganized groups are unstable and are formed without having any specific purpose and goal before them. The members of such group have no attraction for each other and do not work for the group as a whole, the crowd, the strikers, etc. In Group and Outgoing All the members of 'in group' are 'we group' have usually common ideals, morals and code of conduct. There is a fellow feeling among its members. Group may be primary or secondary.

15.3.3 "Out Group" or "They Group" :

These groups are an association of persons toward whom we feel a sense of avoidance, dislike or opposition. Examples of out groups are the race, national or religion. Small or Large Group Small groups are formed on the basis of already existing groups are known as minor groups. Large groups are the groups in which the individual becomes a member as soon as s/he is born, known as major groups. For example, a child becomes a member of his family, society and nation.

15.3.4 Accidental and Purposive Group :

Accidental groups are those which are formed incidentally at the spur of the moment. For example, passengers sitting in a bus may form a group to catch hold of a pick pocket. Once the person is handed over to the police the group may disintegrate. Purposive Group is the one when a group is formed having a definite purpose i.e. religious groups, associations, political parties.

15.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF A GROUP :

Reciprocal relations - the member of a group are interrelated to each other, a gathering of person forms a social group only when they are interrelated.

Sense of unity - the member of a group are united by a sense of unity and a feeling of sympathy.

We feeling - the members of a group help each other and define their interest collectively.

Common interest - the interest and ideas of a group are common, it is for the realization of common interest that they meet together.

Similar behaviour - the group of member behave in a similar way for the pursuit of common interest.

Group norms - every group has its own norm or rules which the members are 'supposed to follow.

Group structure or formation of group structure - when individuals with common motives interact with each others for a fairly long time, then a group structure will emerge.

Clarity or vagueness of social definitions of membership in the group - groups differ widely in the degree of distinctness with which membership can be defined ranging from some informal groups within distinct boundaries which can only be identified through systematic inquiry to those with clear cut and formalized processes of admission to membership. The group may have clearly defined and easily recognized criteria of membership.

Degree of engagement of members in the group - this properly refers to the scope and intensity of the involvement of members in the group.

Actual duration of membership in the group - how long you have been member of the group. Expected duration of membership in the group - although these two properties can vary independently they are related and can be considered jointly, they refer respectively to the actual duration of membership in the group and to the patterned expectation of impending duration.

System of Normatic Controls: This propriety refers to patterned processes of normative control which regulate the behaviour of members of the groups

Associational Forces

Associational forces are certain invisible factors which influence the behaviour of an individual. These factors may be the geographical habitation, professional affiliation, family intluence, neighborhood, religious belief and existing customs and traditions. So every time an individual resounds to his environment, these forces pressurize him/her to act in a certain way. Hence, the individual acts accordingly, because s/he is guided by the feeling that he is being judged by these reference groups as per their laid down standards, values, goals and norms.

Goals and Ideology Forces

Forces from goals and ideologies are an individual's own goals, standards and values laid down by himself, based on individual's perception of self image and self ideal. These forces further grow with gradual influence of other factors in life. If a situation permits an individual to be himself herself, his/her behaviour will be normal,' constructive and creative according to his/her capabilities. On the contrary, being under pressure and stress individual may fail to achieve what is desired and is likely to become a problematic person.

15.5 EFFECT OF FORCES ON INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR :

The member of many groups in a hospital. Her individual behaviour has an effect on the efficacy of the group in which she may be a leader or a member. If a nurse has had a warm relationship with her parents, family members and friends, she will be warm and cooperative to her seniors, colleagues and patients. Due to the past experiences one tend to respond to similar situations in consistent ways. The personality tendencies (valencies) especially relevant to group behaviour include fight, flight, pairing and dependency. A nurse having valency to fight has hostile behaviour towards her patients, juniors, seniors and subordinates. Having strong valency of flight, she always tends to avoid unpleasant or interactive situations. A nurse with valency for pairing expresses warmth and establishes measured and balanced relationship with her clients, subordinates, seniors, etc. On the other hand a nurse with valency for dependence, cannot take independent decisions in patient care and' always requires support and direction from others.

A nurse who understands the forces based on psychological needs can help a patient to adjust to his newly diagnosed illness in a better way by understanding his reaction to illness positively and constructively rather than with irritation and rejection.

15.6 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE :

The group has always been an important means for the accomplishment of human purposes. First in the family, then the clan, the tribe, the guild, the community and the state, groups have been used as instruments of government, work, fighting, worship, recreation, and education. Very early in this historical development men began to discover by trial and error that certain ways of doing things in groups worked better than others, and so a body of folk wisdom began to accumulate regarding the selection of leaders, the division of labor, procedures for making decisions, and other group techniques. It is natural that in an era of struggle against natural and human enemies the major concern was with assuring disciplined subserviability of group members to work together creatively and co-operatively.

One of the most influential lines of thought was developed by the French sociologists, Emile Durkheim, around the turn of the century. He became especially interested in the process of interaction and theorized that individual ideas are alerted in the process of “psyche-social synthesis” that goes on in groups, and that thus a group product emerges that cannot be explained in terms of individual mental processes.

15.7 THE FIELD THEORETICAL APPROACH :

The foundation for a “field theory” of group behavior was laid by Kurt Lewin, who came to the united States in 1932 as a visiting lecturer at Stanford and remained when the Nazi coup made his return to Berlin impossible. In 1935 Lewin and a dedicated group of graduate students initiated a series if classical studies of group behavior at the University of Iowa’s Child Welfare Research Station. This group moved in the mid-forties to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology to form the Research Center for Group Dynamics. Within a year after Lewin’s death

in 1947 the Center moved again, this time to the University of Michigan. This Center has exerted a powerful influence on the study of group dynamics through its field theoretical approach.

Field theory, which has been so productive in physics, makes the assumption that a group at any point of time exists in a psychological field that operates not unlike an electromagnetic field in physics. This field consists of a number of forces (or variables) that are affecting the behavior of the group. The direction and relative strength of these forces determine the direction and speed of movement of the group. It is the task of the social scientist to develop techniques of observation and measurement that will enable him to analyze these forces and state the laws governing their operation.

According to Lewin :

What is important in field theory is the way the analysis proceeds. Instead of picking out one or another isolated element within a situation, the importance of which cannot be judged without consideration of the situation as a whole, field theory finds it advantageous, as a rule, to start with the characterization of the situation as a whole.

After this first approximation, the various aspects and parts of the situation undergo a more and more specific and detailed analysis. It is obvious that such a method is the best safeguard against being misled by one or another element of the situation.

Lewin felt that it was especially important to make mathematical presentations of psychological situations so as to assure strictness of logic, power of analysis, and conceptual precision. Accordingly, his writings and those of his followers are liberally sprinkled with mathematical formulae and geometric figures.

15.8 THE FACTOR ANALYSIS APPROACH :

Exemplified by the work of Raymond Cattell and his associates at the university of Illinois, this approach seeks to determine the major dimensions of groups by identifying their key elements. "That is to say," according to Cattell, "one would measure a large number of groups on a large number of attributes and determine a decidedly more limited number of independent dimensions by which any particular group in a given population of groups could be most economically and functionally defined" Cattell used the term "syntality" to define for the group what "personality" defines for the individual. He is especially concerned with the factors of energy, ability, and leadership.

15.9 THE FORMAL ORGANIZATION APPROACH :

Concerned primarily with developing a satisfactory conception of organization and an understanding of the nature of leadership in formal organizations, this approach dominated the research conducted over a period of years by the Ohio State University Leadership Studies staff headed by C. L. Shartle. Its techniques emphasize observations of interactions in organizational systems and detailed descriptions of the formal organizational structure of the system.

15.10 THE SOCIOMETRIC APPROACH :

Developed by the psychiatrist, J.L. Moreno, and his early associate, Helen Jennings, this approach focuses on the social aspects of group life, especially the emotional quality of the interpersonal relationships among group members. The method that lies at the heart of this approach is the sociometric test, in which the group members indicate which of the other group members they would choose or not choose as friends, partners, teammates, and the like, in particular situations. The development of the psychological structure of groups can be traced from data obtained from sociometric tests.

15.11 THE INTERACTION ANALYSIS APPROACH :

Pioneered by Robert F. Bales and his colleagues at the Harvard University Social Relations Laboratory, this approach asserts that the overt behavior of individuals in interaction with one another and their environment is the “ultimate stuff” of scientific study. Elaborate devices, including an electrically “interaction recorder,” and laboratory rooms with one-way windows so that groups can be observed without disturbance, have been invented for measuring interaction in small groups.

15.12 THE PSYCHOANALYTIC APPROACH :

The emotional – primarily unconscious – elements in the group process and their effects on personality growth are stressed in this approach. Its method consists chiefly of the analysis of carefully recorded experiences and case records. This approach deals largely, although by no means exclusively, with therapeutic groups.

15.13 THE SOCIAL GROUP WORK APPROACH :

This approach has traditionally consisted of the analysis of narrative records of group workers and the extracting of generalizations from series of case histories of groups. Social group work has been primarily concerned with personality development through group experience, although not in a therapeutic setting. Group workers have tended to be more interested in practice than in research to action-research “to ascertain the influence of the leader’s behavior and other conditions on the interaction within the group and on the personality development of its members.”

15.14 THE MODERN ERA :

The 1960’s and 1970’s have been a period of great ferment, expansion, and controversy in the field of group dynamics. Several trends have seemed to characterize this era. One distinct characteristic is the diffusion of research activity among a widening spectrum of institutions and disciplines. In 1959 we were able to list less than a dozen university research centers producing the bulk of the research reports.

By the 1970's behavioral scientists were investigating group phenomena in departments of psychology, sociology, education, social work, psychiatry, anthropology, business administration, and communications in scores of universities, as well as in corporations, government agencies, hospitals, mental health centers such as the Western Behavioral Sciences Institute in La Jolla, California.

Another major characteristic of the modern era is the explosive growth in the volume of technical literature. For example, in analyzing the frequency with which articles relevant to the study of small groups were published between 1900 and 1953,

A third characteristic of the modern era is the increasing attention being paid to the group dynamics movement and its offshoots by the popular mass media. We have personally seen articles—some of them sensationalized exposés, some of them serious attempts at interpretation. No doubt this is an incomplete list. There has been at least one full-length commercial movie portraying (caricaturing?) an encounter group and dozens of educational films. We have seen sensitivity training, or variations thereof, worked into a number of commercial television series and commercial, and National Educational Television had produced two series on the subject. Three books have reached, or come near, the bestseller lists: Joy: Expanding Human Awareness by William Schutz in 1967, Rasa Gustaitis' Turning On in 1969, and Jane Howard's Please Touch in 1970. We understand that human relations training has been both condemned by the John Birch Society and widely adopted in the leadership training manuals of many Christian denominations. Thanks to this attention from our popular sources of information, most Americans know that groups are "in" in our modern culture, although relatively few of them yet understand what this is all about.

A fourth characteristic of the last decade has been proliferation of uses of group techniques in education and training. Although group discussion has been a backbone technique of education since ancient times, the group dynamics movement spawned a wide variety of mutations of the species "group." Among the forms now appearing in the literature are

T-groups ("T" standing for "training"), encounter groups, marathon groups, sensitivity training, human relations laboratories, human potential centers, growth centers, gestalt therapy groups, sensory awareness groups, biodynamic, confluent education, micro labs, and organizational development programs. One or more of these forms of learning groups have been incorporated into the curriculums of many schools and colleges, the in-service education programs of government agencies and corporations, the leadership training programs of voluntary organizations, and the services of management consulting firms. Perhaps as many as two hundred privately operated "growth centers" have been established across the country (and the world) with group experiences that are open to the public for a fee. Group techniques are used extensively in mental health, drug addiction, and weight-control programs. If the 1970 census had asked how many people had been exposed to at least one of the above forms of group experience, our prediction is that the tally would have exceeded a million.

15.15 GROUP FUNCTIONS :

Once a group is formed it starts functioning towards attainment of goal or set objective. There are certain factors that influence the group functioning:

Internal Factors :

1. Status :

It is socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others-permeates every society. High status members of groups often are given more freedom to deviate from norms than are other group members. High status people tend to be more assertive. They speak out more often, criticise more, state more commands and interrupts others more often.

2. Roles :

By this term, we mean a set of expected behaviour patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit. When individual is confronted by divergent role expectations, the result is role conflict so role clarity is very important when it comes to smooth and efficient group functioning.

3. Norms :

They are acceptable standards of behaviour within a group that are shared by group members. Norms acts a means of influencing the behaviour of group members with a minimum of external controls. Norms differ among groups, communities, and societies, but they all have them.

4. Conformity :

It is adjusting ones behaviour to align with the norms of the group. Group pressure leads to conformity which in turn affects individual s judgement and attitude. As a member of a group, one desire acceptance by the group. Because of desire for acceptance conforming to the group norms occurs.

5. Size :

It affects group's behaviour. There are instances of smaller group being fast at completing tasks than large ones. But if a large group is involved in tasks like problem solving it will fare well better than small group.

6. Cohesiveness :

Cohesiveness is the degree to which members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in group. For example some work groups are cohesive because members have spent a great deal of time together or group's small size facilitates high interaction.

External Factors that influences group functioning are Authority, structure (of group or organization), Organizational resources, organizational policies, etc.

15.16 GROUP COHESIVENESS :

Groups differ in their cohesiveness that is the degree to which members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the group. For instance some work groups are cohesive because the members have spent a great deal of time together, or group's small sizes facilitate high interaction, or the group has experienced external threats that have brought members close together.

Cohesiveness is important as it is linked to group's productivity. Relationship between Group Cohesiveness and productivity can better be shown as :

HIGH		LOW
High productivity	Moderate productivity	LOW
Low productivity	Moderate to low productivity	HIGH

15.17 TEAMS :

Many people used the words team and group interchangeably, but there are actually a number of differences between a team and a group in real world applications.

A number of leadership courses designed for the corporate world stress the importance of team building, not group building, for instance. A team's strength depends on the commonality of purpose and interconnectivity between individual members, whereas a group's strength may come from sheer volume or willingness to carry out a single leader's commands.

It is often much easier to form a group than a team. If you had a room filled with professional accountants, for example, they could be grouped according to gender, experience, fields of expertise, age, or other common factors. Forming a group based on a certain commonality is not particularly difficult, although the effectiveness of the groups may be variable. A group's interpersonal dynamics can range from complete compatibility to complete intolerance, which could make consensus building very difficult for a leader.

A team, on the other hand, can be much more difficult to form. Members of a team may be selected for their complementary skills, not a single commonality. A business team may consist of an accountant, a salesman, a company executive and a secretary, for example. Each member of the team has a purpose and a function within that team, so the overall success

depends on a functional interpersonal dynamic. There is usually not as much room for conflict when working as a team.

The success of a group is often measured by its final results, not necessarily the process used to arrive at those results. A group may use equal parts discussion, argumentation and peer pressure to guide individual members towards a consensus. A trial jury would be a good example of a group in action, not a team. The foreperson plays the leadership role, attempting to turn other opinions into one unanimous decision. Since the jury members usually don't know one another personally, there is rarely an effort to build a team dynamic. The decision process for a verdict is the result of group cooperation.

A team, by comparison, does not rely on "groupthink" to arrive at its conclusions. An accident investigation team would be a good example of a realworld team dynamic. Each member of the team is assigned to evaluate one aspect of the accident. The team's expert on crash scene reconstruction does not have to consult with the team's expert on forensic evidence, for example. The members of a team use their individual abilities to arrive at a cohesive result. There may be a team member working as a facilitator for the process, but not necessarily a specific leader.

Difference between Team and Group

The purpose of assembling a team is to accomplish bigger goals than any that would be possible for the individual working alone. The aim and purpose of a team is to perform, get results and achieve victory in the workplace and marketplace. The very best managers are those who can gather together a group of individuals and mould them into a team. Here are ten key differentials to help you mould your people into a pro-active and productive team.

Understandings.

In a group, members think they are grouped together for administrative purposes only. Individuals sometimes cross purpose with others. In a team, members recognise their independence and understand both personal and team goals are best accomplished with mutual support. Time is not wasted struggling over "Turf" or attempting personal gain at the expense of others.

Ownership

In a group, members tend to focus on themselves because they are not sufficiently involved in planning the unit's objectives. They approach their job simply as a hired hand. "Castle Building" is common. In a team, members feel a sense of ownership for their jobs and unit, because they are committed to values-based common goals that they helped establish.

Creativity and Contribution

In a group, members are told what to do rather than being asked what the best approach

would be. Suggestions and creativity are not encouraged. In a team, members contribute to the organisation's success by applying their unique talents, knowledge and creativity to team objectives.

Trust

In a group, members distrust the motives of colleagues because they do not understand the role of other members. Expressions of opinion or disagreement are considered divisive or non-supportive. In a team, members work in a climate of trust and are encouraged to openly express ideas, opinions, disagreements and feelings. Questions are welcomed.

Common Understandings

In a group, members are so cautious about what they say, that real understanding is not possible. Game playing may occur and communication traps be set to catch the unwary. In a team, members practice open and honest communication. They make an effort to understand each other's point of view.

Personal Development

In a group, members receive good training but are limited in applying it to the job by the manager or other group members. In a team, members are encouraged to continually develop skills and apply what they learn on the job. They perceive they have the support of the team.

Conflict Resolution

In a group, members find themselves in conflict situations they do not know how to resolve. Their supervisor/leader may put off intervention until serious damage is done, i.e. a crisis situation. In a team, members realise conflict is a normal aspect of human interaction but they view such situations as an opportunity for new ideas and creativity. They work to resolve conflict quickly and constructively

Participative Decision Making

In a group, members may or may not participate in decisions affecting the team. Conformity often appears more important than positive results. Win/lose situations are common. In a team, members participate in decisions affecting the team but understand their leader must make a final ruling whenever the team cannot decide, or an emergency exists. Positive win/win results are the goal at all times.

Clear Leadership

In a group, members tend to work in an unstructured environment with undetermined standards of performance. Leaders do not walk the talk and tend to lead from behind a desk. In a team, members work in a structured environment, they know what boundaries exist and who has

final authority. The leader sets agreed high standards of performance and he/she is respected via active, willing participation. Commitment. In a group, members are uncommitted towards excellence and personal pride. Performance levels tend to be mediocre. Staff turnover is high because talented individuals quickly recognise that

- (a) Personal expectations are not being fulfilled
- (b) They are not learning and growing from others and
- (c) They are not working with the best people.

In a team, only those committed to excellence are hired.

Prospective team members are queuing at the door to be recruited on the basis of their high levels of hard and soft skill sets. Everyone works together in a harmonious environment.

Transactional Analysis

It is a social psychology and a method to improve communication. The theory outlines how we have developed and treat ourselves, how we relate and communicate with others, and offers suggestions and interventions which will enable us to change and grow. Transactional Analysis is underpinned by the philosophy that :

People can change

We all have a right to be in the world and be accepted Berne E.'s Transactional Analysis: IPC is a contractual approach: A contract is "an explicit bilateral commitment to a well-defined course of action" Which means that all parties need to agree :

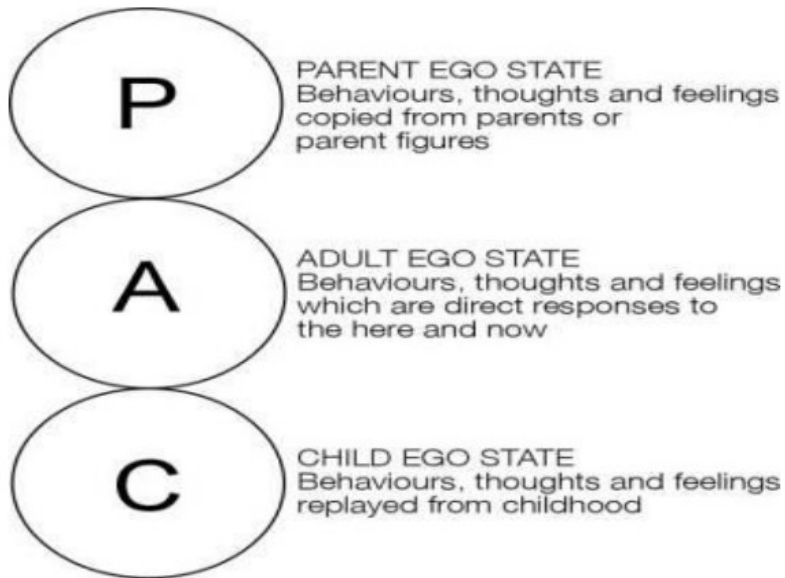
- why they want to do something
- with whom
- what they are going to do
- by when
- any fees, payment or exchanges there will be

15.18 TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS: FIRST ORDER STRUCTURAL MODEL :

Berne devised the concept of ego states to help explain how we are made up and how we relate to others. These are drawn as three stacked circles and they are one of the building blocks of

Transactional Analysis :

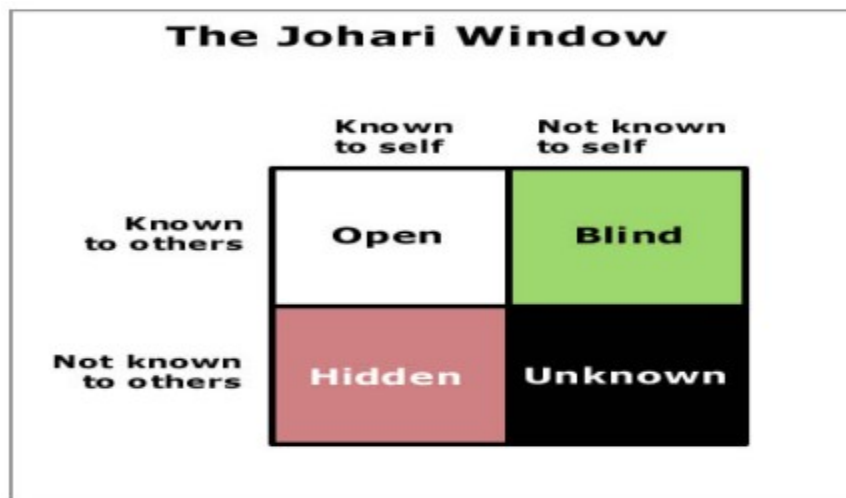
They categorize the ways we think, feel and behave and are called Parent, Adult, and Child. Each ego state is given a capital letter to denote the difference between actual parents, adults and children



15.19 JOSEPH LUFT'S JOHARI WINDOW :

Johari window is a concept model for self-awareness, personal development, group development and understanding relationship. This model is a simple and useful tool for understanding and training self-awareness, personal development, improving communications, interpersonal relationships, group dynamics, team development and intergroup relationships.

It is developed by American psychologists Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham in the 1950's, calling it 'Johari' after combining their first names, Joe and Harry.



The Four Johari Window Perspectives :

1. Open area, open self, free area, free self, or 'the arena': what is known by the person about him/herself and is also known by others .

2. Blind area, blind self, or 'blindspot': what is unknown by the person about him/herself but which others know.
3. Hidden area, hidden self, avoided area, avoided self or 'façade': what the person knows about him/herself that others do not know.
4. Unknown area or unknown self: what is unknown by the person about him/herself and is also unknown by others

Open self/area', 'free area', 'public area', 'arena':

- ✓ Information about the person - behaviour, attitude, feelings, emotion, knowledge, experience, skills, views, etc – known by the person ('the self') and known by the team ('others').
- ✓ The aim in any team is to develop the 'open area' for every person, because when we work in this area with others we are at our most effective and productive, and the team is at its most productive too
- ✓ The open free area, or 'the arena' - the space where good communications and cooperation occur, free from distractions, mistrust, confusion, conflict.

'Blind self' or 'blind area' or 'blindspot': what is known about a person by others in the group, but is unknown by the person him/herself
- ✓ Could also be referred to as ignorance about oneself, or issues in which one is deluded
- ✓ Not an effective or productive space for individuals or groups

15.20 SUMMARY :

Human being is a social animal. It is rare to know an individual living isolated. Individual's life is made up largely by participating in groups. An individual goes outside her/ his home during the day and works amongst the group members and returns in the evening for a common meal where members of the family relate their experiences. All human beings normally enter their first group - the family, at the moment of birth and in the course of life times. By and large one joins a profession and becomes a member of the group, like you are a member of nursing group.

15.21 KEY WORDS :

Group : Group as an "aggregate of individual which persists in time, which has one or more interests and activities in common and which is organized

Forming : Forming is the stage when the group first comes together. Everybody is very polite and very dull.

Storming : Storming is the next stage, when "all Hell breaks loose" and the leaders are questioned. Factions form personalities clash, no-one concedes a single point without first fighting tooth and nail

Norming : At this stage the sub-groups begin to recognize the merits of working together and the in-fighting subsides

Performing : This is the culmination, when the group has settled on a system which allows free and frank exchange of views and a high degree of support by the group for each other and its own decisions.

15.22 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Briefly explain the stages of group Dynamics
2. Discuss the Classification of groups
3. Describe the characteristics of group
4. Analyse the Historical Perspective of group?

15.23 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Robbins & Judge: Organizational Behavior, 12th Edition, 2007, PHI
2. Luthans: Organizational Behavior, Tenth Edition, 2005, McGraw-Hill
3. Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn: Organizational Behavior, 9th Edition, 2005, Wiley
4. Newstrom : Organizational Behavior-Human Behavior at Work, 12th Edition, 2007, Tata McGraw Hill
5. Rollinson: Organisational Behaviour and Analysis-An Integrated Approach, 3rd Edition, 2005, Pearson
6. McShane, Glinow & Sharma: Organizational Behavior, 3rd Edition, 2006, Tata McGraw Hill
7. Greenberg & Baron: Behavior in Organizations, 8th Edition, 2005, Pearson
8. Buchanan & Huczynski: Organizational Behaviour-An Introductory Text, 5th Edition, 2004, Prentice Hall
9. Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H. and Johnson, D.E: Management of Organizational Behavior-Leading Human Resources, 8th Edition, 2006, Pearson Education

Dr. M. Rama Satyanarayana

LESSON – 16

ORGANISATION STRUCTURE

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To Know the types of Organisation structure
- ✓ To Understand the factors affecting organisation structure

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Types of Organizational Structures
 - 16.2.1 Line Structure
 - 16.2.2 Line and Staff Structure
 - 16.2.3 Matrix Structure
 - 16.2.4 Team Structure
 - 16.2.5 Flat vs. Tall Structures
- 16.3 Factors Affecting Organizational Structure
 - 16.3.1 Size
 - 16.3.2 Type of Product or Service
 - 16.3.3 Organizing a Company into Departments
 - 16.3.4 Organizing Departments by Work Functions
 - 16.3.5 Finance includes accounting and credit.
 - 16.3.6 Organizing Departments by Product
- 16.4 Summary
- 16.5 Key words
- 16.6 Self Assessment Questions
- 16.7 Suggested Readings

16.1 INTRODUCTION :

Some organizations, such as a high school volunteer club, exist to help people in need. Other organizations, such as a student council, exist to give students a voice at school. Business organizations exist to earn profits. To meet their goals, they organize their employees into some kind of structure.

Companies adopt organizational structures in order to minimize confusion over job

expectations. Having an organizational structure helps them coordinate activities by clearly identifying which individuals are responsible for which tasks.

16.2 TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES :

Companies generally adopt one of four organizational structures.

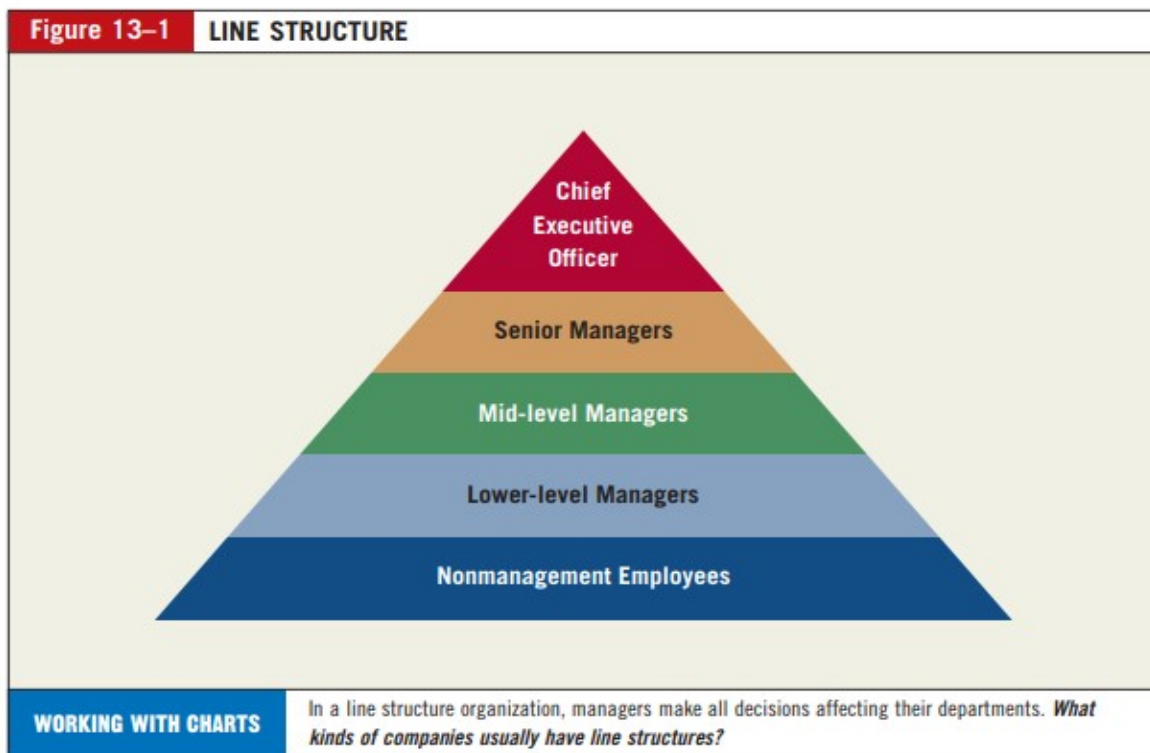
These include :

- line structure
- line and staff structure
- matrix structure
- team structure

Each of these different types of organizational structures can be shown in an organizational chart. An is a visual representation of a business's organizational structure. It shows who reports to whom within the company. It also shows what kind of work each department does.

16.2.1 Line Structure :

In a line organization, authority originates at the top and moves downward in a line. All managers perform, functions that contribute directly to company profits. Examples of line functions include production managers, sales representatives, and marketing managers



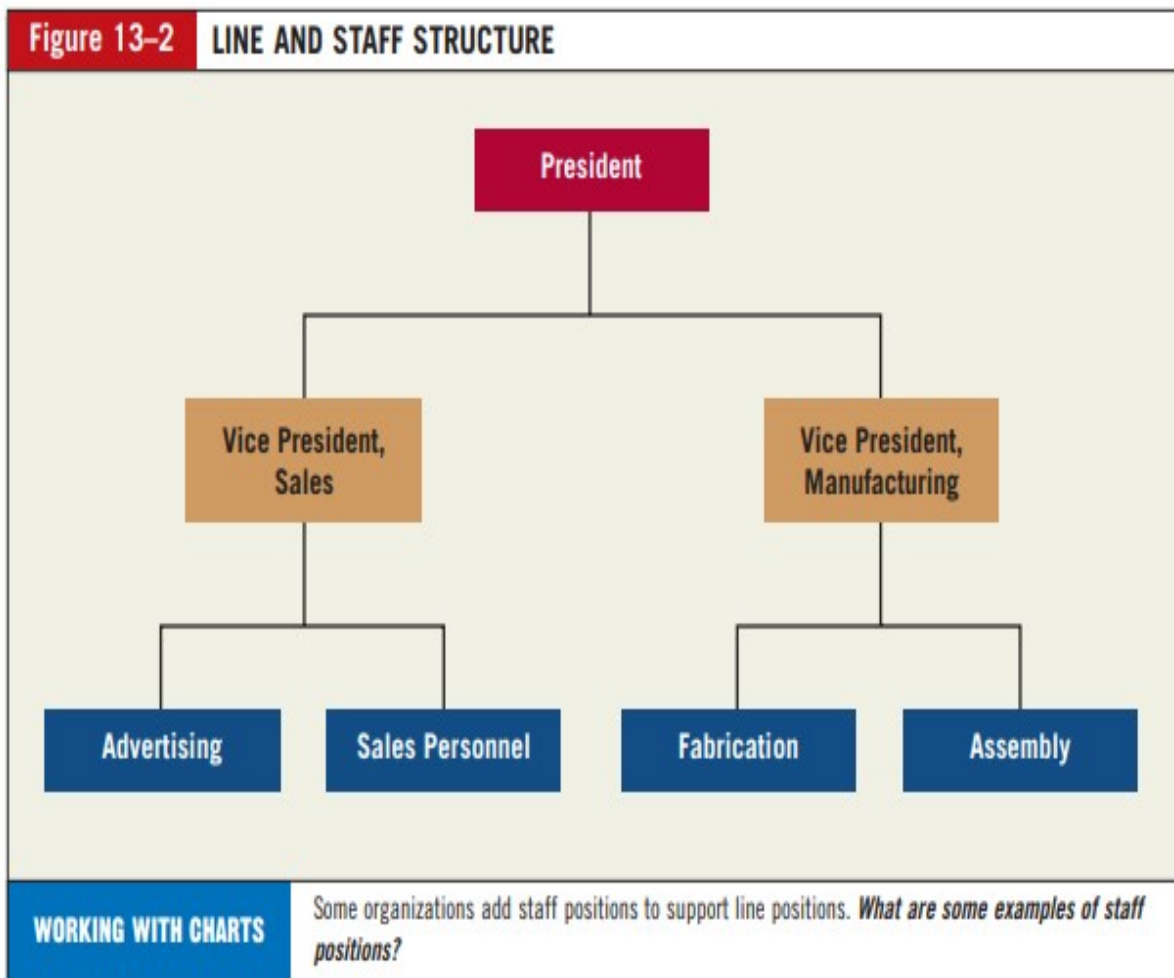
Line managers collect and analyze all of the information they need to carry out their responsibilities. Production managers, for example, hire and fire all of the assembly-line workers in their departments. They also order all of the supplies their department needs.

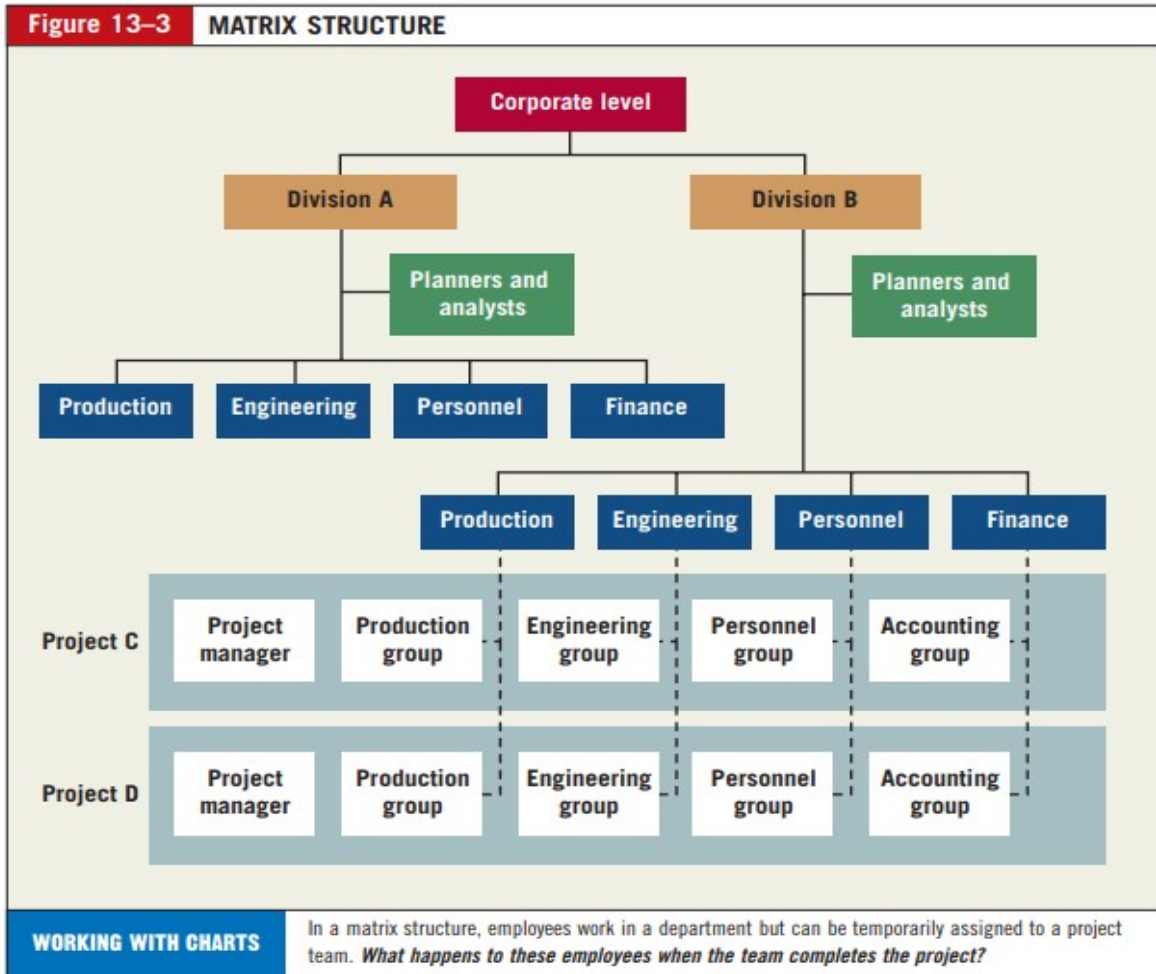
Line organizations are common among small businesses.

Larger companies usually require a different kind of organizational structure.

16.2.2 Line and Staff Structure :

In mid-sized and large companies, line managers cannot perform all of the activities they need to perform to run their departments. In these companies, other employees are hired to help line managers do their jobs. These employees perform staff functions advise and support line functions. Staff departments include the legal department, the human resources department, and the public relations department. These departments help the line departments do their jobs. They contribute only indirectly to corporate profits. Staff people are generally specialists in one field, and their authority is normally limited to making recommendations to line managers.





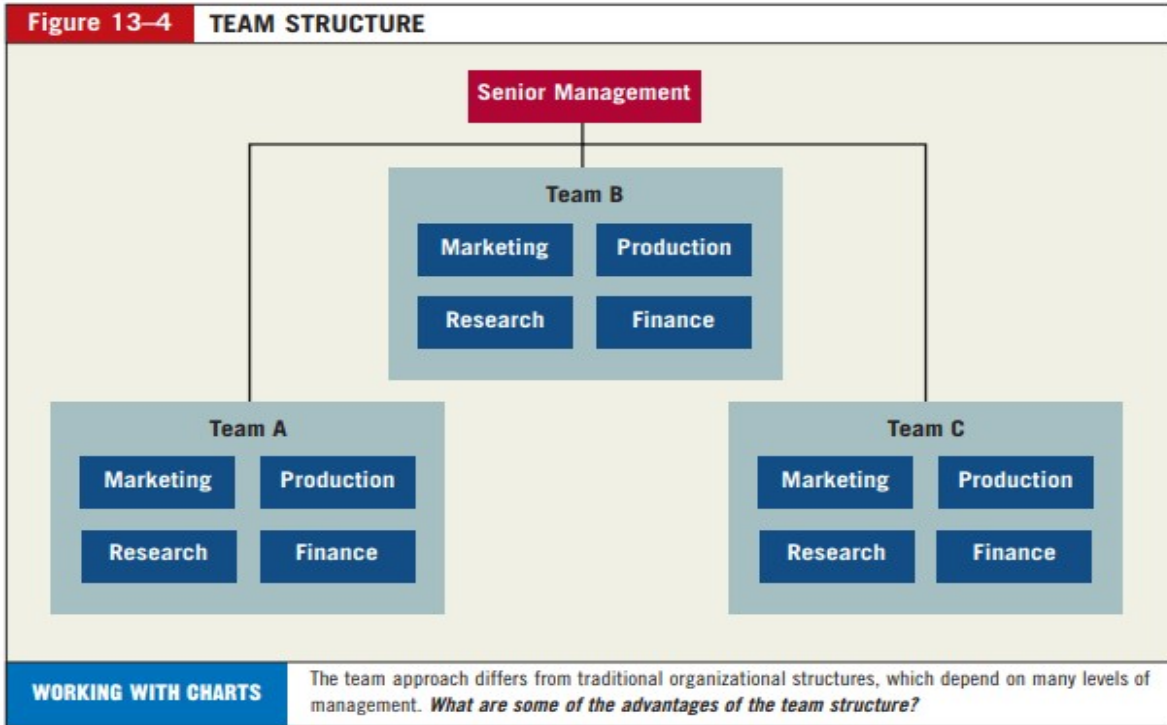
16.2.3 Matrix Structure :

A allows employees from different departments to come together temporarily to work on special project teams. The purpose of this kind of structure is to allow companies the flexibility to respond quickly to a customer need by creating a team of people who devote all of their time to a project. Once the team completes the project, the team members return to their departments or join a new project team.

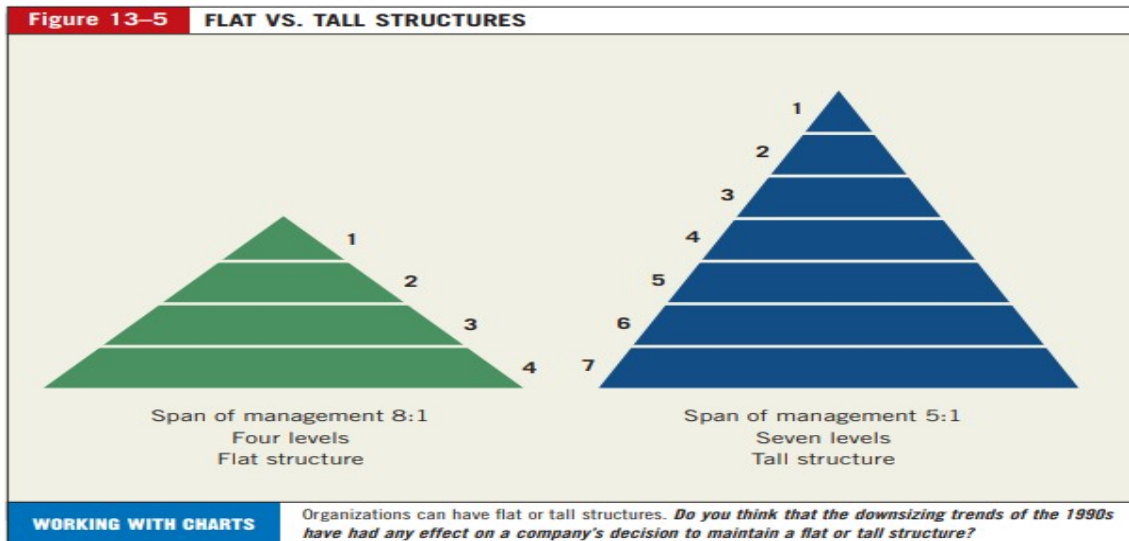
Companies that undertake very large projects often use the matrix structure. Boeing, for example, regularly assigns employees to project teams it creates to design new aircraft. Large high-tech firms also frequently use the matrix structure.

16.2.4 Team Structure :

‘Many companies have abandoned the line and staff approach to organizational structure in favor of the team approach. A brings together people with different skills in order to meet a particular objective. More and more companies are using the team structure. They believe this structure will allow them to meet customer needs more effectively than the traditional structure.



The team structure is very different from the traditional organizational structure. In the traditional structure, each level of management reports to a higher management level. In this kind of organization, senior managers need not approve decisions by lower-level managers. Instead, teams have the authority to make their own decisions. Employees often prefer the team structure because of its focus on completing a project rather than performing a particular task. One company that has successfully used teams is IBM. Beginning in 1990 the company introduced self-directed management teams that it organized around customer needs. Each team tries to determine what the customer is looking for and develop strategies with which to meet those needs. The approach helps the company respond quickly in competitive markets.



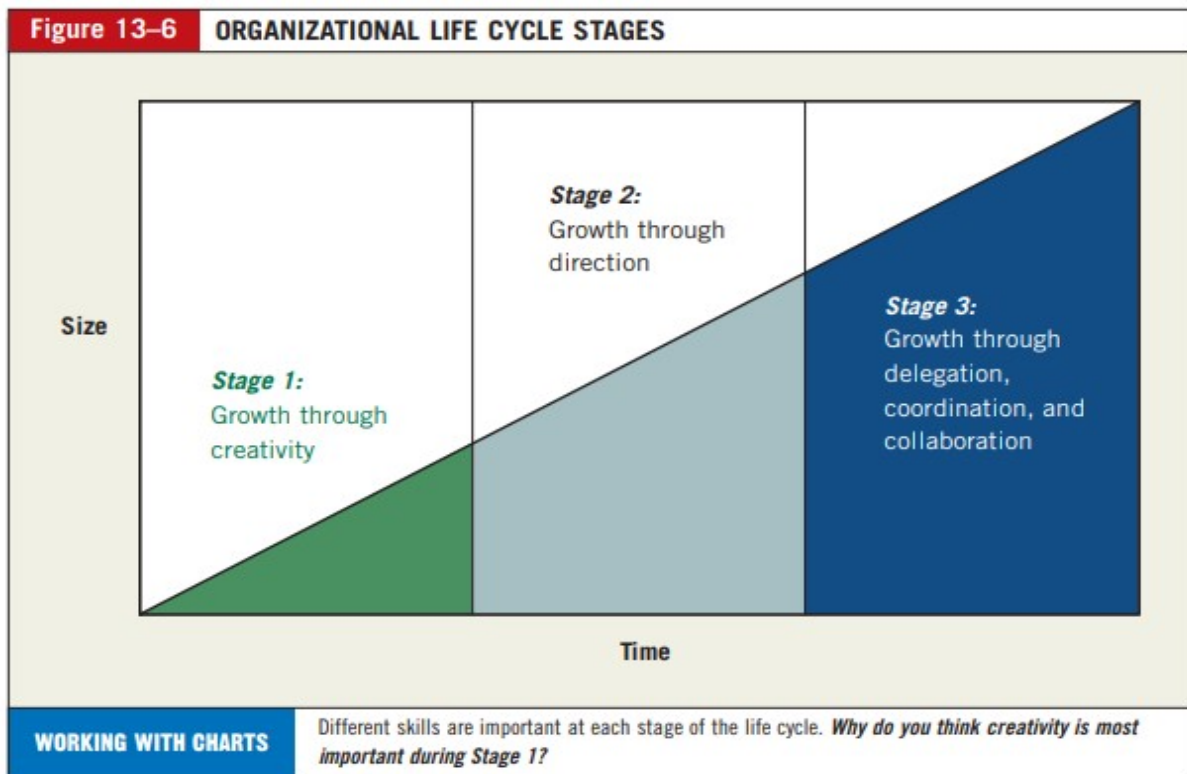
16.2.5 Flat vs. Tall Structures :

In the previous chapter we looked at the importance of a manager's span of management—the number of employees who report to a manager. In a similar fashion, organizations can be classified as being either tall or flat. A flat organization has a small number of levels and a broad span of management at each level. This calls for a good deal of delegation on the part of the manager. Employees have more power within the company. A tall organization has many levels with small spans of management. In this case, power is centralized on the top levels and there is more employee control. Figure 13–5 illustrates the breakdown of management levels that occur in a flat or a tall structure. Some advantages of a flat structure include greater job satisfaction, more delegation, and increased communication between levels of management. Some advantages of a tall structure are greater control and better performance.

16.3 FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE :

The organizational structure a company chooses depends on the nature of its business. A structure that is appropriate for a high-tech company that employs 50,000 people in eight countries will not be appropriate for a small retail business with just a dozen employees. Many factors affect the choice of organizational structure. The most important factors are the size of the business and the kinds of products or services it produces.

16.3.1 Size :



The size of a business has a very important effect on the organizational structure that a management adopts. Very small, single-person businesses need no organizational structure at all. Companies with only a few employees can also function well without a formal structure.

Once a business employs more than just a few employees, however, a formal structure is necessary. Moreover, for a business to be successful, its structure must change as the business continues to grow.

Typically, businesses go through three organizational life cycle stages. As Figure 13–6 shows, these stages include growth through creativity; growth through direction; and growth through delegation, coordination, and collaboration.

Stage 1: Growth Through Creativity

During the first stage of growth, entrepreneurs with new ideas create products or services for which there is a market. Their businesses tend to be small. They usually lack formal structures, policies, and objectives. The company founder is involved in every aspect of the business and makes all decisions.

During this stage of development, management skills are much less important than they are later on, because there are very few employees to manage. Having an idea that appeals to consumers is very important.

Stage 2: Growth Through Direction

Once a company grows, it enters the second stage of its growth cycle. During this stage, the company grows in size, and the company founder is no longer solely responsible for all decision making. Instead, the company relies on professional managers. The managers are responsible for various functions, including planning, organizing, and staffing. As a company grows, its managers usually create written policies, procedures, and plans. They establish rules and systems for hiring, firing, and rewarding employees. They set up systems for communicating information among employees. They set up financial controls, which determine how much each department can spend. Employees who once were able to make decisions spontaneously must now follow formal rules.

Stage 3: Growth Through Delegation

Sometimes a company's structure becomes too rigid, and decision making becomes too centralized. Lower-level employees feel left out of the decision-making process. Top executives find themselves too far removed from the customer to make good decisions. To deal with

STAGE 1

When a company is young, it depends heavily on creativity. Steven Jobs and Steve Wozniak were technical geniuses who had a brilliant idea for a userfriendly desktop computer. They turned this idea into a multimillion dollar company by introducing the Apple II computer in

the 1970s these problems, companies often move to the next stage of the organization life cycle, stage 3.

In stage 3, businesses delegate more responsibility to lower-level employees in an attempt to decentralize decision making. Delegating authority helps businesses in two ways. First, it motivates people at lower levels, whose jobs become more interesting. Second, it allows senior executives to devote more of their time to long-term management issues, such as what kinds of products their companies should offer five and ten years down the road.

As you can see, businesses grow for many reasons and in many different ways. illustrates the growth of one company through the three stages.

STAGE 2

As a company grows, it needs managers with excellent managerial skills. To continue to grow, in the 1980s Apple Computer replaced its co-founder, Steven Jobs, with a professional manager. The new chief executive officer, John Sculley, helped introduce the company's Macintosh computer

STAGE 3

In the third stage of the organizational life cycle, managers learn to delegate authority. In 1996 company founder Steven Jobs returned to Apple as interim chief executive officer in an effort to breathe new life into a company that had fallen on hard times. Apple's organizational structure allowed it to introduce several important products in the 1990s, including the iMac

16.3.2 Type of Product or Service :

The type of product or service a company produces is another important factor affecting its organizational structure. In general, the number of levels within an organization increases as the level of technical complexity increases. This means that a company that produces sophisticated electronic equipment is likely to have more levels of management than a company that produces garden tools. Companies that produce technically complicated products also are likely to have a larger percentage of managers and supervisors than companies that produce simpler products.

The president of a large water company that has 7,500 employees aptly summed up this relationship between product and organizational complexity. He noted, "We don't need more management than a toy store does." A company with just a few layers of management has a flat organizational structure.

16.3.3 Organizing a Company into Departments :

All but the smallest companies are organized into departments. These departments may be based on work functions, products, geography, or customers. General Electric has several

major divisions, including aircraft engines, consumer products, insurance, commercial finance, NBC, and Power Systems. A senior manager heads each of these divisions.

16.3.4 Organizing Departments by Work Functions :

Some businesses organize their departments by function.

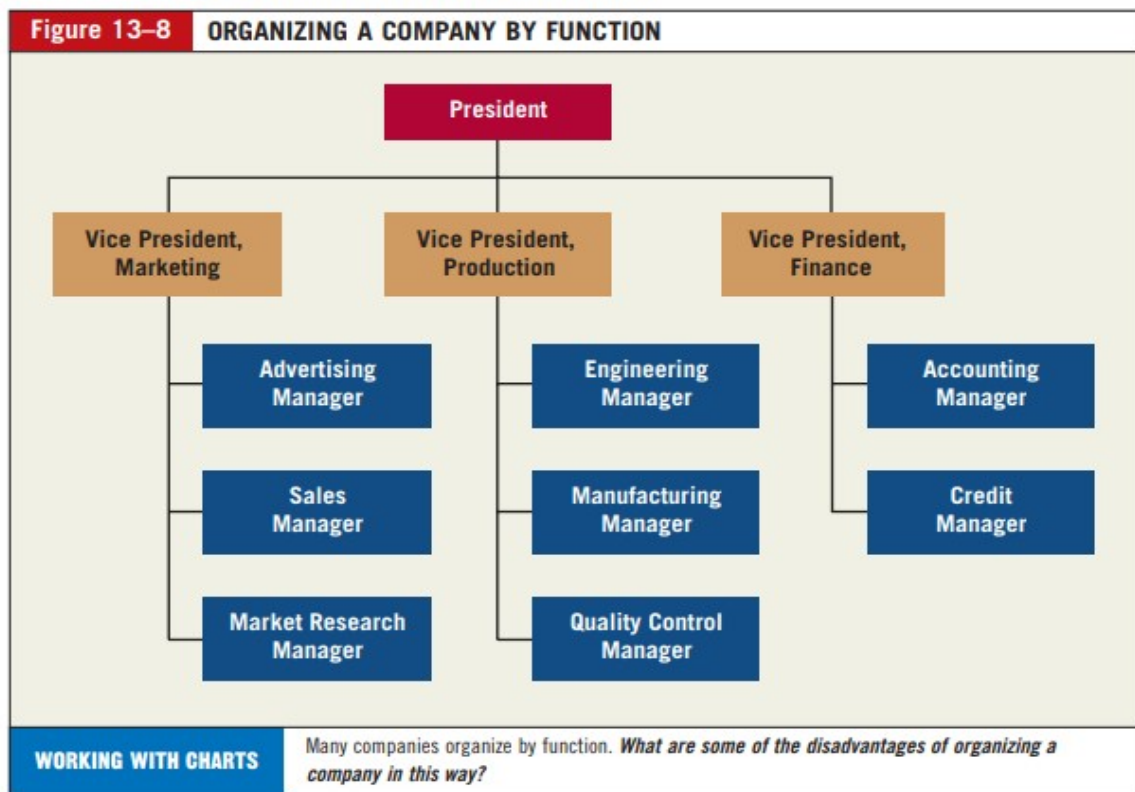
These functions include production, marketing, finance, and human resources.

Production refers to the actual creation of a company's goods or services.

Marketing involves product development, pricing, distribution, sales, and advertising.

Finance refers to maintaining a company's financial statements and obtaining credit so that a company can grow.

Human resources deals with hiring employees and placing them in appropriate jobs.



Each of these basic functions includes various positions. Marketing, for example, includes advertising, sales, and market research. Production includes engineering, manufacturing, and quality control.

16.3.5 Finance includes accounting and credit :

The primary advantage of organizing a company by functions is that it allows for

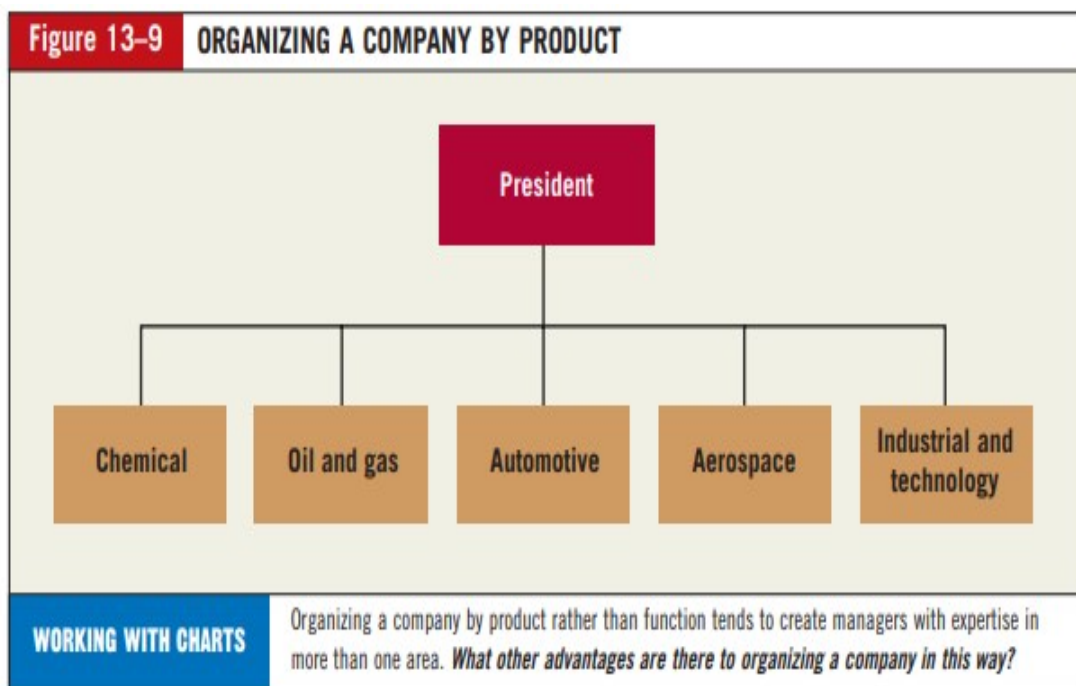
functional specialization. One group of professionals can devote all of its time to accounting. Another can become experts in advertising or engineering. Organizing a company by functions also may save a company money by allowing it to use its equipment and resources most efficiently.

Organizing a company by function can have some negative effects, however. Conflicts may develop between departments with different goals. The production department, for example, may be more concerned about product quality than the marketing department.

Organizing a company by functions also may hurt a company by creating managers whose scope is relatively narrow. For example, a marketing manager may know a great deal about marketing, but he or she may be completely unfamiliar with the other aspects of the company's business. Where managers need to have a much broader scope, a different organizational structure may be more appropriate

16.3.6 Organizing Departments by Product :

A second way in which a company can organize its departments is by product (see Figure 13–9). Under this kind of organizational structure, a single manager oversees all the activities needed to produce and market a particular product. This type of organizational structure allows employees to identify with the product rather than with their particular job function. It often helps to develop a sense of common purpose. Structuring a department by product also helps a company identify which products are profitable. General Motors (GM), for example, can easily determine which of its divisions is earning the most money because the company is organized in independent units.



Each unit produces a different product. If GM had instead adopted functional departments, it would be difficult to know if Chevrolets were earning more profits than Cadillacs. Another advantage of organizing departments by products is that it provides opportunities for training executive personnel by letting them experience a broad range of functional activities. The head of the Pontiac Division at GM, for example, understands all aspects of the division, not just those related to one particular function. He or she is in a better position to become the chief executive officer of GM than a manager who had spent his or her entire career working in a single functional department.

Organizing a company by products also can cause problems, however. Departments can become overly competitive, to the detriment of the company as a whole. Organizing the company by product also means that activities are duplicated across departments. GM, for example, has a marketing department for each division, rather than a single marketing department for the company as a whole.

16.4 SUMMARY :

An organizational structure is a system that outlines how certain activities are directed in order to achieve the goals of an organization. These activities can include rules, roles, and responsibilities. The organizational structure also determines how information flows between levels within the company. For example, in a centralized structure, decisions flow from the top down, while in a decentralized structure, decision-making power is distributed among various levels of the organization. Having an organizational structure in place allows companies to remain efficient and focused

16.5 KEY WORDS :

Line Structure- In a line organization, authority originates at the top and moves downward in a line. All managers perform functions that contribute directly to company profits

Line and Staff Structure- In mid-sized and large companies, line managers cannot perform all of the activities they need to perform to run their departments

Matrix Structure- A allows employees from different departments to come together temporarily to work on special project teams.

Team Structure- Many companies have abandoned the line and staff approach to organizational structure in favor of the team approach

16.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. What is Organisation structure?
2. Briefly Explain the types of Organisation Structure

3. Examine the Factors affecting the Organisation structure

16.7 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Robbins & Judge: Organizational Behavior, 12th Edition, 2007, PHI.
2. Luthans : Organizational Behavior, Tenth Edition, 2005, McGraw-Hill.
3. Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn: Organizational Behavior, 9th Edition, 2005, Wiley.
4. Newstrom : Organizational Behavior-Human Behavior at Work, 12th Edition, 2007, Tata McGraw Hill.
5. Rollinson : Organisational Behaviour and Analysis-An Integrated Approach, 3rd Edition, 2005, Pearson.
6. McShane, Glinow & Sharma: Organizational Behavior, 3rd Edition, 2006, Tata McGraw Hill.
7. Greenberg & Baron: Behavior in Organizations, 8th Edition, 2005, Pearson.
8. Buchanan & Huczynski: Organizational Behaviour-An Introductory Text, 5th Edition, 2004, Prentice Hall.
9. Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H. and Johnson, D.E: Management of Organizational Behavior-Leading Human Resources, 8th Edition, 2006, Pearson Education.

Dr. M. Rama Satyanarayana

LESSON – 17

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To Understand the meaning of organisational culture, its functions and types;
- ✓ To know the change, creation, dynamics and spirituality with organizational culture;
- ✓ To analyze how to learn cultures, its dimensional,
- ✓ To learn difficulty in implementation and global perspective.

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 17.1 Introduction
- 17.2 Meaning of Organisational Culture
- 17.3 Characteristics of Organizational Culture
- 17.4 Types of Organizational culture
 - 17.4.1 Strong and Weak Culture
- 17.5 Creation of Ethical Organisational Culture
- 17.6 Changing Organisational Culture
- 17.7 Spirituality and Organisational Culture
- 17.8 Features of spiritual organisation
- 17.9 Learning of Culture
- 17.10 Cultural Dynamics
- 17.11 National Cultural Dimensions
 - 17.11.1 Hofstede which analyze cultural values.
- 17.12 Cultural Model of Management Development
- 17.13 Challenges to Development of Positive Coherent Organisational culture
- 17.14 Summary
- 17.15 Key words
- 17.16 Self Assessment Questions
- 17.17 Suggested Readings

17.1 INTRODUCTION :

We often heard somebody- a management consultant, a new CEO, a journalist, employees discuss about urgent need to alter the culture. Every one of these wants to make this

world class. To clear off all the negatives and nonsense that hinders employees in their performance and their progress organisational culture needs to be changed. These culture critiques are as common as complaints about the weather- and about as effective. Companies can tap their natural advantage when they focus on changing a few important behaviours, enlist informal leaders, and harness the power of employees' emotions.

17.2 MEANING OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE :

System within the organisation which fosters shared meaning by the members that differentiates the organisation from other organisation. An organisation culture has the following features and characteristics :

1. Innovation and risk taking : Degree of innovation and creativity by the employees within organisation. Precision: level of precision, analysis and attention to details expected from employees.
2. Outcome orientation : level of management focus on results and outcomes rather than techniques and process used by the organisation.
3. People orientation : Consideration of effect of results on the people within the organisation.
4. Team Orientation : Focus on development of task and activity for the group of people rather than individuals.
5. Aggressiveness : Environment of being competitive and aggressive rather than easygoing.
6. Stability : Ability of an organisation to maintain stability in contrast to growth.

Degree of above stated characteristics varies from low to high depending on the type of organisation and activities within it. Few authors have described the following

17.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE :

Regularities in Behaviour : Interactions among employees within organisation are done in common language, terminology and rituals.

Rules and regulations : Each and every employee in organisation is bound to adhere to the rules laid down by the organisation.

Dominant values : Most of the organisations have strong and dominant values to be followed by each employee. These dominant values can be high efficiency, low absenteeism, high product quality etc.

Philosophy : Philosophy means beliefs and values of organisation which are in organisation's policy which may be regarding treatment of customers and employees.

Organisational climate : Environment of trust and harmony among employees, interdependence and reciprocity and commitment. All these collectively develop organizational climate.

17.4 TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE :

According to Robert E Quinn and Kim S Cameron, there are four types of organizational culture: Clan, Adhocracy, Market, and Hierarchy. This Four Cultures can be summarized.

Types of Organisational Culture

Name of culture	Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy
1. Definition	The culture is more of family like that focuses more on mentoring, nurturing and doing things together	Culture is dynamic and entrepreneurial with risk loving attitude and being initiator.	Result oriented culture of competitive spirit, achievement and getting the job done.	Structured, controlled and rules driven culture with focus doing things rightly.
2. Leader Type	facilitator, mentor, team builder	Innovator, entrepreneur, idealistic	Hard driver, competitor, producer	Coordinator, monitor, organizer
3. Value Drivers	Commitment, communication, development	Innovative outputs, transformation, agility	Market share, goal achievement, profitability	Efficiency, timeliness, consistency, and uniformity

Terrence E. Deal and Allan A. Kennedy have identified four different types of cultures in their research work titled Corporate Culture : The rites and rituals of corporate life. They have developed four corporate cultures namely :

- 1) Tough- guy macho
- 2) Work hard / play hard
- 3) Best your company
- 4) Process

Organisational Culture Profile

Name of culture	Tough guy macho	Work hard/ play hard	Best your company	Process
Risk assumed	High	Low	High	Low
Type of feedback	Fast	Fast	Slow	Slow
Applicability	Construction, cosmetics, television, radio ventures capitalism, management consultancy companies.	Real estates, computer firms, door to door sales operations	Oil, aerospace, capital goods manufacturer, architectural firms, investment banks, mining and smelting firms, military.	Banks, insurance company, utilities, pharma, financial services, government agencies.
Supervisor's behaviour	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tough attitude • Individualistic • Can tolerate nothing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are super sales people • Often friendly • Team approach for problem solving 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can endure long term ambiguity • Always double check decision • Technically competent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very cautious and protective of their own flak • Orderly and punctual • Good at attending to details

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are superstitious. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are non superstitious. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having strong respect to authority 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Always follow established procedure
Strength of personnel / culture	They can get things done	They are able to produce quickly high volume of work	They can generate high quality inventions and major scientific break through	They bring and system to workplace
Weakness of personnel / culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They do not learn from past mistakes • Short term orientation • Virtues of cooperation are ignorant 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Look for quick and fixed solutions • Have short term perspective • More committed to action plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slow in getting things done • Organisations are vulnerable to short term economic fluctuations often cash flow problems. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lot of red tape • Initiative is downplayed • They face long hours and boring work

Source: Terrance E Deal and Allan A. Kennedy: Corporate Cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life, Addison Wesley, Reading Mass. Quoted in Fred Luthans, op.cit., p. 568

17.4.1 Strong And Weak Culture :

1. Strong culture is the one where :
2. Most employees have same opinion about organisation's mission and values;
3. Organisational values are widely shared and deeply rooted;
4. The more members who accept core values and the greater their commitment, the stronger will be the culture, for example Tata steel has strong organisational culture than their competitors because its employees knows what is expected of them in ethical situation and this develops their
5. behaviour; and
6. A strong culture faces low absenteeism because in such organisation there is cohesiveness, loyalty and organisational commitment with agreed and unanimous purposes.
7. On the other hand in weak cultures opinions of employees and management vary widely and organizational values are not widely shared.

17.5 CREATION OF ETHICAL ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE :

Employees high in risk tolerance, moderate aggressiveness, and focused on methods and results display high ethical standards, shaped out of organisational culture. This ethical organisational culture has long term perspective and maintains a balance of various stakeholders of organisation be it employees, shareholders, and the community. Managers are encouraged for taking risk, being innovative, resistance to lose competition and supporting for not only result but also methods to achieve them. Positive impact can be seen on employee's behaviour, if the culture is strong and close knitted and supports high ethical standards. The negative impact of loose ethical culture may have diverse shapes. The systematic culture of unethical behavior can result into customer boycott, fines, lawsuits, and governmental regulations and interventions.

The following principles demonstrate how an ethical culture can be created by manager;

Be a role model : Actions and behaviour of top management are benchmark for employees. Appropriate behaviour of managers is imitated by the lower level managers. Therefore a manager should be a role model for his employees.

Communicate ethical expectations : Organisational codes of ethics must be shared properly stating organisational primary values and ethical rules to be followed by employees. There must be minimal ambiguity related to organisational ethics.

Ethical Training : Trainings, seminars and workshops can reinforce the organisation's code of conduct, clarity of practices within organisation and removal of potential ethical dilemmas.

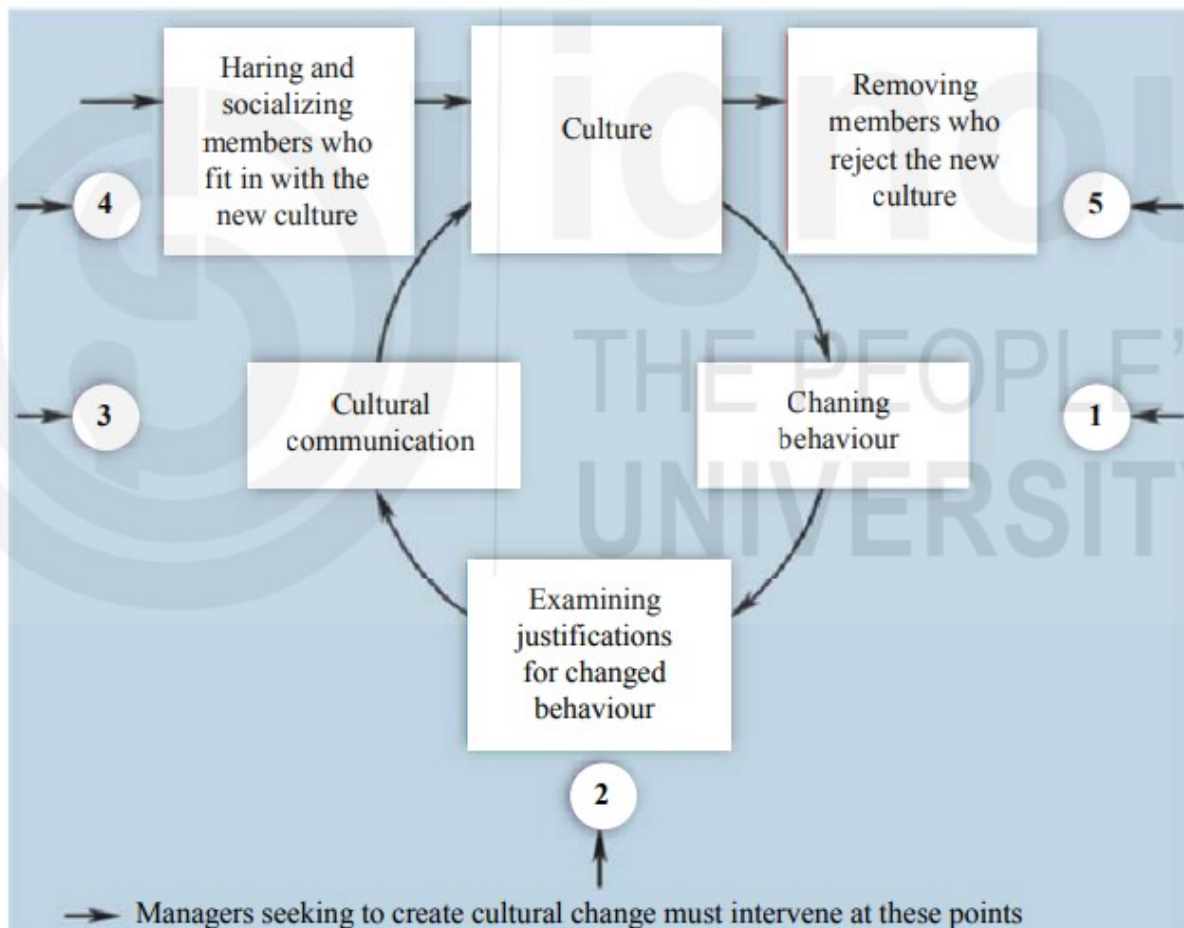
Use of carrot and stick methods : Use of carrot and stick method i.e rewarding ethical acts and punishing unethical ones can build strong ethical culture within organisation where each and every stakeholder flourishes.

Review of means as well as ends are necessary for this. Appraising managers on how their decision will be measured against organisation's code of ethics.

Provide protective mechanism : Structured and formal mechanism within organisation provides opportunity to employees to discuss ethical dilemmas and report unethical behaviour without fear of reprimand. Ombudsman, ethical counsellors or ethical officers can perform such function of developing such mechanism.

Setting up of positive ethical climate must initiate from top of the organisation. When top management emphasizes strong ethical values, ethical leadership will be practiced by supervisors. Positive ethical attitudes transfer down to line employees, who show lower levels of deviant behaviour and higher level of cooperation and assistance

17.6 CHANGING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE :



Interventions

With rapidly changing environment like globalization, workforce diversity and technical innovation, the basic rules and values that gives shape to organization need to be altered and modified. Alteration and modification of organisational culture is difficult because of various reason such as; the strong culture of an organisation is unconscious, often non confrontable and non debatable. Another reason can be, culture is deeply ingrained and behavioural norms and rewards are well learned. i.e to learn new norms old norms must be unlearned by employees. Managers seeking to bring change in culture must first find the ways to maintain it. Research among hospitals found that change was welcomed in private hospitals with a collaborative culture whereas change was met with opposition in public hospitals with an autocratic culture.

The model at the above figure suggests the interventions used by the managers to change organisational culture. Here numbers represents interventions used by the managers. The basic structure to change organisational culture are: (1) introduction of new set of values for current members (action 1. 2 and 3), (2) introduction of new members and socializing them into organisation and removing current member as appropriate.(action 4 and 5) (S. Seren and U. Baykal, 2007)

17.7 SPIRITUALITY AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE :

Work spirituality is not about religious practices at work place or chanting and making prayers at workplace. Spirituality is not linked solely with god or theology. Workplace spirituality recognizes that people have an inner life that nourishes and is nourished by meaningful work in the context of community. Organisation with spiritually structured culture recognizes that as a part of community people try to connect with other human being and try to find meaning and purpose in their work. The traditional assumption that well run organisation does not consider feelings and perfectly rational model of an organisation is not associated with inner life of employees finds no place in the twenty first century companies. Study of emotions improves our understanding of organisational behaviour and thus assimilation of spirituality helps in understanding employee's behaviour.

Following are the reasons for growing interest in spirituality :

Maintain balance of stress and pressure in life. Contemporary lifestyle of nuclear family, single parents, and geographical mobility for jobs creates immense pressure, stress and seclusion. Job demands have made the workplace dominant in many people's lives; therefore a meaning of work is required to be answered by spirituality.

There is strong need for integration of professional and personal life.

17.8 FEATURES OF SPIRITUAL ORGANISATION :

Benevolence: spiritually inclined organisation supports kindness for others and welfare for employees and other related stakeholders.

Strong sense of purpose : There is strong meaning purpose in spiritual organisation. Profits are not sole goal for such organisation.

Trust and respect : Mutual trust, honesty and openness are the features of a spiritual organisation. There is esteem values, dignity and respect for individual.

Open mindedness : flexible thinking and creativity among employees are supported in spiritual organization

17.9 LEARNING OF CULTURE :

Employees of an organisation learn culture in various ways. The most prominent are stories, rituals, material symbols and language.

Stories: J.N Tata, the founder of Tata Group, instead of being priest in his parsi religion pursued a career in industry. He made this choice because he thought in this way he can serve people in India in much better way. Even today Tata Group employees hear this stories and proud of these values.

Similarly, wipro's senior executive shares stories of fair, professional and involved Azim premji. Such kind of stories demonstrates that meritocracy, customer relationship, and dignity of all roles are values that are lived by and practiced in wipro.

Such types of stories within an organisation, link present in the past and support current practices. New entrants in the organisation also create their own narrative about whether they can fit or not fit in the organisation during socialisation, early interaction and first impressions of organisational life.

Rituals : Rituals are repetitive sequences of activities that express and reinforce the key values of the organisation- what goals are most important and which people are important and which are expendable (G Islam and M.J Zyphur, 2009). For example ambuja cement acquired by Holcim Ltd starts the day, programme and meeting with singing a collective song "Hum ko mann ki shakti dena" (bless us with determination). It is a ritual in an organisation that binds people and makes them take a short break for reflection. To gain energy and solidarity many IIM Ahmadabad dormitories have chants that they sing in the middle of the night. This practice has been followed in dormitories for many years

Material Organisational Culture : Symbols: organisational culture can be communicated with unspoken words through symbols. When one enters into an organisation the feeling that one gets, that this organisation is formal, casual, fun, serious and so forth, these feeling are demonstrated by material symbols creating organisation's personality. For example; parking space for senior executive, large office space for senior managers, luxury automobiles for senior or successful officers of the organisation.

Language : To identify member of a culture, many organisation and its sub units use language. These languages helps member to attest their acceptance of it and to preserve it. New entrants of an organisation may first be overwhelmed by acronym and jargon that once comprehended, act as a common tool to unite members of a given culture or subculture.

17.10 CULTURAL DYNAMICS :

Dynamics of a culture explains how culture develops personality, socialization of culture in individual and social behaviour. A.L Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn described culture in following words.

Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including her embodiments in artifacts, the essential case of culture consists of traditional ideas(i.e historically derived and selected) and especially their attached values; culture system may on the other hand, to be considered as a products of action, on the other as conditioning elements of further action.

In the same manner, many studies supports that organisation gets influenced profoundly by the socio- cultural belief. As a result organization must adapt to the social beliefs and values. Organisation good at changing itself according to sociological environment will be able to realise organisational goals more quickly with efficiency. Culture becomes social ethos through the writ of the family and society in which he lives. It is known as Socialization (Paul H. Mussen, 1971). Socialization process teaches individuals with cultural dynamics that further derives the pattern of behaviour. Behaviour of an individual derives its shape from socialization of culture which is a product of the family, social groups and other social factors

17.11 NATIONAL CULTURAL DIMENSIONS :

A framework for cross cultural communication is developed by Geert Hofstede in the year between 1967 and 1973. This framework describes relationship between society's culture and its effect on values of members of society. Originally four basic dimensions were developed by

17.11.1 Hofstede which analyze cultural values :

These dimensions were; Individualism-collectivism; uncertainty avoidance; power distance and masculinity-femininity. Later fifth dimension "long term orientation" was added. In 2010 Hofstede added a sixth and last dimension

"Indulgence vs. self- restraint".

Power distance index (PDI): the degree to which less powerful employees of organisation accept and expect that powers are not distributed equally. Follower or employees at lower level perceive this inequality and power. Higher degree of this index signifies that well structures hierarchy is established and executed with no doubt. While lower degree of index represents people raise voice against authority and attempt to distribute power.

Individualism vs. collectivism (IDV):

The extent to which people in a society are integrated into groups. Individualism describes loose knitted social system where every individual is concerned for himself or nearest family member. On the other hand collectivism is tightly knitted social system where people are concerned not only for themselves but also for the other member of the group which they belong and even protect them.

Uncertainty avoidance index (UAI) :

This index defines society's tolerance of ambiguity, where people accept or reject an event of something which is not known, not expected or away from status quo. Higher degree of uncertainty avoidance index represent society opting for strict codes for guidelines, behaviour, laws and generally relies on absolute truth and beliefs. A lower degree of index describes more acceptances of differing thoughts/ ideas. With lower degree of index, society is equipped with fewer regulations, more ambiguity and free flowing environment.

Masculinity vs. femininity (MAS) :

Masculinity means society's preferences for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material reward. Feminism represents cooperation, Modesty, concern for weak and quality of life. Women in feminine society are equally caring and modest towards men. In a masculine society women are more ardent and competitive but less ardent than men. This type of dimension is considered taboo in a highly masculine society.

Long-term orientation vs. short-term orientation (LTO) :

The dimension explains linkages of the past with the recent and future challenges. Short term orientation or lower degree of index means traditions are followed, and steadfastness is valued. Society with long term orientation or high degree of index supports practicality of the things and adaptation. Country with short term orientation realise little or no economic development unlike country with long term orientation.

Indulgence vs. restraint (IND)

This dimension is essentially a measure of happiness; whether or not simple joys are fulfilled. Indulgence is defined as "a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun." Its counterpart is defined as "a society that controls gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms." Indulgent societies believe themselves to be in control of their own life and emotions; restrained societies believe other factors dictate their life and emotions

17.12 CULTURAL MODEL OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT :

Management development refers to structured mechanism of training and growth of

managers and supervisors in order to manage organisation effectively. During the course of training and development, the managers are endowed with tools and techniques of management to manage people and thus achieve organisational goals and objectives. Thus management development is a training programme developed in a formal and structured manner In order to develop managerial Organisational Culture skills. The programme passes through five stages;

- (1) Identification of problem and incompatibility with current organisation status,
- (2) Finding alternate solutions of a problem,
- (3) Selection of a correct action and practising such behaviour,
- (4) Feedback about the behaviour from reliable source, and
- (5) Generalisation and integration of new behaviour into organisation's current culture
(Heyel. Carl, 1984).

The management development programme must be in line with micro and macro environment of an organisation. Micro environment is the internal environment in which organisation operates. It is easy to modify and control and can be predicted beforehand. Impact of Micro environment varies from low to medium as it is easily identifiable associated with organisational policies and structure.

On the other hand macro environment is the external, broad, unpredictable environment in which organisation operates. Macro environment is difficult to identify. Its impact can be minimized but can never be eliminated. The components of macro environment are customers, suppliers, competitor, socio-political components, government policy and interventions and technological components

Cultural model of management development can be summarized as follows :

Human behavior is a product of organisational culture. Perception, attitude and value system of an employee are cast in the mould of cultural dynamics.

Influence of culture is difficult to transform by the managers as they are deeply rooted in his personality that behavioural modification with available reinforcement or interventions techniques is not possible within management development paradigm.

Cultural components such as social beliefs, values, customs etc that derives set behaviour pattern should not be seen as an impediment but recompense for better organisational behaviour. The deep rooted socialisation system ensures traditional respect to authority, concern for work group and team spirit and emotional dedication towards organisational objectives. The organisations are some of the contributions of orient culture which are different from western culture.

Spiritualism in an organisation can significantly reduce stress and frustration and individual and group conflict and tension.

Instead of developing standardized and rigid management programme, the management programme must be so designed that it channelizes social ethos towards achieving management objective for effective organization

17.13 CHALLENGES TO DEVELOPMENT OF POSITIVE COHERENT ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE :

Developing a closing united positive culture within an organisation is difficult task to carry out. There are various factors that are impediments to develop cohesive organisational culture. Few of them which greatly affects its implementation are; mergers and acquisition, globalization, ethics, and empowerment and quality are :

Developing a closing united positive culture within an organisation is difficult task to carry out.

There are various factors that are impediments to develop cohesive organisational culture. Few of them which greatly affects its implementation are; mergers and acquisition, globalization, ethics, and empowerment and quality are:

Through open door policy employees can approach to superior at any time. With Organisational Culture Integrity hotline at every hotel allows every employee to make anonymous grievances. Culture at Marriot is such that there is level of confidence that voice of employees will be heard. Marriot has daily newspaper called Daily Packet that is a communication tool for employees in Marriot which provide information about business, special events, associate excellence and recognition of the day. Empowerment and quality in the organisation culture are reinforced with the help of involving employees in decision making, removing barriers of performance and communication of value of product and service quality

17.14 SUMMARY :

For more than one reason companies are expanding their horizon of operations. Globalization of business has come to stay. It is essential for any manager to understand the dynamics of organisational culture, its issues and needs. Crosscultural impact on an organisation includes such aspects as individual behaviour, group dynamics, leadership, environment, technology and organisation structure. Culture differences influence perception of people about work, group harmony, discipline, and other aspects of life, Ample evidence points to how cultural Organisational Culture differences in values, beliefs, traits, and decision styles influence different management practices. For instance, the individualistic performance appraisal, compensation and reward practices characteristic of the U.S. human resource system are not the norm in more collectiveness Asian cultures

17.15 KEY WORDS :

Work spirituality : It is not about religious practices at work place or chanting and making prayers at workplace. Spirituality is not linked solely with god or theology.

Rituals : Rituals are repetitive sequences of activities that express and reinforce the key values of the organisation- what goals are most important and which people are important and which are expendable.

Material Organisational Culture : Symbols: organisational culture can be communicated with unspoken words through symbols.

Language : To identify member of a culture, many organisation and its sub units use language. These languages helps member to attest their acceptance of it and to preserve it

Cultural Dynamics : Dynamics of a culture explains how culture develops personality, socialization of culture in individual and social behaviour.

Masculinity : It means society's preferences for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material reward. Feminism represents cooperation, Modesty, concern for weak and quality of life.

17.16 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

- 1) Define the various management functions under various global organisational cultures.
- 2) Explain how various factors impede organizational cultural development.
- 3) Explain Cultural Model of Organisational development.
- 4) Explain national cultural dimension given by Hofstede.

17.17 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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Dr. V. Naga Nirmala

LESSON – 18
ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND
DEVELOPMENT

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To know the organizational changes
- ✓ To understand the characteristics of organizational change
- ✓ To Know the Process of Organisational change
- ✓ To analyze the triggers for changes or Factors Affecting Organizational Change

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 18.1 Introduction
- 18.2 Organizational Changes are of Two Types
 - 18.2.1 Reactive Changes
 - 18.2.2 Proactive Changes
- 18.3 Characteristics of Organization Change
 - 18.3.1 Individual Level Change
 - 18.3.2 Group Level Change
 - 18.3.3 Organizational Level Change
- 18.4 Planned change
 - 18.4.1 Managing Planned Change
 - 18.4.2 Assessing Change Forces
 - 18.4.3 Implementing Change
- 18.5 Process of Organizational/ Planned Change
 - 18.5.1 Unfreezing:
 - 18.5.2 Changing or Moving
 - 18.5.3 Refreezing
- 18.6 Triggers for Change or Factors Affecting Organizational Change
 - 18.6.1 Internal Factors
 - 18.6.2 External factors
- 18.7 Strategies for Implementing Organizational Change
- 18.8 Organizational Development

18.9 Characteristics of Organizational Development

18.10 Benefits of Organizational Development

18.11 Summary

18.12 Key words

18.13 Self Assessment Questions

18.14 Suggested Readings

18.1 INTRODUCTION :

In any organisation, we have people engaged in production, research, development, administration, etc. The organisation in order to change should prepare a stock of the situation and should effect change in their attitude and style of functioning.

Change is a part of life and provides opportunity for growth. It is a conscious decision by the management of organisation.

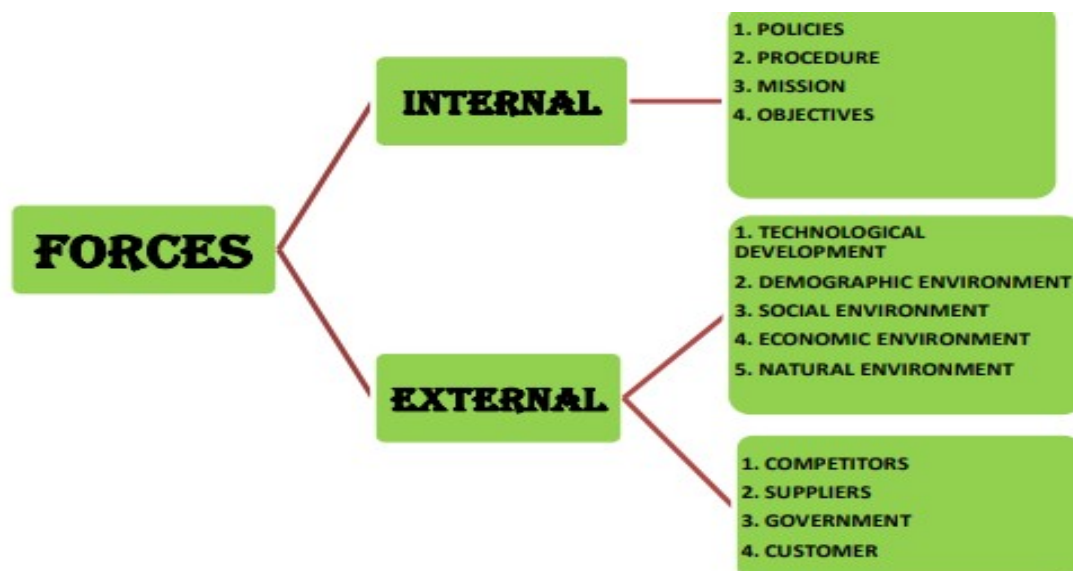
Meaning :

It refers to the process of growth, decline and transformation within the organization.

Organizations may change their strategy or purpose, introduce new products or services, change the way they produce and sell, change their technology, enter new markets, close down departments or plants, hire new employees, acquire other organizations become acquired by other organizations and what not ! In doing so, they may turn larger, smaller or stay the same in terms of size.

Definition :

1. Mr. John Bull defines it as “when an organization system is disturbed by some internal as well as external forces.



2. According to a paper by Markus Wanner: “Change management is an organized, systematic application of the knowledge, tools, and resources of change that provides organizations with a key process to achieve their business strategy

18.2 ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES ARE OF TWO TYPES :

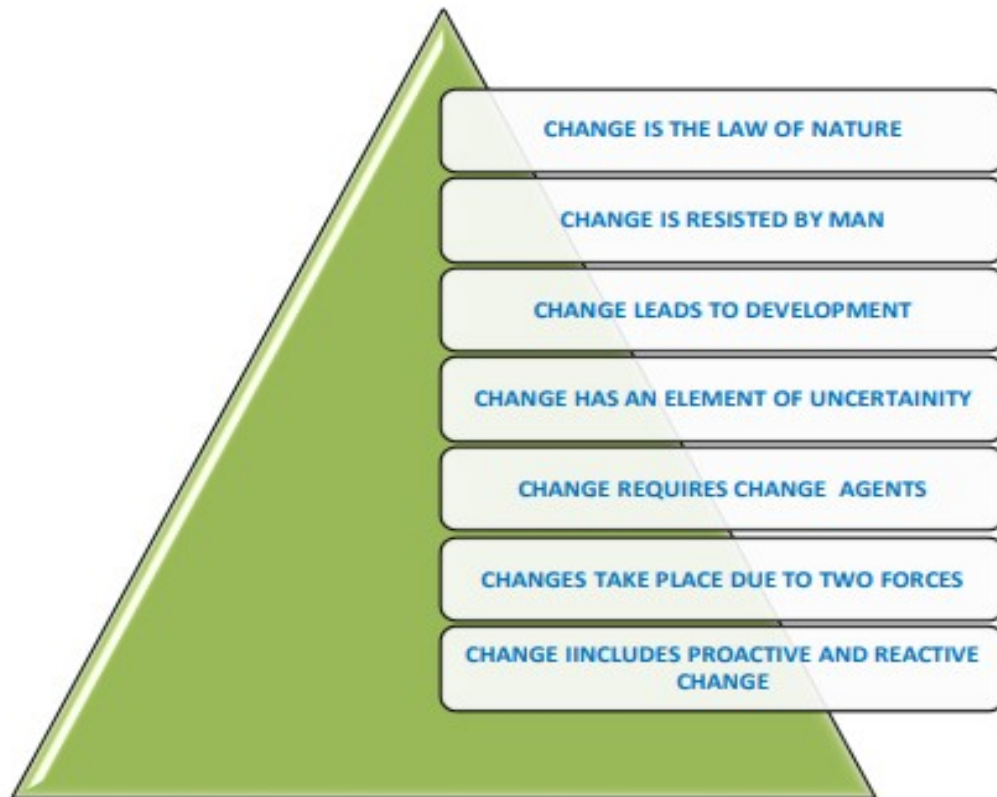
18.2.1 Reactive Changes :

Reactive changes occur when forces compel organization to implement change without delay. In other words, when demands made by the forces are compiled in a passive manner, such a change is called reactive change.

18.2.2 Proactive Changes :

Proactive changes occur when some factors make realize organization think over and finally decide that implementation of a particular change is necessary. Then, the change is introduced in a planned manner.

18.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATION CHANGE :



Level of Change Programme :

The various types of change programmes may be classified into individual level change, group level change and organizational level change.

18.3.1 Individual Level Change :

Individual level changes may take place due to changes in job-assignment, transfer of an employee to a different location or the changes in the maturity level of a person which occurs over a passage of time. The general opinion is that change at the individual level will not have significant implications for the organisation. But this is not correct because individual level changes will have impact on the group which in turn will influence the whole organisation. Therefore, a manager should never treat the employees in isolation but he must understand that the individual level change will have repercussions the individual.

18.3.2 Group Level Change :

Management must consider group factors while implementing, any change, because most of the organisational changes have their major effects at the group level. The groups in the organisation can be formal groups or informal groups. Formal groups can always resist change, for example; the trade unions can very strongly resist the changes proposed by the management. Informal groups can pose a major barrier to change because of the inherent strength they contain. Changes at the group level can affect the work flows, job design, social organisation, influence and status systems and communication patterns.

18.3.3 Organizational Level Change :

The organizational level change involves major programmes which affect both the individuals and the groups. Decisions regarding such changes are made by the senior management. These changes occur over long periods of time and require considerable planning for implementation. A few different types of organisation level changes are:

1. **Strategic Change :** Strategic change is the change in the very basic objectives or missions of the organisation. A single objective may have to be changed to multiple objectives.
Example : A lot of Indian companies are being modified to accommodate various aspect of global culture brought in by the multinational or transnational corporations.
2. **Structural Change :** Organizational structure is the pattern of relationships among various positions and among various position holders. Structural change involves changing the internal structure of the organisation. This change may be in the whole set of relationships, work assignment and authority structure. Change in organisation structure is required because old relationships and interactions no longer remain valid and useful in the changed circumstances.
3. **Process Oriented Change :** These changes relate to the recent technological developments, information processing and automation. This will involve replacing or retraining personnel, heavy capital equipment investment and operational

changes. All this will affect the organizational culture and as a result the behavior pattern of the individuals.

4. **People Oriented Change** : People oriented changes are directed towards performance improvement, group cohesion, dedication and loyalty to the organisation as well as developing a sense of self-actualization among members. This can be made possible by closer interaction with employees and by special behavioral training and modification sessions. To conclude, we can say that changes at any level affect the other levels. The strength of the effect will depend on the level or source of change.

18.4 PLANNED CHANGE :

18.4.1 Managing Planned Change :

A planned change is a change planned by the organisation; it does not happen by itself. It is affected by the organisation with the purpose of achieving something that might difficulty. Through planned change, an organisation can achieve its goals rapidly. The basic reasons for planned change are :

To improve the means for satisfying economic needs of members

To increase profitability

To promote human work for human beings

To contribute to individual satisfaction and social well-being.

In introducing planned change, the basic problem before management is to handle in such a way that there would be necessary adjustment in various forces. For this purpose, the manager who has to act as the change agent has to go through a particular process. The planned change process may comprise basically the following three steps :

18.4.2 Assessing Change Forces :

The planned change does not come automatically; rather there are many forces in individuals, groups and organisation which resist such change. The change process will never be successful unless the cooperation of employees is ensured. Therefore, the management will have to create an environment in which change will be amicably accepted by people. If the management can overcome the resistance the change process will succeed.

In a group process, there are always some forces who favor the change and some forces that are against the change. Thus, equilibrium is maintained. Kurt Lewin calls in the “field of forces”. Lewin assumes that in every situation there are both driving and restraining forces which influence any change that may occur.

Driving Forces are those, forces, which affect a situation by pushing in a particular direction.

These forces tend to initiate the change and keep it going. Restraining Forces act to restrain or decrease – the driving forces. Equilibrium is reached when the sum of the driving forces equals the ‘sum of the restraining forces.

There may be three types of situations, as both driving and restraining forces are operating :

1. If the driving forces far out weight the restraining forces, management can push, driving forces and overpower restraining forces.
2. If restraining forces are stronger than driving forces, management either gives up the change programme or it can pursue it by concentrating on driving forces and changing restraining forces into driving ones or immobilizing them.
3. If driving and restraining forces are fairly equal, management can push up driving forces and at the same time can convert or immobilize restraining forces. Thus, to make the people accept the changes, the management must push driving forces and convert or immobilize the restraining forces.

18.4.3 Implementing Change :

Once the management is able to establish favorable conditions, the right timing and right channels of communication have been established the plan will be put into action. It may be in the form of simple announcement or it may require briefing sessions in house seminars so as to gain acceptance of all the members and specially those who are going to be directly affected by the change. After the plan has been implemented there should be evaluation of the plan which comprises of comparing actual results to the standards.

18.5 PROCESS OF ORGANIZATIONAL/ PLANNED CHANGE :

Kurt Lewin observed that people generally do not accept change and if they accept it, they tend to revert to the original behaviour after some time. To make change have lasting impact, it should become part of their attitudes and value system. Lewin suggested a three step model to initiate change in organisations and behaviour of individuals and groups.

18.5.1 Unfreezing :

Unfreezing makes the need for change inevitable to members so that they become ready to accept the change. It develops in people a belief that present system of working is undesirable and change is desirable. It motivates people to move from the old and traditional ways to new and modern ways of working.

Resistance to change is eliminated amongst members by :

- (a) Building trust and confidence,

- (b) Enhancing motivation,
- (c) Improving communication, and
- (d) Participative decision making

18.5.2 Changing or Moving :

Once people are ready to accept the change, change is initiated by learning new ways of doing things. New information is collected, new concepts are developed, members are trained to implement the concepts and present perspectives and attitudes are changed. Driving people to change their behaviour and attitude can take two forms:

(a) Negative :

Managers announce change, failing which, members are subjected to threats, punishments and penalties. This change does not have lasting impact and, therefore, has to be closely monitored.

(b) Positive :

People are motivated to feel the need for change and accept it as a positive force that coordinates individual goals with organizational goals.

18.5.3 Refreezing :

Though change is desirable, people generally resist change. Despite learning new ways of doing things, they tend to revert to old behaviour after working in the changed environment for some time. Refreezing attempts to make change permanent till there is need to reintroduce change. "It means locking the new behaviour pattern into place by means of supporting or reinforcing mechanisms, so that it becomes the new norm." People realize that change will affect their future behaviour. Reinforcement of behaviour is, therefore, the aim of refreezing.

18.6 TRIGGERS FOR CHANGE OR FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE :

Change is the essence of organisational life. Organisations have to anticipate or respond to change to be successful in the long-run.

The factors that necessitate change fall into two categories :

18.6.1. Internal Factors :

Factors internal to organisation are as follows :

(a) Efficiency :

Organizations want to perform better, earn more profits for owners (in the form of

retained earnings), employees (increase in salary and bonus) and shareholders (increase in dividends). This is possible if they consistently review their policies and reorganize their structures to do better. Change is, therefore, desirable to achieve higher level of efficiency.

(b) Control :

People at high managerial posts want to retain control over organisational activities. They have their own philosophies and ways of working. They introduce new organisation designs and control systems which are followed in the organisation.

(c) Leadership :

Dynamic managers introduce change because they want to lead the market. Change in one business forces others to adopt the changes.

(d) Internal pressures :

Attitudes of employees also enforce change. Dissatisfaction with the working conditions, pay structures and inter-personal relationships reflect negative behavior towards managers which may force employees to change their policies, procedures and strategies. Change is, therefore, enforced to develop cordial relations in the organisation.

(e) Changes in workforce :

Changes in managerial personnel (when new managers join in place of retiring managers) also require the organisation to change its values and philosophies. Changes in operative personnel (new workers who are more educated, skilled and competent) also require the organisation to change its values and beliefs to match those who join the organisation. There may be changes in leadership styles and motivation systems to deal with knowledge workers.

(f) Internal inefficiencies :

Organizations may change their structures because of internal inefficiencies like imbalance between narrow and wide span of management, centralization and decentralization, line and staff relationships, internal and external environment, communication systems etc. Improvement in these areas requires changes in organisation structure.

18.6.2 External factors :

Survival of organisation depends on its active interaction with the environment. Every organisation affects and is affected by others — be it organisations or suppliers, shareholders, customers, Government or trade unions. Thus, an organisation has to give due consideration to its own goals and also the goals of those external to its working.

In order to survive in the changing environment, organisations have to change their

production process, labour-management relations, departmental functions etc. in response to changes in technological, political, economic factors etc.

Some of the external factors which affect change are as follows :

(a) Market factors :

Organisations operate in the volatile markets. Various market forces related to buyers and competitors affect competitive position of the organisation and promote changes to remain competitive in the market. Factors related to buyers are demand, changes in consumer tastes and preferences, income of consumers etc. and those related to competitors are policies of competitors, better products and suppliers etc. New companies promote diversification, product deletion, disinvestment, core competence to gain distinctive advantage etc.

(b) Economic factors :

Changes in economic conditions; exchange rate and interest rate fluctuations, fiscal and monetary policies, inflation and cost of living necessitate changes in the organizational policies.

(c) Social factors :

The norms for pollution, safety and working conditions, health consciousness, geographical movement of workers, their age composition, education etc. are the social factors that necessitate changes in the organizational policies. Organisations are the creations of society and have to take care of social factors in making adjustments in their plans, policies and procedures.

(d) Technological factors :

The modern world is facing constantly changing technology, information systems, computerization and decision support systems. If organisations fail to update their technology and management information system, they will not be able to survive in the market.

(e) Political factors :

Business enterprises and Government actively interact with each other. Changes in government policies with respect to taxation and corporate governance, new laws and court decisions require the organisations to change their policies according to these regulations.

(f) Natural factors :

Natural calamities like floods and earthquakes also require changes in the policies of the organisation. Organisations are open social systems and cannot ignore the impact of their operations on the society. Social responsibilities are part of the organisational operations which change according to needs of the environment. Providing medicines, clothes, food and monetary

help may not be part of organization's social agenda but natural factors may require it to do so; not only from the point of view of ethics but also its survival.

(g) Educational factors :

Educated employees, shareholders, labour unions, customers and suppliers require organisation to change their structures to come up to their expectations. New employees, new managerial personnel, new suppliers with different educational levels and backgrounds necessitate organisation to change their policies to accommodate them.

(h) Global factors :

Globalization and liberalization require changes in the policies of organisations to compete with multinational corporations operating in the home country and the host country. Companies of different countries have different cultural and social values. Since they interact with each other in the globalized world, changes have to be made in the organisational processes to be interactive with each other.

18.7 STRATEGIES FOR IMPLEMENTING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE :

1. Management Support for Change :

Employees develop a comfort level when they see management supporting the process. It is critical that management shows support for changes and demonstrates that support when communicating and interacting with staff.

2. Case for Change :

No one wants to change for change's sake, so it is important to create a case for change. A case for change can come from different sources. It can be a result of data collected on defect rates, customer satisfaction surveys, employee satisfaction surveys, customer comment cards, business goals as a result of a strategic planning session, or budget pressures. Using data is the best way to identify and justify areas that need to improve through change initiatives

3. Employee Involvement :

All change efforts should involve employees at some level. Organizational change, whether large or small, needs to be explained and communicated, specifically changes that affect how employees perform their jobs. Whether it is changing a work process, improving customer satisfaction, or finding ways to reduce costs, employees have experiences that can benefit the change planning and implementation process. Since employees are typically closest to the process, it is important that they understand the why behind a change and participate in creating the new process.

5. Implementation :

Once a change is planned, it is important to have good communication about the roll-out and implementation of the change. A timeline should be made for the implementation and changes should be made in the order of its impact on the process and the employees who manage that process. For instance, if your organization is upgrading its software program, employee training should be done before the software is installed on their computers. An effective timeline will allow for all new equipment, supplies, or training to take place before it is fully implemented.

6. Follow-up :

Whenever a change is made it is always good to follow-up after implementation and assess how the change is working and if the change delivered the results that were intended. Sometimes changes exceed target expectations but there are occasions that changes just don't work as planned. When this is the case, management should acknowledge that it didn't work and make adjustments until the desired result is achieved

7. Removing Barriers :

Sometimes employees encounter barriers when implementing changes. Barriers can be with other employees, other departments, inadequate training, lacking equipment, or supply needs. Sometimes management also needs to deal with resistant or difficult employees. It is management's responsibility to ensure that employees can implement change without obstacles and resistance.

It is unfortunate but there are times when employees simply can't accept a change. In these rare cases, employees simply need to move on in order to successfully implement a needed change. These are difficult but necessary decisions.

8. Measure the change process :

Throughout the change management process, a structure should be put in place to measure the business impact of the changes and ensure that continued reinforcement opportunities exist to build proficiencies. You should also evaluate your change management plan to determine its effectiveness and document any lessons learned.

18.8 ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT :

Organization development is the study of successful organizational change and performance. OD emerged from human relations studies in the 1930s, during which psychologists realized that organizational structures and processes influence worker behavior and motivation.

Organizational (or organization) Development or simply O.D. is a technique of planned change.

It seeks to change beliefs, attitudes, values and structures-in fact the entire culture of the organization — so that the organization may better adapt to technology and live with the pace of change.

R. Beckhard defines O.D. as a change strategy which is :

- (i) Planned.
- (ii) Organization-wide.
- (iii) Managed from the top to increase organization effectiveness and health through planned interventions in the organization's processes, using behavioral science knowledge.

18.9 CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT :

1. Planned Change :

Organizational development (OD) is an educational strategy for bringing about planned change. Planned change concept makes it different from other approaches for change in organizations.

2. Attention on the Whole Organisation :

This change covers the entire organisation. Organizational Development is the development of the whole organisation so that it can respond to change effectively. OD tends to ensure that all parts of the organisation are well coordinated in order to solve the problems and opportunities that are brought by change.

3. Long Range Change :

OD is a long term process. It may take months or years to implement it. OD is never intended to be a stopgap arrangement or measure. O.D. is a long term approach (of 3 to 5 years period) and is meant to elevate the organization to a higher level of functioning by improving the performance and satisfaction of organization members.

4. Systems Orientation :

OD is concerned with the various groups in the organisation and their interactions with each other. It is concerned with formal as well as informal or social relationships. It is concerned with group structures, processes and attitudes. OD emphasizes on the relationships among the groups not on the groups themselves.

5. Change Agent :

The services of outside experts are obtained, generally, to implement the OD process. In OD, "Do it yourself" programmes are discouraged. When the primary change agent is a consultant from outside the organisation, he can operate independently without ties to the

organizational hierarchy and politics of the organisation. The personnel director is the internal agent of the organisation who coordinates the programme with the management and the external agent.

As the external agent also works with the management, there is a three way relationship of the personnel director, management and the outside consultant as they develop the OD programme. Very rarely, an internal change agent is used by the organisation, who usually is a specialist on the personnel staff.

6. Action research :

It entails what its name describes – research and action. Action research is the process of systematically collecting research data about an ongoing system relative to some objective, goal or need of that system. Feeding these back into the system, taking actions by altering selected variables within the system based both on the data and on the data and on hypotheses and evaluating the results of actions by collecting more data.

7. Problem Solving :

OD emphasizes on problem solving rather than just theoretical discussion of the problems. The focus on real, ongoing problems rather than the theoretical or artificial ones is called actions research. Action research is a very important feature of OD. Sometimes, OD is called organizational improvement through action research.

Experiential learning or learning through experience

In the traditional approaches, training was provided to the people by lecture and discussion method, in which people talk about only abstract ideas. But in OD, particularly learn by experiencing in the training environment the kind of human problems they face on the job. This approach tends to produce more changed behaviour than the traditional approach. Theory is also necessary and desirable, but the ultimate test is how it applies in real practice. These answers are provided by OD.

8. Collaborative Management :

In contrast to the traditional management structure where orders are issued at upper levels and simply carried out by low levels, OD stresses collaboration among levels. In OD, organizations are viewed in a systems perspective.

9. Group Process :

In OD, an effort is made to improve interpersonal relations, open communication channels, build trust and encourage responsiveness to others. For this OD relies on group processes like group discussions, inter group conflicts, confrontations and procedures for co-operations.

10. Organizational Culture :

OD assumes that the culture of every organisation is different from the culture of the other organizations. The assumption that a particular solution can be applied to the problems of all the organization is generally not made in OD. Instead the culture of each organisation must be understood and relations consistent with culture be developed.

11. Feedback :

In OD, feedback is given to all the participants about themselves, which provides them a basis for their next activities. They generally base their decisions on this concrete data. With the help of feedback of information, employees will be encouraged to understand a situation and take self corrective action before somebody else tells them what to do.

12. Situational and Contingency Oriented :

OD is flexible and pragmatic, adapting the actions to fit particular needs. Although some occasional OD change agent may have to impose a single best way on the group, there is, usually, open discussion of several better alternatives rather than a single best way.

13. Team Building :

The basic objective of OD is to build better team work throughout the organisation. OD tries to tie all the groups, small and large, working in the organisation, together to make one integrated and cooperative group. If any groups have some differences, OD will help them to find out the ways for solving the differences. The result of effective team work will be improved organizational performance.

18.10 BENEFITS OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT :

Increasing productivity and efficiency comes with many benefits. One of the best ways to encourage positive results in these metrics is by using a well-thought-out organizational development structure. Organizational development is used to equip an organization with the right tools so that it can adapt and respond positively (profitably!) to changes in the market. The benefits of organizational development include the following:

1. Continuous development :

Entities that participate in organizational development continually develop their business models.

Organizational development creates a constant pattern of improvement in which strategies are developed, evaluated, implemented, and assessed for results and quality. In essence, the process builds a favorable environment in which a company can embrace change, both internally and externally. The change is leveraged to encourage periodic renewal.

2. Increased horizontal and vertical communication :

Of considerable merit to organizational development is effective communication,

interaction, and feedback in an organization. An efficient communication system aligns employees with the company's goals, values, and objectives.

An open communication system enables employees to understand the importance of change in an organization. Active organizational development increases communication in an organization, with feedback shared continuously to encourage improvement.

3. Employee growth :

Organizational development places significant emphasis on effective communication, which is used to encourage employees to effect necessary changes. Many industry changes require employee development programs. As a result, many organizations are working toward improving the skills of their employees to equip them with more market-relevant skills.

4. Enhancement of products and services :

Innovation is one of the main benefits of organizational development and is a key contributing factor to the improvement of products and services. One approach to change is employee development – a critical focal point is a reward for motivation and success.

Successful engagement of employees leads to increased innovation and productivity.

Through competitive analysis, consumer expectations, and market research, organizational development promotes change.

5. Increased profit margins :

Organizational development influences the bottom line in many different ways. As a result of increased productivity and innovation, profits and efficiency increase. Costs come down because the organization can better manage employee turnover and absenteeism. After the alignment of an entity's objectives, it can focus entirely on development and product and service quality, leading to improvements in customer satisfaction

18.11 SUMMARY :

The OD literature has directed considerable attention to leading and managing change. The planned change does not come automatically; rather there are many forces in individuals, groups and organisation which resist such change. The change process will never be successful unless the cooperation of employees is ensured. Therefore, the management will have to create an environment in which change will be amicably accepted by people. If the management can overcome the resistance the change process will succeed. In a group process, there are always some forces who favor the change and some forces that are against the change. Thus, equilibrium is maintained. Kurt Lewin calls in the "field of forces". Lewin assumes that in every situation there are both driving and restraining forces which influence any change that may occur. Driving Forces are those, forces, which affect a situation by pushing in a particular direction. These forces tend to initiate the change and keep it going. Restraining Forces act to restrain or

decrease – the driving forces. Equilibrium is reached when the sum of the driving forces equals the ‘sum of the restraining forces.

18.12 KEY WORDS :

Change Agent : Person who attempts to alter some aspects of an organisation or an environment.

Magnitude of Change : Minute alterations in the operation, to quantum change.

Unfreezing : The forces, used for maintaining the status quo in the organisational behavior, are reduced by refuting the present attitude.

18.13 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Kurt Lewin suggests that planned change is a three stage process. Describe these stages.
2. Describe the various sources in the business environment from which impetus for planned change has come in the recent years.
3. Describe forces of change.
4. Write short note on organisational level of change.

18.14 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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8. Buchanan & Huczynski : Organizational Behaviour-An Introductory Text, 5th Edition, 2004, Prentice Hall
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Dr. V. Naga Nirmala

LESSON – 19
ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To Understand the Types of Conflict
- ✓ To Learn the process of Conflict
- ✓ To Discuss the Sources and Impact of Conflict
- ✓ To Study the Modes of Conflict Management

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 19.1 Introduction
- 19.2 Types of Conflict
 - 19.2.1 Conflict between Individuals
 - 19.2.2 Conflict between an Individual and a Group
 - 19.2.3 Conflict between Groups within an Organisation
 - 19.2.4 Conflict between Organizations
- 19.3 The Process of Conflict
- 19.4 Conflictive and Conflict-management Behaviour
- 19.5 The Impact of Conflict
- 19.6 Sources of Conflict
 - 19.6.1 Competition for Limited Resources
 - 19.6.2 Diversity of Goals
 - 19.6.3 Task Interdependence
 - 19.6.4 Sequential interdependence
 - 19.6.5 Reciprocal interdependence
- 19.7 Modes of Conflict Management
 - 19.7.1 Conflict-containment Strategies
- 19.8 Summary
- 19.9 Key words
- 19.10 Self Assessment questions
- 19.11 Suggested readings

19.1 INTRODUCTION :

Life is a neverending process of one conflict after another. Remember the time when you were a small child and had to choose between a tricycle and a cricket set or say, a set of dolls and a new frock for a birthday present. That was probably your first exposure to a conflict situation. Of course, this is a simplistic example of a conflict, but has life been the same since? Probably not. Think back and recall how each succeeding conflict in your life over the years has, been increasingly complex.

Conflict is a theme that has occupied the thinking of man more than any other with the exception of God and love. Conflict has always been widespread in society but it is only recently that it has generated a lot of interest and has been the focus of research and study. We are living in the age of conflict. Every day the choices available to us regarding any decision are increasing in number. You may have wanted to become a manager, an entrepreneur or a computer scientist. On the other hand, your father might have wanted you to become a doctor, a lawyer or a chartered accountant.

Thus you faced a conflict not only at an intrapersonal level, in terms of the various choices confronting you, but also at an interpersonal level-your choice vs. your father's choice of a career for you.

Conflict is not confined at the individual level alone but is manifesting itself more and more in organisations. Employees have become more vociferous in their demands for a better deal. Various departments in an organisation face a situation full of conflicts due to a number of reasons like goal diversity, scarcity of resources or task interdependence etc.

Management today is faced with the awesome responsibility of ensuring optimum levels of growth and productivity in an environment that is full of conflicting situations. A survey suggests that the modern manager spends over 20% of his time handling one form of conflict or the other. Top and middle level managers in the same survey have pointed out the importance of conflict management skills. We hope that the knowledge you will gain from this Unit will equip you better to manage conflict situations more deftly at your workplace.

19.2 TYPES OF CONFLICT :

Conflict within an Individual You can locate conflict at various levels. There could be conflict within oneself-the intrapersonal conflict. Basically, there are three types of such conflicts. You may have an excellent job offer in a city you are not willing to go to. In such a case, you are attracted to and repelled by the same object-an approach-avoidance conflict.

Similarly you may be attracted to two equally appealing alternatives like seeing a movie or going for a picnic-an approach-approach conflict. You may also be repelled by two equally unpleasant alternatives like the threat of being dismissed if you fail to report against a friendly colleague who is guilty of breaking the organisation's rules an avoidance-avoidance conflict.

19.2.1 Conflict between Individuals :

Conflict can also take an interpersonal form. Conflict between individuals takes place owing to several factors, but most common are personal dislikes or personality differences. When there are only differences of opinion between individuals about task-related matters, it can be construed as technical conflict rather than interpersonal conflict. Of course, technical and interpersonal conflicts may influence each other due to role-related pressures. The sales manager may put the blame for low sales volume on the production manager not meeting his production schedule and may start disliking the production manager as an incompetent person. It is often very difficult to establish whether a conflict between two parties is due to manifest rational factors, or it emanates from hidden personal factors.

19.2.2 Conflict between an Individual and a Group :

These types of intragroup conflicts arise frequently due to an individual's inability to conform to the group norms. For example, most groups have an idea of a "fair day's work" and may pressurise an individual if he exceeds or falls short of the group's productivity norms. If the individual resents any such pressure or punishment, he - could come into conflict with other group members. Usually, it is very difficult for an individual to remain a group-member and at the same time, substantially deviate from the group norm. So, in most cases, either he conforms to the group norm or quits (or is rejected by) the group. Of course, before taking any such extreme step, he or the other group members try to influence each other through several mechanisms leading to different episodes of conflict (much to the delight of the researchers in this field called Group Dynamics).

19.2.3 Conflict between Groups within an Organisation :

Intergroup conflicts are one of the most important types of conflict to understand, as typically, an organisation is structured in the form of several interdependent taskgroups. Some of the usually chronic conflicts in most of the organizations are found at this level, e.g., Union vs. Management, one Union vs. another Union; one functional area like production vs. another functional area like maintenance; direct recruits vs. promotees, etc. The newly emerging field of Organizational Politics has started systematically investigating such types of conflict and in a later section on the effects of conflict we shall give examples of what happens to groups when their conflicts are not solved.

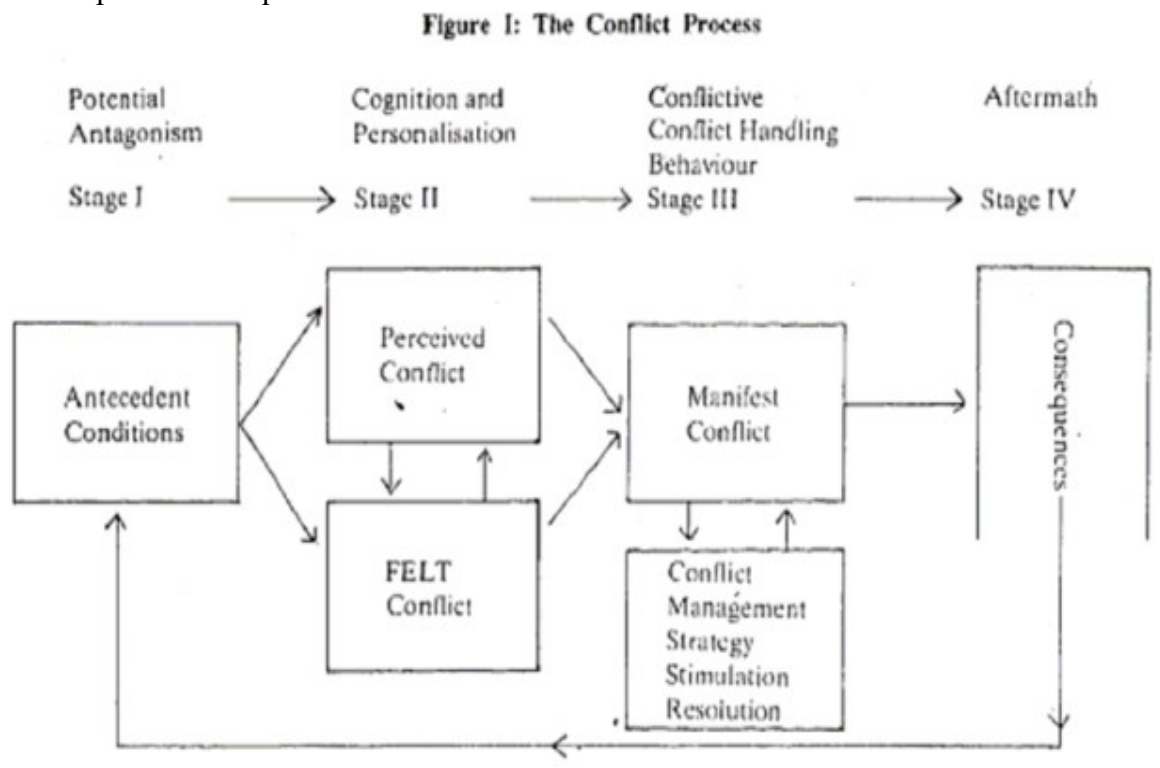
19.2.4 Conflict between Organisations :

Conflict between organizations is considered desirable if limited to the economic context only. The laissez-faire economy is based on this concept. It is assumed that conflict between organisations leads to innovative and new products, technological advancement, and better services at lower prices. However, in this Unit we shall refrain from probing into this macro-level conflict.

19.3 THE PROCESS OF CONFLICT :

The nature of intrapersonal conflict is of very high significance and the knowledge of mechanisms available to resolve it is immensely important in improving personal effectiveness. In this Unit; however, our focus will be on interpersonal, intragroup and intergroup conflicts as these types directly influence effectiveness of an organisation.

For a conflict to exist it must be perceived by the parties to it. If no one 'is aware of a conflict then it is generally agreed that no conflict exists. Still, does, a mere awareness of opposing goals, or differences of option, or antagonistic feelings imply that there is a conflict? It would be easier for you, to understand conflict, if you view it as a dynamic process which includes antecedent conditions, cognitive states, affective states and conflicting behaviour. Have a look at Figure I on the conflict process and you will be able to describe and analyse conflict between two parties individuals, groups or organisations-in a chain of episodes which tend to unfold in a particular sequence.



A) Potential Antagonism :

The first stage is the presence of antecedent conditions that create opportunities for conflict to arise. They need not necessarily lead to conflict and may be present in the absence-of conflict as well. Some of these antecedent conditions which we shall discuss refer to scarcity of resources, heterogeneity of members and diversity of goals, values, perception; degree of dependence between groups; insufficient exchange of information, etc.

B) Cognition and Personalisation :

The antecedent conditions may or may not lead to conflict. They must be perceived as threatening if conflict is to develop. The situation may be ignored if it is seen as minimally threatening. Moreover, if a conflict is perceived, it does not mean that it is personalised ("felt conflict"). However, if feelings are generated, they tend to influence perception of the conflict. It is at the felt level, when individuals become emotionally involved and parties experience feelings of threat, hostility, fear or mistrust.

19.4 CONFLICTIVE AND CONFLICT-MANAGEMENT BEHAVIOUR :

Manifest behaviour is the action resulting from perceived and/or felt conflict. At this stage, a conscious attempt is made by one party to block the goal achievement of the other party. Such behaviour may range from subtle, indirect and highly controlled forms of interference to more open forms of aggressive behaviour like strikes, riots and war. Most conflict-handling behaviours are displayed in several forms like resignation and withdrawal, appeasement and compromise, confrontation and collaboration, etc. These behaviours are often referred to as conflict management styles and stem from the strategies of conflict stimulation or conflict resolution.

Aftermath

The interplay between different forms of overt conflict behaviour and conflict handling strategies of stimulation or resolution influence the consequences. These consequences (in terms of performance of the group, the level of satisfaction and Management of Organizational Conflicts quality of relationship in the involved parties, change of structure and policies etc.) in turn influence the antecedent conditions and probability of future conflict.

Sometimes, the aftermath sows the seeds of yet another conflict episode in which case the entire process is repeated.

The four-stage conflict-process model is a very useful framework to understand the episode of any conflict. On the basis of such a framework you can now define conflict as the process which begins when A, as one party perceives that B, as the other party, is making some conscious efforts to frustrate A in pursuing his interest.

At this stage, you might be tempted to ask quite a few questions about the role of conflict in groups and organisations. Can you avoid all conflicts or are they inevitable? Is it at all good to have any conflict? Who is primarily responsible in allowing a conflict to take place? What should be the role of a manager once it arises? These are very important questions which people tend to answer in one way or the other depending upon the views they hold about conflict. The views about conflict itself are "conflicting".

The Traditional View

The traditional view, prevalent in the 1930s-1940s, regarded all conflicts as harmful and evil. Conflict was viewed negatively and was associated with violence, turbulence, agitation, destruction and irrationality. It was believed that conflict indicated a malfunctioning within the organisation and that the appearance of conflict was the consequence of the management's failure to bind the employees and the organisation together and failure to communicate to them the commonality between the individual and organisation interests. Had the management corrected those lapses, according to the traditionalists, there would have been no conflict, and the organisation would have been able to function as a smooth integrated whole. In fact, Frederick Taylor, the father of "Scientific Management" was of the opinion that if the principles of scientific management were properly applied, then the age-old conflict between labour and management would disappear. The traditionalist view offers a rather simplified approach to conflict. Since all conflict is bad and is to be avoided, then we need merely isolate the factors that cause conflict and eliminate them.

Research studies have provided evidence to dispute this viewpoint, yet many of us continue to believe that conflict is unnecessary and is to be always avoided.

The Behavioural View

The, behavioural school of thought argues that conflict is the logical and inevitable outcome in any organisation and as such should be accepted. The conflict theory was dominated by the behaviorist approach from the late 1940s through the mid-1970s. At this stage, you might be tempted to ask quite a few questions about the role of conflict in groups and organisations. Can you avoid all conflicts or are they inevitable? Is it at all good to have any conflict? Who is primarily responsible in allowing a conflict to take place? What should be the role of a manager once it arises? These are very important questions which people tend to answer in one way or the other depending upon the views they hold about conflict. The views about conflict itself are "conflicting". In this section, we shall examine these views and their impact on management practices.

The interactionist View

The thinking currently prevalent about conflict has been labelled as the interactionist view. In contrast to the behaviouralist view which merely accepts conflict as inevitable, the interactionists not only accept conflict but also encourage it. However, they maintain that conflict must be regulated so that it does not get out of control producing dysfunctional consequences. The inevitability of conflict results from the interaction between organizationally imposed struggle for limited rewards (e.g., status, responsibility or power) and innate aggressive and competitive instincts in people. Against this perspective, the interactionists maintain that if harmony, peace, tranquility and cooperativeness prevail in a situation for a long time, the group is prone to become nonresponsive to innovation and change. To shake the group out of its

complacency and to make it viable, self-critical and creative, an ongoing minimum level of conflict must be maintained. Advocates of interactionist view emphasize that the mission of management is effective goal attainment, not the creation of harmony and cooperation. So, a manager's task is not to eliminate or reduce conflict but to manage it in such a manner so that its beneficial effects are maximized and its negative or harmful aspects are minimized. Such conflict management may even include stimulation of conflict where absence of conflict may hamper an organization's innovation and creativity and thus prevent it from reaching an optimal level of performance

19.5 THE IMPACT OF CONFLICT :

The behaviouralists maintained that since an organisation was composed of individuals and they had different perceptions of goals and differing values, conflict was bound to arise in the organisation. Managers of various departments had separate priorities and conflicting ideas about resource allocation. Hence conflict was the unavoidable outcome. Subordinates may clash with the manager over whether the work can be accomplished in the given period of time or not. They might even argue with subordinates at their own level over the best possible way to do a given job. Thus, according to the behavioralists, conflict was an unavoidable outcome but at the same time they believed that conflict need not always be detrimental. Under some circumstances it could focus on problems and instigate a search for better and more innovative solutions to problems. Though the behavioralists conceded that conflict could lead to more creativity in problem solving and could be beneficial to organisation under certain conditions, yet they perceived conflict as harmful something to be resolved once it arose. Their views about human nature were that people are essentially good; trust, cooperation and goodness are given in human nature. According to the behaviouralist, the major antecedent conditions which induce aggressiveness and conflict in people are the faulty policies and structure resulting in distortion and breakdown in communication. Hence the manager's role in resolving conflict is to restore understanding, trust and openness between parties.

19.6 SOURCES OF CONFLICT :

In the earlier sections, you have seen that it would be naive to think that conflicts in an organisation take place simply due to lack of understanding between people. A large number of potential sources of conflict exist in organizational life as antecedent conditions and realistic basis for some conflicts. In this section, we shall quickly review some such sources.

19.6.1 Competition for Limited Resources :

Any group exists for the purpose of attaining some goals with the help of available resources. These resources may be tangible like men, materials, and money or intangible like power, status or the manager's time. No organisation is capable of providing all the resources demanded by various units. Resources are limited and different groups have to compete for these scarce resources and many conflicts arise from this source.

19.6.2 Diversity of Goals :

Groups in organisation have different functions to perform and as such they develop their own norms and goals. Theoretically the achievement of these goals should achieve overall organisational goals but, often, in real life the reverse is true. Goals of one group are incompatible to the goals of another group. Take, for example, a company which manufactures electric fans that has a seasonal demand. Three departments marketing, production and finance are involved. Since the demand for the product is seasonal, the marketing manager would like to have sufficient stock during the season. The production department has to gear up its capacity during the season but because of a tight labour market finds it difficult to hire labour temporarily and resorts to employ people on a permanent basis. This creates another problem. The finance manager says that as the storage costs are high it is expensive to keep stock build up in the slack season, and maintaining the production line during slack season imposes an additional burden.

This example shows that each department develops its own goals, which may conflict with another department's goals and one department may try to achieve its goals at the expense of another. This happens quite often when the reward system is linked to group performance rather than to overall organisational performance.

19.6.3 Task Interdependence :

Groups in an organisation do not function independent of one another. They have to interact with one another in order to accomplish their tasks. The sales department will have nothing to sell unless the production people produce goods and goods cannot be produced unless the financial department comes up with the money to buy raw materials. Thus, smooth interaction between various groups is essential for the efficient functioning of the organisation. Three types of interdependence can cause intergroup conflict-pooled, sequential and reciprocal. Pooled interdependence exists when two work groups may not directly interact with each other but are affected by each other's actions. For example, when one independent product group performs poorly, all other groups may suffer financially, this can happen when rewards are contingent upon collective performance.

19.6.4 Sequential interdependence occurs when one group's performance depends on another group's prior performance. In a construction project, for example, the excavating team must prepare the foundation before the masons can work on the building structure. Since the masons depend on the excavators, conflict between the groups can occur when the excavators' work is delayed.

19.6.5 Reciprocal interdependence occurs when two or more groups are mutually interdependent in accomplishing their tasks. For example, in developing and marketing a new product, three major departments (marketing, production and research) depend on each other to perform their tasks. Information possessed by one department is needed by another department. For example, the research department needs market information from the marketing department,

and marketing needs research to provide customer services. When one group is unable to meet the expectations of another group, intergroup conflict usually results.

19.7 MODES OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT :

Stimulating Productive Conflict Most of us since childhood have been taught to avoid conflict and even disagreement, How many times have you heard the statements "Don't Argue", "Stop fighting" or "It's better to turn the other cheek"? However, this tendency to avoid conflict is not always productive and there are times when there is a need to stimulate conflict. In an interesting experiment, series of groups were formed to tackle a problem. Some groups contained a planted member to challenge the majority opinion, some groups did not have. Without fail, all groups that had a planted member came up with a more perceptive solution than the other groups. However when the groups were asked to drop a member, all groups that had a planted member chose to drop the dissenting member despite clear evidence that the conflict was beneficial. Such resistance to conflict is what managers have to overcome in stimulating productive conflict. Robbins (1978) suggested the following as signs where conflict stimulation is needed :

1. The organisation is filled with "yes men".
2. Employees are afraid to admit ignorance.
3. Compromise is stressed in decision making.
4. Managers put too much emphasis on harmony and peace.
5. People are afraid of hurting the feelings of others.
6. Popularity is given more importance than technical competence.
7. People show great resistance to change.
8. New ideas are not forthcoming.
9. There is an unusually low rate of employee turnover

19.7.1 Conflict-containment Strategies :

Using Representatives :

One of the strategies you can use to contain conflict is the use of representatives. In order to decide an issue, you can meet with representatives of the opposing groups rather than deal with the groups in their entirety. The rationale is that the representatives know the problems and can argue the groups' points of view accurately and forcefully.

Although this seems to be a logical way of proceeding, the research on the use of representatives as a means of solving intergroup conflict is fairly negative. Representatives are not entirely free to engage in compromise; rather, they must act out of loyalty and are motivated to win (or at least avoid defeat) even though a solution to the intergroup problem may be

sacrificed in the process. A representative who "gives in" is likely to face suspicion or rejection from group members, so if a representative cannot win, he or she will try to deadlock a solution or at least forestall defeat.

Management of Organisational Conflicts :

Although individual representatives have difficulty in negotiating an agreement because of their fear of rejection by their groups, two situational factors can increase the effectiveness of this strategy. First, the use of group representatives from each side can help to overcome individual anxiety about group rejection. The members of each team can provide mutual support when they need to make concessions in order to achieve agreement. Also, groups of negotiators may receive broader support and trust from their respective sides, since each representative may represent a different constituency or bring a different expertise to the negotiations. Most labour negotiations involve several representatives of both management and labour.

Resolving conflict through representatives is more effective before positions become fixed or are made public. After positions become fixed, representatives become even more intransigent, and "given in" is more likely to be attributed to the personal failure of the representatives than to situational factors.

Structuring the Interaction :

Some managers assume that one way to decrease conflict is to increase the amount of contact between the groups (if the groups interacted more, they would like each other better and fight less). In reality, increased interaction can merely add fuel to the fire; the two groups spend their time looking for additional reasons to reinforce their negative stereotypes of each other:

However, structuring the interaction between the groups can be effective in resolving conflict. Providing a framework on how many issues are discussed and the manner in which they are discussed can facilitate conflict resolution. There are many ways to structure the interaction between groups to deal with conflict; some of the most effective strategies include: (a) decreasing the amount of direct interaction between the groups in the early stages of conflict resolution; (b) decreasing the amount of time between problem-solving meetings; (c) decreasing the formality of the presentation of issues; (d) limiting the recitation of historic events and precedents and focusing instead on current issues and goals and (e) using third-party mediators.

All these strategies allow some conflict to surface but prevent it from getting out of hand and reduce hardening of the groups' positions. Decreasing the amount of direct interaction between the groups early in the conflict helps to prevent the conflict from escalating. Decreasing the amount of time between problem-solving meetings helps to prevent backsliding from tentative agreements. Decreasing the formality of the presentation of issues helps to induce a problem-solving, rather than a win-lose orientation to the conflict. Limiting how far back historically and how widely precedents can be cited helps to keep the focus on finding a solution to the current conflict. Finally, a mediator can act as a go-between, who transmits offers and

messages, helps the groups to clarify their positions, presents each group's position more clearly to the other, and suggests some possible solutions that are not obvious to the opposing parties.

Structuring the interaction is especially useful in two situations: (a) when previous attempts to discuss conflict issues openly led to conflict escalation rather than to problem solution; and (b) when a respected third party is available to provide and enforce some structure in the interactions between the groups.

Bargaining :

Bargaining is the process of exchanging concessions until a compromise solution is reached. Bargaining can lead to the resolution of a conflict, but usually without much openness on the part of the groups involved and without much real problem solving. Typically, in bargaining each side begins by demanding more than it really expects to get. Both sides realise that concessions will be necessary in order to reach a solution, but neither side wants to make the first concession because it may be perceived as a sign of weakness. Thus, each party signals a willingness to be flexible in exchanging concessions without actually making an explicit offer; a tacit proposal can be denied later if it fails to elicit a positive response from the other party. Bargaining continues until a mutually satisfactory agreement is reached, although such a solution can be reached without much open discussion of the conflict issues and without much effort to solve the underlying problems. Therefore, bargaining often results in a compromise agreement that fails to deal with the problem in a rational manner and is not in the long-term interests of either group.

For bargaining to be feasible at all as a conflict-resolution strategy, both parties must be of relatively equal power. Otherwise, one group simply will impose its will on the other, and the weaker group will have no means of obtaining concessions from the stronger one. Bargaining also is more likely to work if there are several acceptable alternatives that both groups are willing to consider. Otherwise, bargaining is likely to end in a deadlock.

19.7.2 Conflict-confrontation Strategies :

Problem Solving :

Problem solving is an attempt to find a solution that reconciles or integrates the needs of both parties who work together to define the problem and to identify mutually satisfactory solutions. In problem solving, there is open expression of feelings as well as exchange of task-related information. Alderfer (1977) summarises the most critical ingredients in successful problem solving :

1. Definition of the problem should be a joint effort based on shared fact finding rather than on the biased perceptions of the individual groups.
2. Problems should be stated in terms of specifics rather than as abstract principles.

3. Points of initial agreement in the goals and beliefs of both groups should be identified along with the differences.
4. Discussions between the groups should consist of specific, non-evaluative comments. Questions should be asked to elicit information, not to belittle the opposition.
5. The groups should work together in developing alternative solutions. If this is not feasible, each group should present a range of acceptable solutions rather than promoting the solution that is best for it while concealing other possibilities.
6. Solutions should be evaluated objectively in terms of quality and acceptability to the two groups. When a solution maximises joint benefits but favours one party, some way should be found to provide special benefits to the other party to make the solution equitable.
7. All agreements about separate issues should be considered tentative until every issue is dealt with, because issues that are inter-related cannot be settled independently in an optimal manner.

There are two preconditions for successful, integrative problem solving. The first is a minimal level of trust between the groups. Without trust, each group will fear manipulation and may not reveal its true preferences. Secondly, integrative problem solving takes a lot of time and can succeed only in the absence of pressure for a quick settlement. However, when the organisation can benefit from merging the differing perspectives and insights of the two groups in making key decisions, integrative problem solving is especially needed.

Organisational Redesign :

Redesigning or restructuring the organisation can be an effective, inter-group conflict-resolution strategy. This is especially true when the sources of conflict result from the coordination of work among different departments or divisions. Unlike the other strategies discussed so far, you may note, organisational redesign can be used both to resolve the conflict or to stimulate it.

One way of redesigning organisations is to reduce task inter-dependence between groups and to assign each group clear work responsibilities (i.e., create self-contained work-groups) to reduce conflict. This is most appropriate when the work can be divided easily into distinct projects. Each group is provided with clear project responsibilities and the resources needed to reach its goals. A potential cost of this strategy is duplication and waste of resources, particularly when one group cannot fully utilise equipment or personnel. Innovation and growth also may be restricted to existing project areas, with no group having the incentive or responsibility to create new ideas. reached without much open discussion of the conflict issues and without much effort

to solve the underlying problems. Therefore, bargaining often results in a compromise agreement that fails to deal with the problem in a rational manner and is not in the long-term interests of either group.

For bargaining to be feasible at all as a conflict-resolution strategy, both parties must be of relatively equal power. Otherwise, one group simply will impose its will on the other, and the weaker group will have no means of obtaining concessions from the stronger one. Bargaining also is more likely to work if there are several acceptable alternatives that both groups are willing to consider. Otherwise, bargaining is likely to end in a deadlock.

19.8 SUMMARY :

We have considered mainly various types of inter group conflicts, as these types are most pervasive and important from the point of view of organisation effectiveness. In keeping with our emphasis on intergroup conflict, we have defined conflict as a process which begins when A, as one party, perceives that B as the other party is making some conscious efforts to frustrate A in pursuing his interests or goals. Besides intergroup conflicts, there are other types of conflicts as well: Intraindividual, interpersonal, intergroup and between organisation. In general, conflict process has four stages of potential antagonism, cognition and personalization, conflictive and conflict-coping behavior, and conflict aftermath. We have examined three different views on conflict-traditional, behavioural and interactionist. The current view of conflict is that it is not only inevitable, but could be desirable as well. Depending upon the nature, intensity, duration and the way it is handled, it could be functional leading to higher goal attainment or dysfunctional leading to goal failure. There are different modes of managing conflict in an organisation. When a workgroup shows the symptoms of over-emphasizing conformity, compromise, consensus, popularity etc., there may be need for stimulating conflicts by manipulating communication channels, organisation structure and personal behaviour of the manager. These techniques are to be used to shake the group up from its slackened postures.

There are four distinct strategies of conflict resolution because as a manager you need to know when and how to resolve conflicts. While avoidance and defusion strategies allow little or no conflict into the open, containment and confrontation strategies deal with the conflict more openly and thoroughly. Which strategy is most effective depends on how critical the conflict is to task accomplishment and how quickly the conflict must be resolved. If the conflict arises from a trivial issue and/or must be resolved quickly, a conflict-avoidance or conflict-defusion strategy is most likely to be effective. If the conflict centres around an important work issue and does not need to be solved in a short period of time, a conflict-containment or conflict-confrontation strategy is most likely to be effective.

19.9 KEY WORDS :

Antecedent Conditions : The source of conflict where cause for conflict exists in an incipient form, but it need not necessarily lead to actual conflict.

Approach Approach Conflict : Conflict between two equally attractive choices.

Approach-Approach Conflict : Conflict between two equally attractive choices. repulsion towards the same object.

Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict : Conflict between two equally unpleasant choices, or in choosing the lesser evil.

Avoidance : Withdrawal from or suppressing conflict. Management of Organisational Conflicts

Bargaining : Is a conflict containment or resolution strategy that involves mutual compromise and concession.

Behavioural View of Conflict : The belief that conflict is an inevitable outcome in any group.

Conflict Aftermath : Refers to the consequences that different conflict handling strategies may have on the antecedent conditions. It may either resolve the conflict or make for future conflict.

Conflict Handling Behaviour : It refers to the conscious action of one party to the conflict in checking the other party from reaching his goals.

Conflict Resolution : Refers to the manner in which a manager could address himself to a conflict situation. The chief modes are avoidance, defusion, containment and confrontation.

Conflict Stimulation : Refers to a situation when common values are challenged. It can often be a useful way of re-examining one's position and discovering alternatives.

Confrontation Strategy : Is a strategy designed to uncover all the issues of the conflict and find a mutually acceptable solution. It can be accomplished through the openness of problem solving, or through a comprehensive organisation redesign.

Containment Strategy : Is a strategy of controlled conflict management where issues are selectively discussed through mediating representatives, or by structuring the interaction patterns or through bargaining.

19.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. What is the difference between functional and dysfunctional conflicts? How can one handle both?
2. Briefly review the process of conflict.
3. Discuss the influence of process on the outcomes in dealing with conflict in organisations.
4. Is conflict inevitable? If so, how should one deal with it'?
5. Analyse two instances of inter-departmental conflicts in your organisation. Examine the changes, if any, you notice in the sources, processes, strategies and outcomes.

19.11 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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Dr. V. Naga Nirmala

LESSON – 20
ORGANISATIONAL DISCIPLINE

LEARNING OBJECTIVES :

- ✓ To learn the Types of Organizational Discipline
- ✓ To understand the Methods of Organizational Discipline
- ✓ To know the Process of Discipline
- ✓ To analyse the Importance and Significance of Organizational Discipline
- ✓ To study the Management of the organizational discipline in the organizations

STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

- 20.1 Introduction
- 20.2 Types of organizational discipline
 - 20.2.1 Preventive discipline
 - 20.2.2 Corrective discipline
 - 20.2.3 Gradual discipline
 - 20.2.4 Progressive discipline
 - 20.2.5 Negative (punitive) discipline
 - 20.2.6 Positive (constructive) discipline
- 20.3 Methods of Organizational Discipline
 - 20.3.1 Self Discipline
 - 20.3.2 Task Discipline
 - 20.3.3 Group Discipline
 - 20.3.4 Imposed Discipline
 - 20.3.5 Technological Discipline
 - 20.3.6 Financial discipline
 - 20.3.7 Operational discipline
- 20.4 Process Discipline
 - 20.4.1 Employee Discipline
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 - 20.4.3 Administrative discipline
- 20.5 Importance of Organizational Discipline

- 20.6 Significance of organizational discipline
- 20.7 Management of the organizational discipline in the organizations
- 20.8 Summary
- 20.9 Key words
- 20.10 Self Assessment questions
- 20.11 Suggested Readings

20.1 INTRODUCTION :

Discipline is needed in the organization so that the organizational employees can work together in a systematic manner for achieving the goal and objectives of the organization. The opposite of the discipline is anarchy, where the employees do what they want without concern for the fellow employees. For achieving success, the organization depends on group cooperation, and cooperation cannot be achieved without discipline. Discipline is the structure and order within an individual or within a group which allows for true cooperation, real support of the mission and the members of the team or organization. It implies conforming with the code of conduct established by the organization. Discipline in the organization ensures productivity and efficiency. It encourages harmony and co-operation among employees as well as acts as a morale booster for the employees.

Discipline is a concept which differs according to the issue, employee, and situation. In terms of the definition of discipline, three different definitions are normally prevalent are in focus. The first is the self-healing, modifying, and regulating control mechanism which is known as self-discipline. The second is the motivation and motivation mechanism to control the person within the group, which is known as team discipline. The third is a type of punishment imposed as a result of an undesired act legally and educationally. The formation of disciplinary behaviour involves a complex and time-consuming process. Hence, efforts to develop disciplinary behaviour are necessary to be carried out in a continuous and comprehensive manner.

Discipline is understood differently by different people. Some people see it as a punishment measure which inculcates fear when they get involved in a wrong move while other people can regard it as compliance and regularity with rules and regulations. The concept of discipline in French origin corresponds to the meaning of strictness, path, procedure, method, education, submission, self-regulation, acting in accordance with the laws, rules and society order, bringing up and branch of science. Discipline is the actions which prevent and correct deviations from the organizational rules, regulations, policies, and norms of the employees and the sanctions they face when they act contrary to the organization order.

The first concepts which come to mind when it comes to discipline are sanctions and punishments. However, in the real sense, discipline is not a punishment for anti-social behaviour and tendencies. Because of the meaning of the path, procedure, method, and science, it is

actually an educational technique. Discipline means self-control, obeying the rules, and obedience. In another definition, discipline is an ability to control based on not performing actions which do not correspond to and support a structure to which the individual actually depends.

Organization thrives on team work, and without discipline, teams cannot function properly. Discipline acts as the backbone of the organization structure and maintains order. Organizational discipline, hence, can be explained as system of conducting the organizational proceedings by its employees who abide by the guidelines laid out by the organization. It imbibes a sense of obedience towards the organization which works instinctively under different circumstances.

Organization discipline is the force which prompts individuals or groups to observe rules, regulations, standards, and procedures deemed necessary for the organization. It means orderly and systematically conducting the different operations of the organization by the employees who strictly adhere to the necessary procedures. The employees work together as a team and cooperate harmoniously with each other so as to achieve organizational goal and objectives as well as mission and vision and they truly understand that the individual and group aims and desires are to match so as to achieve organizational success.

Organization discipline is the organization and programming of human activities in the organization for the achievement of a predetermined level of performance. The main purpose of the organizational discipline is to set the work performance standards of the employees and to encourage them to act responsibly in their workplaces. Discipline is self-control, self-sacrifice, and encouraged regular behaviour by the employees.

Organizational discipline is the practice of self-restraint and learning to follow the best course of action which can be not as per the desire of the employees. It is important as it binds the employees and also motivates them to respect the organization.

Organizational discipline is the force or fear of a force which deters the employee or a group of employees from doing things which are detrimental to the accomplishment of the goal and objectives of the organization. In other words, organizational discipline is the orderly conduct by the employees of the organization who adhere to its rules and regulations since they desire to cooperate harmoniously in forwarding the end which the organization has in view.

In team activities, where several individuals work towards the same goal, organizational discipline is of utmost importance. Objectives of organizational discipline are (i) improving and uplifting teamwork for the achievement of the goal and objectives, (ii) creating a sense of harmony among employees by making them follow the same set of procedures and instructions, and (iii) improving the sense of tolerance among employees. The features of organizational discipline are (i) training and education which improves individuals morally and mentally, (ii) controlling the natural instincts in certain situations like high pressure etc., (iii) earning

obedience by following a systematic procedure, (iv) preserving the order, and (v) training by instructing and controlling.

The success of the rules of discipline depends (i) on the existence of a high degree of cooperation between the management and the employees, (ii) on faith to believe in one another's motives, (iii) on the fulfillment of mutual obligation, (iv) on the management enlightened attitude towards the employees, and (v) over-all support from the employees' trade unions.

Organizational discipline is considered to be one of the most important prerequisites for achieving organizational effectiveness. A number of studies have tried to identify factors which can determine regulation of employee conduct and maintenance of organizational discipline. Amongst these factors the nature and style of leadership has attracted considerable attention. Different studies have reported a variety of procedures and approaches adopted by different styles of leadership to ensure discipline in the organization. For example, one of the studies has suggested that the industrial / new modernist model of leadership, relying heavily on a hierarchal structure and a designated chain of command, uses dominance and control to regulate employee conduct and increase organizational effectiveness. Control based leadership demonstrates decisiveness where each activity, process, and resource-use have to be monitored to check negligence which can harm the organization. Another study suggested that the organization failing to control deviant behaviour and ensure adherence to its work ethics can experience failure in overall organizational performance.

The organizational discipline is mainly governed by the employees' discipline which has five important objectives. These objectives are (i) to obtain a willing acceptance of the rules and regulations or procedures of the organization so that organizational goal and objectives can be achieved, (ii) to develop among the employees, a spirit of tolerance and a desire to make adjustments, (iii) to give direction or responsibility, (iv) to increase the working efficiency or morale of the employees so that their productivity is stepped up, the cost of is brought down, and the work quality is improved, (v) to create an environment of respect for the human personality or human relations. The organizational discipline is necessary for the smooth running of the organization, and for the maintenance of industrial peace which is the foundation of industrial democracy. Without this discipline, the organization cannot achieve success in its operations.

Good organizational discipline means that employees are willing to abide by rules and executive orders of the organization and behave in the desired fashion. Discipline implies the absence of chaos, irregularity, and confusion in the employees' behaviour in the organization. Organizational discipline implies obedience, orderliness, and maintenance of proper subordination among the employees.

Employee behaviour is the base of discipline in an organization. Every organization wants its employees' behaviour to be in conformity with the required system which it has prescribed in order to achieve the organizational goal and objectives. Hence, in brief, discipline

is the orderly conduct by the employees in an expected manner. The purpose of discipline is to encourage employees to behave sensibly at work, that is, adhere to rules and regulations.

As per one of the studies, 'organizational discipline is a force which prompts individuals or groups to observe rules, regulations, and procedures which are deemed to be necessary for the effective functioning of the organization'. Violation of rules, regulations, procedure and norms is considered as misconduct, which is, any act which is inconsistent with the fulfillment of the expressed and implied conditions of service, or is directly linked with the normal relationship of the management and the employees. This has a direct effect on the contentment or comfort of the employees at work or has a material bearing on the smooth and efficient working of the organization.

The objectives of the organizational discipline are

- (i) to obtain a willing acceptance of the rules, regulations and procedures of the organization by its employees so that organizational goals can be achieved,
- (ii) to impart an element of certainty despite several differences in informal behaviours pattern and other related changes in an organization, and
- (iii) to develop among the employees a spirit of tolerance and a desire to make adjustments.

Organizational discipline is an essential management tool necessary for the smooth and effective functioning of the organization. It facilitates efficiency and streamlines the operations of the organization. It helps the organization to move forward. It is also very important for peace and harmony in the organization. An organization devoid of discipline is in a mess of resources and nothing more. Organizational discipline, once instilled in the employees, helps in getting best out of them. Components of organizational discipline are shown in Fig 1.

Organizational discipline is that mental attitude and state of training which renders obedience instinct in the employees under all conditions. It is a state of order which is a result of regulations and rules. It is a learned behaviour and is founded upon respect for, and loyalty to properly constituted authority. While it is developed primarily by training, every feature of organization's life has its effects on the organizational discipline. It is normally indicated in an employee or group of employees by respect for the seniors, and by prompt and cheerful execution by subordinates of both in the letter and the spirit of legal orders of their lawful superiors.

Employees are to be disciplined to achieve their goals. Organizational discipline consists of a training which moulds, develops, strengthens, and perfects mental faculties and character of the employees. It involves placing team's goals above personal goals, being willing to accept orders from higher authority, and carrying out those orders effectively. Part of the job of the

employees is to make their fellow employees aware of the purpose and meaning of organizational discipline.

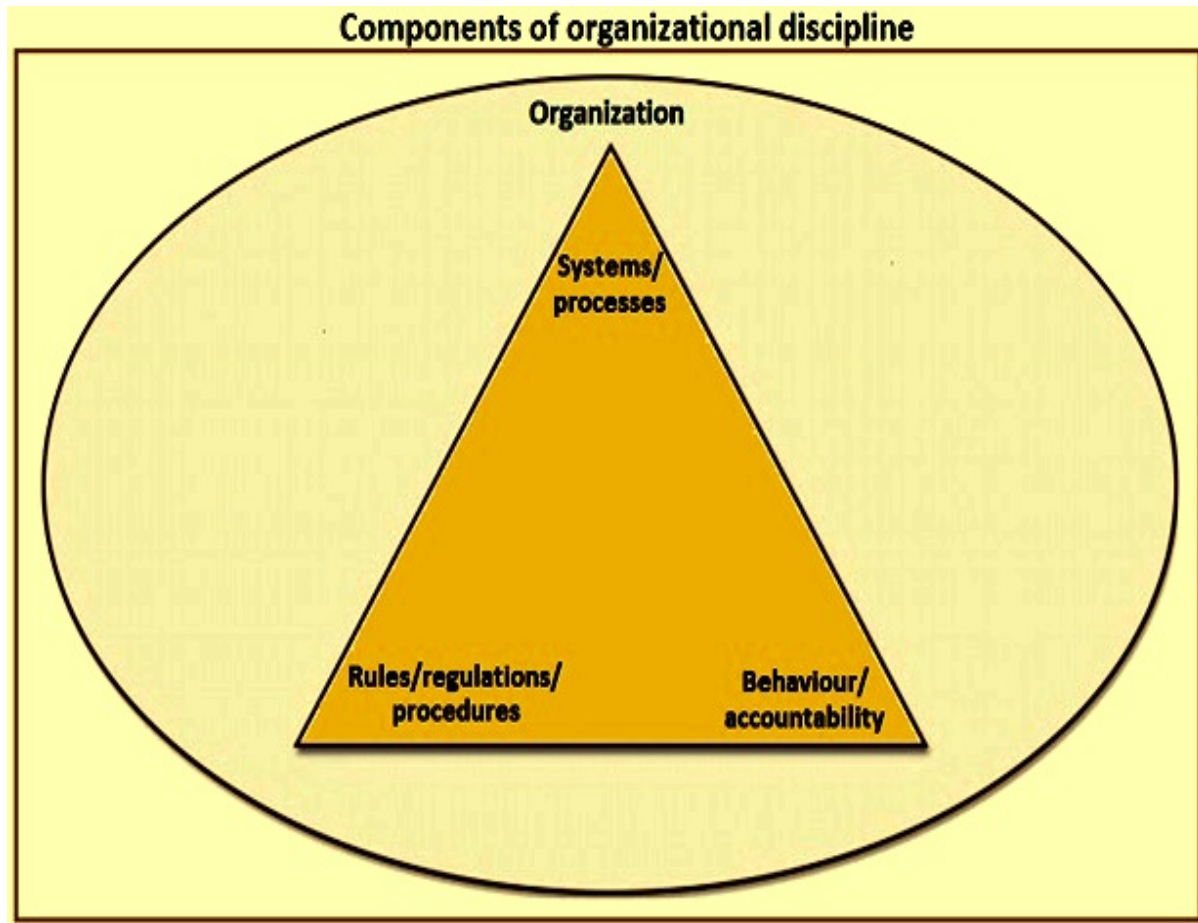


Fig. 1 Components of organizational discipline

The main features of organizational discipline are

- (i) training which is expected to produce a specific character or pattern of behaviour, especially training which produces moral or mental improvement,
- (ii) controlled behaviour resulting from disciplinary training,
- (iii) a systematic method to obtain obedience (iv) a state of order based upon submission to rules and authority, and (v) to train by instruction and control.

20.2 TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL DISCIPLINE :

Organizational discipline can be classified by several methods. As per one of the methods, the organization discipline can be classified under six headings according to their application, content and methods.

These are

- (i) preventive discipline,
- (ii) corrective discipline,
- (iii) gradual discipline,
- (iv) progressive discipline,
- (v) positive (constructive) discipline, and
- (vi) negative (punitive) discipline.

20.2.1 Preventive discipline :

The aim of this discipline is to establish a system which employees willingly abide by the rules and regulations of the organization, to develop and to prevent offense before it occurs. While creating rules of this type of discipline, the opinions of the employees are to be taken into account. Rules are to be as simple and straightforward as possible. These rules and regulations are to be communicated to all the employees and explained individually if necessary. This type of discipline provides a more effective discipline policy. This type of discipline adopts the way of preventing disciplinary problems before they occur due to their understanding.

20.2.2 Corrective discipline :

Corrective discipline is a disciplinary system focused on punishment to be applied in case of an offense. In this sense, corrective discipline is also called classical discipline, theocratic discipline, and negative discipline. The purpose here is to be a deterrent to prevent unintended behaviour in the future and to impose sanctions to intimidate.

20.2.3 Gradual discipline :

Gradual discipline is a type of discipline which aims to give the persons who commit the offense for the first time a chance to correct themselves, to warn and to make themselves correct. Otherwise, if the previously committed offense is repeated, the penalty increases exponentially.

20.2.4 Progressive discipline :

This discipline system involves a series of penalties with increasing severity every time an employee breaks the rules. Progressive discipline actions can include verbal counseling, verbal warning, written warning, monetary deductions, suspension and then termination as a last option.

20.2.5 Negative (punitive) discipline :

Negative discipline has its origins in ancient times. The basis of this approach is the argument that punishment prevents negative behaviours. In this method, threat and intimidation are at the forefront. The biggest criticism of the traditional discipline approach is that it is reactive. This disciplinary approach has several disadvantages. These are (i) employees become

inefficient when they work in fear of punishment, (ii) the punishment can be used as a means for a threat to blackmail, not disciplinary action, (iii) this system can cause managers to be seen as antipathic to employees, and (iv) managers who wish to escape from the negative environment of the penalty can ignore the offense committed.

20.2.6 Positive (constructive) discipline :

Developments such as the prominence of people's psycho-social needs, increasing the level of education and welfare, and increasing the impact of management approaches emphasizing the importance of human relations have led to the loss of the importance of classical punishment-oriented discipline. Positive discipline has emerged as a result of these developments. Self-discipline is a discipline model which focuses on positive behavioural points, based on the idea that there are no bad employees, only good with bad behaviour.

Positive style of discipline is a fairly new approach, with almost no place for punishment. Correction of unwanted behaviour is provided by providing consultant service to the person. In this, understanding can teach and strengthen good behaviour, and the person can be removed from bad behaviour without an oral or physical factor. Instead of fear and threat which are elements of punitive discipline, there are suggestions and recommendations. Positive discipline attaches importance to the dignity and honour of the employees. Another difference between positive discipline and negative discipline is that while negative discipline is normally applied to those who commit the offense and try to disrupt the order, positive discipline is carried out as an understanding which includes all employees since there is no punishment.

The aspects in which the positive discipline differs from negative discipline are (i) it does not force employees, (ii) it creates a sense of self-discipline and responsibility, (iii) it deals with the future, not the past, (iii) it does not threaten, but encourages, (iv) it is not separatist, but it is unifying which respect and security, (v) it holds the responsibility with the manager responsible for the solution of the problems, and (vi) it does not remain silent in the face of success, and rewards.

As per another method, the organization discipline can be classified as

- (i) self discipline,
- (ii) task discipline,
- (iii) group discipline, and
- (iv) imposed discipline.

20.3 METHODS OF ORGANIZATIONAL DISCIPLINE :

20.3.1 Self Discipline :

Self-Discipline is a willing and instinctive sense of responsibility which leads the employees to know what needs to be done. Getting to work on time, knowing the job, setting

priorities, and denying personal preferences for more important ones are the measures to determine how self disciplined the employees are. This is the highest order of all disciplines since it springs from the values which employees use to regulate and control their actions. The ideal situation is to motivate employees to willingly discipline themselves, and exercise self control and direction to accomplish the task. Self discipline indicates ideal situation where the employees themselves are motivated enough to regulate their actions like time management, priority setting etc. and the organization does not have to put in any extra effort.

20.3.2 Task Discipline :

Task discipline is a measure of how well the employees meet the challenges of their tasks. Task discipline needs the employees to have a strong sense of responsibility for doing their job to the best of their ability. Task discipline needs a situation in which the employees have to be responsible enough to do their job in the best way possible by them.

20.3.3 Group Discipline :

Group discipline means teamwork. Since majority of the jobs in the organization needs that the employees to work effectively as a team, and hence group discipline is very important.

20.3.4 Imposed Discipline :

Imposed discipline is the enforced obedience to legal orders and regulations. It is absolute necessary in case of emergencies when there is no time to explain or discuss an order. Training in organizational discipline teaches employees to carry out orders quickly and efficiently. This type of discipline prepares employees to accomplish a task in any situation and in any environment..

20.3.5 Technological Discipline :

It is the discipline needed to be followed for meeting the requirements of the technology employed at the work place. Without this discipline, processes go out of control making them unproductive and unsafe.

Each of the plant processes has its own set of the instructions, procedures, standards, and guidelines for its smooth functioning. This set of instructions, procedures, standards, and guidelines are made with the help of knowledge and experience gained over a period of time and following basic laws and practices established either with the help of scientific principles or by analyzing vast data collected over a period of time. The basic laws and practices are normally time tested and are normally accepted by all.

The importance of technological discipline at the workplace is increasing day by day. The cost of violation of technological discipline has become suicidal as the world is passing through a technological revolution, where the human life is becoming faster with each passing moment, where the processes and equipments are becoming larger and faster each day, and where the speeds of operations are increasing to the levels not been dreamt earlier. The safe working of the processes also needs adherence to a strict technological discipline.

20.3.6 Financial discipline :

It refers to how well the organization is able to conform its spending and saving to the plans which the organization has set to achieve its monetary goals. Financial discipline ensures effective utilization of the organizational funds. It also helps the organization to have funds available for the development work.

20.3.7 Operational discipline :

Operational discipline means complying with a set of 'well thought out' and 'well defined' processes, and consistently executing them correctly. DuPont defines operational discipline as 'the deeply rooted dedication and commitment by every member of the organization to carry out each task the right way every time'. In short, operational discipline can be stated as 'everyone in the organization doing it right every time'. It is an essential ingredient when trying to achieve operational excellence. Fig 2 shows how operational discipline leads to operational excellence.



Fig. 2 Operational discipline leads to operating excellence.

Operational discipline provides an organized and systematic way to complete tasks and implement operational changes through a fundamental set of procedures which are specific to the organizational unique product. Regardless of the final products of the organization, operational discipline increases reliability and decreases the risk of the occurrence of a high magnitude incident.

20.4 PROCESS DISCIPLINE :

Process discipline is the adherence to well-thought-out and well-defined processes which are executed daily. It is achieved through strictly following the work procedures, work instructions, and operation and maintenance manual. Process discipline is necessary for the achievement of process productivity, product quality, and safe and healthy work environment.

20.4.1 Employee Discipline :

Employee discipline means that employees are willing to abide by the organizational rules and executive orders and behave in the desired fashion. It implies the absence of chaos, irregularity, and confusion in the behaviour of the employees. The orderly conduct by the employees is in an expected manner. It is the orderly conduct by the employees who adhere to its

rules and regulations since they desire to cooperate harmoniously in forwarding the end which the organization has in view.

20.4.2 Workplace discipline :

Workplace discipline is the discipline which the employees are to observe at the workplace. It consists of those features of discipline which the employees are to observe at their workplace. There are two major features of the workplace discipline. These are (i) observation, without any deviations, the technical instructions, procedures, standards, guidelines, and practices of the technological processes which the employees are operating at their workplaces, and (ii) observation of the rules and regulations of the organization which the management has framed for the functioning of the organization.

20.4.3 Administrative discipline :

It is the orderly conduct of affairs by the employees of the organization who adhere to its necessary rules and regulations since they desire to cooperate harmoniously in forwarding the objectives of the organization and willingly recognize that in doing this, their objectives are also get brought into a reasonable unison with those of the organization. It is the process of training the employees so that they can develop self-control and can become more effective in their work. The objective of the administrative discipline is to obtain a willing acceptance of the employees for the rules, regulations and procedures of the organization so that organizational goals are attained.

Administrative discipline is one of the basic requirements for the organization to function efficiently. It is a part of a standard way of running of the organization. An organization without administrative discipline has a chaotic working and hence it cannot achieve its objectives and targets. Such organization project a poor image in front of its stakeholder.

The aims of the administrative discipline at the workplace is to ensure (i) conformance or adherence to the rules and directions of the organization, (ii) correcting the behaviour which does not conform to the rules and direction, (iii) re-asserting the authority of the management, (iv) setting of an example, and (v) punishing of the wrong doings. These aims can vary as per the needs of the organization as well as the circumstances of the employees' behaviour. Without adherence to administrative discipline at the workplace, the workplace becomes chaotic with the employees doing exactly what they want.

Administrative discipline also makes the management to take steps to discover the violations of the established rules and directions. During monitoring if some violations are discovered, then the management can take steps for effective enforcement of the rules and the directions of the organization.

Administrative discipline imparts an element of stability in the organization despite several differences in informal behaviours pattern of the employees. It develops among the

employees a spirit of tolerance and a desire to make adjustments. It inculcate in them giving and seeking of the direction and the responsibility. It creates an atmosphere of respect for the human personality and human relations. It increases working efficiency and morale of the employees so that their productivity is stepped up and the cost of production improved.

20.5 IMPORTANCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL DISCIPLINE :

Objectives of organizational discipline is to mould the behaviour of the employees by training and instruction to better achieve its goals. It is the managers' duty to explain to their reporting employees the necessary areas of improvement. This promotes employee wellbeing. Organizational discipline is important for the organization because of its following effects.

Protection having a disciplined work force the management ensures that the work environment in the organization is peaceful which provides a sense of security to the employees. Conduct of the employees in the organization also affects other employees. Organizational discipline is a way of protecting other employees who put in their time and talent at the workplace. With a clear and effective organizational discipline plan in place, employees know the consequences of their conduct. This streamlines providing of information about employee behaviour and provides a sense of security to all the employees.

Improves performance

A transparent organizational discipline system can deal effectively with problems like absenteeism, tardiness, missing deadlines, and not adhering to the code of conduct at the workplace. Organizational discipline indirectly helps employees to put their time to best use which results into their improved performance and the improved performance in turn results into higher efficiency and productivity.

Gain of the organization :

Other than ensuring protection, effective organizational discipline code creates a congenial environment in which employees can work. This increases their output, which translates into improved working of the organization. Also in the present day environment of easy and fast communication, the organization with a strong reputation of organizational discipline can retain employees as well as attract more talent.

Positive organizational discipline :

Tools for for organizational discipline are powerful and are to be used only in a positive way. The components for positive organizational discipline in the organization include communicating performance expectations and requirements to the employees, followed by giving oral reminders, written reminders and disciplinary leave of absence, suspension, and termination. The components are in increasing order of severity. The initial components provide support and time for the employees to correct their performance. If these do not succeed, more severe components are used.

Promotes appropriate behaviour :

A disciplined environment in the organization helps both the managers and employees to put forward their best behaviour which fits into the image of the organization. Managers are to strictly adhere to the rules of the organization in order to effectively lead those looking to them as examples. Employees who enter this type of administration know what the expectations are as well as the penalties for committing violations. This knowledge promotes appropriate actions and conduct.

Efficiency :

Efficiency is normally the output of the organizational discipline. Employees are to discipline themselves to work in a timely manner to produce quality output. Organization is to strive to cultivate a workplace in which standards are set which every employee in the organization is called upon to meet. This allows managers and employees to get things done. Organizational discipline needs concentration, time management, and orderliness, to which all the employees contribute to achieve high work efficiency.

Peaceful environment :

Peacefulness results when employees have workplace which is committed to the values. The organizational environment which does not issue specific guidelines for behaviour is frequently impulsive, erratic, and uncertain. It is extremely difficult for the managers to effectively lead the employees under these conditions. Organizational discipline encourages a pleasant organizational environment which promotes good management and employee relations.

Fairness :

Organizational discipline helps to produce an honest environment in which everyone is treated fairly. Employees do not have to fear being shouldered with an unfair quantity of tasks because set procedures are in place which calls for employees to share the load. Managers are less likely to play favourites in a disciplined environment as well, as they are subjected to the same conduct requirements as all others in the organization.

Ensures safety :

Safety in the organization is of vital importance. Managers do not want the employees to suffer preventable accidents. Organizational discipline helps the employees to abide all the occupational safety regulations and trains the employees appropriately in the safety procedures. It provides a disciplined environment which is necessary for a safe work place.

20.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL DISCIPLINE :

The significance of the organizational discipline in the organization is described below.

Creates awareness – Discipline Discipline brings awareness in the employees to do the job effectively and with good cheer. It brings best out of the employees by removing the laziness.

Solves organizational problems – Several organizational specially the discipline problems grow out of the failure of the management to inform employees what is expected from them. Organizational discipline helps the employees to learn the requirements of their job. It also increases respect towards the manager.

Good employment relationship – Organizational discipline builds a good employment relationship. Disciplined employees respond to leadership in a positive way. It also builds good teamwork and cooperation in the organization.

Positive attitude – Organizational discipline brings in positive attitude in the employees. Disciplined employees realize the meaning of punctuality. They understand corporate purpose and policy in a better way.

Strengthens self discipline – Organizational discipline strengthens self discipline in the employees. Several managers see the primary purpose of discipline as being to supplement and strengthen self-discipline within the employees and within each work group.

High morale – Employees have high morale due to the organizational discipline. It is the intention of the management to foster, and throughout at all times, the employment relationship, which helps the employees to have high morale. Employees' high morale in turn brings in self-discipline in every employee and group discipline within every work team.

Observation of rules – Organizational discipline is the force which prompts the employees to observe rules, regulations, and procedures which are necessary for the achievement of the goal and objectives of the organization. By observing rules, regulations, and procedures, employees do not carry out such activities which are destructive.

Meeting of the challenges – Organizational discipline brings in disciplined behaviour in the employees which is a precondition for the efficient and effective performance for the employees. Only disciplined employees can meet the various environmental challenges and contribute to organizational goal and objectives by putting up their best of efforts.

Harmonious human relations – Organizational discipline plays an important role in maintaining harmonious human relations in the organization. In fact, no organization can prosper without discipline. Discipline has been a matter of utmost concern for the organizational management. Some people believe that maintenance of discipline in the organization is the responsibility of only the higher management in the organization. But in actual practice, discipline is to be the concern of the employees at all the levels in the organization.

20.7 MANAGEMENT OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL DISCIPLINE IN THE ORGANIZATIONS :

Every organization has its own set of rules. The main purpose of these rules is to maintain order within the organization, to spread positive behaviours, and to prevent or reduce negative behaviours. The organizational discipline is to shape the behaviour of the employees through

education and training to achieve its goals better. It refers to the actions which are taken so that all the employees adopt the rules, regulations, procedures, standards, and policies of the organization. It is the adaptation of the organizational rules, regulations and criteria in the employees' behaviour.

The main purpose of the organizational discipline is to create a positive organizational environment based on mutual trust so that the organizational productivity can be kept at the highest level. The practices related to the organizational discipline are to ensure that the employees behave in accordance with the organizational performance standards expected from them so that the organizational goal and objectives can be achieved. In addition, when the organizational discipline is improperly applied in the organizations, it can cause problems such as low morale, anger, and polarization of managers and employees.

The term 'organizational discipline' includes (i) employees behave in accordance with the rules and standards of conduct acceptable to the organization, (ii) to ensure that employees comply with organizational rules and take corrective actions if they do not, (iii) an organizational structure which encourages employees to comply with the organization's standards, and (iv) an employee training and educational system for making the employees aware of the organizational rules, regulations, standards and procedures.

There are two basic principles which are applied for the organizational discipline in the organization. The first is that there is no harm to the organization as a whole, and the second is the protection of the rights of individual employees, which also means to ensure job security in some organizations.

An important issue is that there is no order and systematic working in the organization in the absence of organizational discipline and where there is no order, then freedom, and democracy cannot exist in the organization. Employees who oppose the rules adversely affect not only the organization, but also the effectiveness of other employees by pushing them to inefficiency.

Another important stage of the organizational discipline is the rewards. Unfortunately, the concept of reward and discipline are not considered together. However, reward is a very effective tool in ensuring the organizational discipline in the organization. On the other hand, when an employee, group, and organization are to be rewarded then the scope, degree, and size of the award are to be proportional to the success achieved.

To ensure the organizational discipline is widely accepted as a difficult issue for the managers. Organizational discipline ensures employees behave in an acceptable manner at the workplace and also adhere to the rules and regulations of the organization. Hence, these rules and regulations are very important elements which are used in carrying out the activities of the organization. There are some criteria which help the organization have in establishing and regulating the rules and regulations of the organizational discipline.

The criteria for the rules and regulations include

- (i) they are to be up to date,
- (ii) they are to be reasonable,
- (iii) they are to be prepared clearly in simple language which can be easily understood,
- (iv) they are to be available in written form,
- (v) they are to be flexible,
- (vi) positive statements are to be used in their content,
- (vii) they are to be prepared in harmony with the environment,
- (viii) they are to contribute to the performance of the work,
- (ix) Employees' opinions are to be sought while preparing them, and
- (x) they are to cover all factors affecting the operations of the organization.

Poorly designed systems and practices for the organizational discipline can lead to productivity losses and reduce employees' morale. Hence, the organization is required to apply a positive and preventive method. One of the studies has proposed a 'fiery stove rule' which states that a healthy and effective system for the organization discipline in the organization needs an urgent, consistent, advance warning system, timely and fair action, and positive approach. Organizational discipline system is to be applied without creating resentment to develop amongst the employees in the organization.

The organization which manages the organizational discipline system well can provide higher employee performance and efficiency. When fully implemented, the strategies followed for the organizational discipline system can protect qualified employees and improve the performance of the organization. There are several factors which affect the organizational discipline in the organization. These include individual, organizational, and environmental factors. The individual factors are personality, motivation, attitudes, expectations, and habits. The organizational factors include working environment, leadership, communication, reward system, and sanctions. The environmental factors include social environment, culture and family life.

However, there are some reasons which can relate to violations of the organizational discipline.

These reasons include

- (i) lack of knowledge of the applicable organizational disciplinary rules and regulations,
- (ii) misunderstanding or inappropriate interpretation of the organizational disciplinary rules and regulations,

- (iii) lack of complete knowledge and experience of how the employees perform their duties,
- (iv) employees are not fully informed about what is expected of them,
- (v) employees do not believe in the correctness of the method the works is being done,
- (vi) employees do not evaluate the work positively,
- (vii) employees are not aware of their own low performance,
- (viii) rewarding low-performing employees and not rewarding or even punishing high-performing employees,
- (ix) inattention, and irresponsibility,
- (x) lack of motivation,
- (xi) excessive stress, and
- (xii) personal issues.

General objectives of the organizational discipline system include (i) ensuring the proper functioning of the organization, (ii) facilitating the organizational work, (iii) ensuring that employees adhere to reasonable and acceptable standards of performance and behaviour, and (iv) in case of non-compliance with these standards there is provision of reasonable and fair action. Organizational discipline is to contribute to improving the performance of employees and fulfilling their job responsibilities. It is difficult for the organization to achieve high efficiency and performance levels before the requirements of the organizational discipline are established in the organization.

The starting point of an effective organizational disciplinary system is the correct selection of employees. The prerequisites of an effective discipline system need a good employee selection system, an effective motivation system, making the necessary rules and regulations, and raising the awareness of the employee that the rules are applied.

20.8 SUMMARY :

Organizational discipline is an indispensable element for organizations. The common aim of several efforts and practices in ensuring organization discipline in the organization is

- (i) to increase the efficiency of the organization,
- (ii) to prevent the negativities which can occur, and
- (iii) to provide a work environment where employees can work happier and more peaceful.

A balanced management style is to be shown in measuring organizational discipline. Lack of organizational discipline or excessive practice is not the right approach. In this sense, although

organizational discipline is used synonymously with punishment, punishment forms a part of the discipline concept and is a limited discipline tool.

Punishment is the practices which are applied by the management when

- (i) there is violation of the rules and regulations of the organization,
- (ii) fail to meet the required performance standard,
- (iii) act contrary to the established order, and
- (iv) to improve the attitude and behaviour of the personnel. Punishment is to be instructive, reminder and deterrent.

In the present day organization, a positive discipline model is needed. What is important in the organization discipline is that employees obey the rules and regulations at their own will. Applying organizational discipline by intimidating kills the creativity of the employee and causes the suppressed emotions of the employees to become resentment, hatred and hostility in the future. It is the organizational discipline to control the employee, direct and develop them in accordance with positive and organizational conditions.

20.9 KEY WORDS :

Organization discipline : Is the organization and programming of human activities in the organization for the achievement of a predetermined level of performance.

Preventive discipline : The aim of this discipline is to establish a system which employees willingly abide by the rules and regulations of the organization, to develop and to prevent offense before it occurs.

Corrective discipline : Corrective discipline is a disciplinary system focused on punishment to be applied in case of an offense

Gradual discipline : Gradual discipline is a type of discipline which aims to give the persons who commit the offense for the first time a chance to correct themselves, to warn and to make themselves correct. Otherwise, if the previously committed offense is repeated, the penalty increases exponentially

Progressive discipline : This discipline system involves a series of penalties with increasing severity every time an employee breaks the rules. Progressive discipline actions can include verbal counseling, verbal warning, written warning, monetary deductions, suspension and then termination as a last option

Negative discipline : Has its origins in ancient times. The basis of this approach is the argument that punishment prevents negative behaviours.

Positive (constructive) discipline : Developments such as the prominence of people's psycho-social needs, increasing the level of education and welfare, and increasing the impact of management approaches emphasizing the importance of human relations have led to the loss of the importance of classical punishment-oriented discipline.

20.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Briefly Discuss the Types of Organizational Discipline
2. Explain the Methods of Organizational Discipline
3. Describe the Process of Discipline
4. Discuss the Importance and Significance of organizational Discipline

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