



VELS



INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & ADVANCED STUDIES (VISTAS)
(Deemed to be University Estd. u/s 3 of the UGC Act, 1956)
PALLAVARAM - CHENNAI
INSTITUTION WITH UGC 12B STATUS

DCBBA-23

Organisational Behaviour



School of Management Studies and Commerce
Centre for Distance and Online Education
Vels Institute of Science, Technology and Advanced Studies (VISTAS)
Pallavaram, Chennai - 600 117

**Vels Institute of Science, Technology
and Advanced Studies**

Centre for Distance and Online Education

BBA & B.Com- ODL Mode
(Semester Pattern)

DCBBA-23: Organisational Behaviour
(4 Credits)

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February 2024 (First Edition)

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Printed at:

FOREWORD



Dr. Ishari K Ganesh
Chancellor

Vels Institute of Science, Technology and Advanced Studies (VISTAS), Deemed-to-be University, was established in 2008 under section 3 of the Act of 1956 of the University Grants Commission (UGC), Government of India, New Delhi.

VISTAS has blossomed into a multi-disciplinary Institute offering more than 100 UG & PG Programmes, besides Doctoral Programmes, through 18 Schools and 46 Departments. All the Programmes have the approval of the relevant Statutory Regulating Authorities such as UGC, UGC-DEB, AICTE, PCI, BCI, NCTE and DGS.

Our University aims to provide innovative syllabi and industry-oriented courses, and hence, the revision of curricula is a continuous process. The revision is initiated based on the requirement and approved by the Board of Studies of the concerned Department/School. The courses are under Choice Based Credit Systems, which enables students to have adequate freedom to choose the subjects based on their interests.

I am pleased to inform you that VISTAS has been rendering its services to society to democratize the opportunities of higher education for those who are in need through Open and Distance Learning (ODL) mode.

VISTAS ODL Programmes offered have been approved by the University Grants Commission (UGC) – Distance Education Bureau (DEB), New Delhi.

The Curriculum and Syllabi have been approved by the Board of Studies, Academic Council, and the Executive Committee of the VISTAS, and they are designed to help provide employment opportunities to the students.

The ODL Programme [B.Com., BBA, B.A(Hons)-Economics and B.A(Hons)-English] Study Materials have been prepared in the Self Instructional Mode (SIM) format as per the UGC-DEB (ODL & OL) Regulations 2020. It is highly helpful to the students, faculties and other professionals. It gives me immense pleasure to bring out the ODL programme with the noble aim of enriching learners' knowledge. I extend my congratulations and appreciation to the Programme Coordinator and the entire team for bringing up the ODL Programme in an elegant manner.

At this juncture, I am glad to announce that the syllabus of this ODL Programme has been made available on our website, www.vistascdoe.in, for the benefit of the student community and other knowledge seekers. I hope that this Self Learning Materials (SLM) will be a supplement to the academic community and everyone.

CHANCELLOR

FOREWORD



**Dr.S.Sriman Narayanan
Vice-Chancellor**

My Dear Students!

Open and Distance Learning (ODL) of VISTAS gives you the flexibility to acquire a University degree without the need to visit the campus often. VISTAS-CDOE involves the creation of an educational experience of qualitative value for the learner that is best suited to the needs outside the classroom. My wholehearted congratulations and delightful greetings to all those who have availed themselves of the wonderful leveraged opportunity of pursuing higher education through this Open and Distance Learning Programme.

Across the World, pursuing higher education through Open and Distance Learning Systems is on the rise. In India, distance education constitutes a considerable portion of the total enrollment in higher education, and innovative approaches and programmes are needed to improve it further, comparable to Western countries where close to 50% of students are enrolled in higher education through ODL systems.

Recent advancements in information and communications technologies, as well as digital teaching and e-learning, provide an opportunity for non-traditional learners who are at a disadvantage in the Conventional System due to age, occupation, and social background to upgrade their skills.

VISTAS has a noble intent to take higher education closer to the oppressed, underprivileged women and the rural folk to whom higher education has remained a dream for a long time.

I assure you all that the Vels Institute of Science, Technology and Advanced Studies would extend all possible support to every registered student of this Deemed-to-be University to pursue her/his education without any constraints. We will facilitate an excellent ambience for your pleasant learning and satisfy your learning needs through our professionally designed curriculum, providing Open Educational Resources, continuous mentoring and assessments by faculty members through interactive counselling sessions.

VISTAS, Deemed- to- be University, brings to reality the dreams of the great poet of modern times, Mahakavi Bharathi, who envisioned that all our citizens be offered education so that the globe grows and advances forever.

I hope that you achieve all your dreams, aspirations, and goals by associating yourself with our ODL System for never-ending continuous learning.

With warm regards,

VICE-CHANCELLOR

Course Introduction

The **DCBBA-23 Course Organisational Behaviour** has been divided into five Blocks consisting of 16 Units.

The Block-1 gives the **Introduction to Organisational Behaviour** and has been divided into three Units. Unit-1 introduces to the basic understanding of organizational behaviour through its nature and scope, Unit-2 takes us back into the historical perspectives of organizational behavior and the Unit-3 explains about the various Challenges, Opportunities and Recent Trends in Organisational Behaviour

The Block-2 **Organisational Behaviour and Individual Perspective-I** has been divided into three units. Unit-4 explains the basics of individual behavior, Unit-5 explains about the various theories of personality and the Unit-6 discuss with in details the various aspects of perception.

The Block-3 **Organisational Behaviour and Individual Perspective-II** has been divided into three units. Unit-7 highlights the concepts of attitudes and values, Unit-8 discusses in detail the various aspects and importance of motivation along with the types of motivational techniques and Unit-9 is about the concept of Leadership highlighting its importance.

The Block-4 **Group Dynamics** has been divided into five units. Unit-10 explains the meaning and concepts, elements of Group behavior, Unit-11 explains the properties that are essential to be called as a group, Unit-12 explains the meaning and components of the organizational communication, Unit-13 highlights the essential requirements for Team building and the Unit-14 explains about the concept of conflict, the reasons for it to arise and the ways to handle conflicts.

The Block-5 **Organisational Culture and Change** has been divided into two units. Unit- 15 gives the details about organizational culture, its identifiers and the Unit-16 explains the concept of organizational change, its importance and the role of change agents in bringing about successful change and also about the resistance to changes and ways to overcome it.

DCBBA-23: Organisational Behaviour

S.No	Content	Page No.
Block- 1: Introduction to Organisational Behaviour		
Unit-1	Nature and Scope of Organisational Behaviour	8
Unit-2	Historical Perspective of Organisational Behaviour	21
Unit-3	Challenges, Opportunities and Recent Trends in Organisational Behaviour	34
Block-2: Organisational Behaviour and Individual Perspective-I		
Unit-4	Individual Behaviour and Learning Theories	50
Unit-5	Personality and Its Theories	65
Unit-6	Perception	81
Block-3: Organisational Behaviour and Individual Perspective-II		
Unit-7	Attitudes and Values	96
Unit-8	Motivation	108
Unit-9	Leadership	119
Block-4: Group Dynamics		
Unit-10	Group Behaviour	134
Unit-11	Group Properties	145
Unit-12	Organisational Communication	156
Unit-13	Team Building	170
Unit-14	Conflict Management	179
Block-5: Organisational Culture and Change		
Unit-15	Organisational Culture	199
Unit-16	Organisational Change	214
Plagiarism Certificate		231

Block-1: Introduction

Block-1: Introduction to Organisational Behaviour has been divided in to three Units.

Unit-1: Nature and Scope of Organisational Behaviour deals with Introduction, Nature of organizational behavior, Objectives of organisational behavior, Need for and importance of organisational behavior, Scope of organizational behavior, Contributing disciplines of organisational behavior, Application of organisational behaviour in management, Limitations of organisational behavior and the Models of organisation behavior.

Unit-2: Historical Perspective of Organisational Behaviour explains about Introduction, Various Historical Concepts, Industrial Revolution, Scientific Management, Fredrick W Taylor, The Gilbreths, Henry L Gantt, The Human Relations Movement, Illumination Experiments, Relay Room Experiments and Bank Wiring Room Study.

Unit-3: Challenges, Opportunities and Recent Trends in Organisational Behaviour discuss with Challenges and opportunities in organisational behavior, Globalization to Respond, Managing Workforce Diversity, Improving Quality and Productivity, Improving Customer Service, Improving People Skills, Empowering People, Stimulating Innovation and Change, Coping with Temporariness, Emergence of E-Organization, Working in Network Organization, Helping Employees Balance Work-life Conflicts, Creating Positive Work Environment, Improving Ethical Behavior, Organisational Behaviour in the Present Era, Recent Trends in Organisational Behaviour, Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI) and Workforce and Workplace Fit.

In all the units of Block -1 **Introduction to Organisational Behaviour**, the Check your progress, Glossary, Answers to Check your progress and Suggested Reading has been provided and the Learners are expected to attempt all the Check your progress as part of study.

Unit - 1

Nature and Scope of Organisational Behaviour

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

- 1.1. Introduction
- 1.2. Nature of organizational behaviour
- 1.3. Objectives of organisational behaviour
- 1.4. Need for and importance of organisational behaviour
- 1.5. Scope of organizational behaviour
- 1.6. Contributing disciplines of organisational behaviour
- 1.7. Application of organisational behaviour in management
- 1.8. Limitations of organisational behaviour
- 1.9. Models of organisation behaviour

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit, we are going to understand the basics of organizational behaviour by studying its nature, scope, need, objectives and Limitations. We will also discuss the various contributing disciplines to the field of Organisational behaviour and the models of Organisational behaviour.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, you will be able:

- To establish a social system in the organization.
- To determine the motivation level of employees.
- To encourage the people to work enthusiastically in the organization.

1.1. Introduction

“A primary goal of management education is to develop students into managers who can think ahead, exercise good judgment, make ethical decisions, and take into consideration the implications of their proposed actions”- Jane Schmidt-Wilk

Organizational Behaviour [OB]

“No one really knows why humans do what they do.” - David K. Reynolds Organizational behaviour [OB] is the study of how people behave both individually and within informal and formal groups. Every organization’s performance is ultimately dependent on the motivational levels of its human resources and the willingness and ability of people to work harmoniously and effectively towards the accomplishment of shared goals. It is the duty of every leader to respect individual values, job satisfaction, and ensure collective involvement. Having challenging selection, training, and rewards for employees ushers in and helps shape team players.

- Definition and Meaning: “Organisational Behaviour is concerned with the study of the behavior of people working in an organization. It involves the understanding, predicting and controlling of human behavior and the factors which influence the performance of these people.” “Fred Luthans”

“Organisation is the study of the organizational components and their impact on human behavior and organisational performances. Such study can be benefited from various behavioral and social sciences.” “S.P. Robbins”

1.2. Nature of Organizational Behaviour

Organizational behaviour has emerged as a separate field of study. The nature it has acquired is identified as follows:

- A Humanistic and Optimistic Approach
- A Normative Science
- A Separate Field of Study and not a Discipline Only
- A Total System Approach
- An Applied Science
- An Interdisciplinary Approach

1.3. Objectives of Organisational Behaviour

- To establish a social system in the organization.
- To determine the motivation level of employees.
- To encourage the people to work enthusiastically in the organization.
- To create an environment for the development of effective leadership.
- To develop effective group behaviour among the employees.
- To identify the reasons for conflict and to resolve the conflict.
- To find out the reasons for frustration and reduce or eliminate the reasons.
- To increase the moral of employees of the organization.
- To maintain the organizational environment favourable for the work.
- To find out the ways for effective organizational development.

1.4. Need For and Importance of Organisational Behaviour

The study of human behaviour, attitudes, and performance in organizations is very important for effective management; it creates values and helps people attain the competencies needed to become effective employees, team leaders/members, or managers. The nature of managerial work involves:

- Effective and competitive organizations
- Helps you to retain the people who came up with the good ideas.
- Useful in any job, organization, industry, anywhere.
- OB theories have widespread applications.
- Evaluate “solutions” proposed by consultants and managers.
- Solve new problems and adapt to new situations.
- Evidence-based management is crucial.

1.5. Scope of Organizational Behaviour

Organizational behavior (OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact of individuals, groups, and Structures on the behavior within an organization. It examines how organizations can be Structured more effectively and how the behavior of individuals and groups can be better

understood and managed to improve organizational performance.

The scope of organizational behavior is broad and encompasses many areas of study, including:

- **Individual Behavior:** The study of individual behavior focuses on understanding how personality, motivation, perception, learning, and attitudes affect employee behavior in an organization.
- **Group Behavior:** The study of group behavior examines how individuals interact with each other in groups, how groups are formed, and how they develop and change over time.
- **Leadership:** The study of leadership focuses on how leaders influence the behavior of employees, how leaders are chosen, and how they can be developed and trained.
- **Organizational STRUCTURE:** The study of organizational STRUCTURE focuses on how organizations are designed, how work is divided, how tasks are coordinated, and how communication flows.
- **Organizational Culture:** The study of organizational culture examines the values, beliefs, and norms that shape the behavior of employees in an organization.
- **Change Management:** The study of change management focuses on how organizations can effectively manage change and how employees can be motivated to adapt to new situations.
- **Human Resource Management:** The study of human resource management examines how organizations can effectively manage their workforce, including recruitment, training, performance management, and employee relations.

1.6. Contributing Disciplines of Organisational Behaviour

Organizational Behavior (OB) is an interdisciplinary field that draws upon several disciplines to understand and explain human behavior in organizations. Some of the major contributing disciplines of OB include:

- **Psychology:** Psychology is the scientific study of human behavior and mental processes. It contributes to OB by providing theories and concepts related to motivation, perception, personality, learning, and attitudes.
- **Sociology:** Sociology is the study of society and social behavior. It contributes to OB by providing theories and concepts related to group dynamics, socialization, culture, and social STRUCTURE.

- **Anthropology:** Anthropology is the study of human societies and cultures. It contributes to OB by providing insights into cross-cultural differences in organizational behavior and the impact of culture on organizational practices.
- **Economics:** Economics is the study of the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. It contributes to OB by providing insights into the economic factors that influence organizational behavior, such as incentives, rewards, and decision-making.
- **Political Science:** Political science is the study of political systems and their behavior. It contributes to OB by providing insights into the political factors that influence organizational behavior, such as power, authority, and conflict.
- **Management Science:** Management science is the application of mathematical and statistical methods to business problems. It contributes to OB by providing tools and techniques for analyzing organizational behavior and improving organizational performance.
- **Communication Studies:** Communication studies is the study of human communication in all its forms. It contributes to OB by providing insights into how communication affects organizational behavior and how communication can be managed to improve organizational performance.

1.7. Application of Organisational Behaviour in Management

Organizational behavior (OB) provides valuable insights and tools that can be applied to improve management practices and organizational performance. Some of the key applications of OB in management include:

- **Improving Employee Motivation:** OB provides insights into what motivates employees and how to create a work environment that promotes motivation. This can help managers develop effective incentive systems and performance management processes that encourage employees to do their best work.
- **Enhancing Employee Engagement:** OB can help managers understand the factors that contribute to employee engagement and develop strategies to increase engagement levels. This can result in higher productivity, better job satisfaction, and lower

turnover rates.

- **Creating Effective Teams:** OB can help managers understand how teams form, how to develop effective team dynamics, and how to manage team conflicts. This can result in higher team performance and better collaboration among team members.
- **Developing Effective Leadership:** OB provides insights into what makes a good leader and how to develop effective leadership skills. This can help managers improve their own leadership abilities and develop leadership talent within their organizations.
- **Improving Organizational Culture:** OB can help managers understand the values, beliefs, and norms that shape the culture of an organization. This can help managers develop a strong and positive organizational culture that supports the goals of the organization and encourages employee engagement.
- **Managing Change:** OB provides insights into how employees react to change and how to manage change effectively. This can help managers implement changes within their organizations with minimal disruption to operations and employee morale.

Overall, the application of OB in management can help managers create a more productive, engaged, and motivated workforce that is better able to achieve organizational goals.

1.8. Limitations of Organisational Behaviour

Organizational behavior (OB) has some limitations that need to be considered when applying its concepts and theories. Some of the key limitations of OB include:

- **Overemphasis on Research:** OB is a research-based field that relies heavily on empirical studies and experiments. However, some researchers may focus too much on methodology and data collection, which may result in a lack of practical relevance.
- **Limited Generalizability:** OB studies are often conducted in specific contexts and may not be generalizable to other settings. For example, studies conducted in one culture may not be applicable to other cultures.
- **Lack of Consensus:** There is often a lack of consensus among OB researchers regarding the theories and concepts that are most useful. This can result in confusion among practitioners about which theories to apply in practice.

- **Incomplete Understanding of Human Behavior:** Despite significant progress in the field, there is still much that is not fully understood about human behavior in organizations. This can limit the effectiveness of OB theories and concepts in practice.
- **Lack of Attention to External Factors:** OB research often focuses on internal factors within organizations and may not consider the impact of external factors such as the economy, political environment, and technology.
- **Resistance to Change:** Implementing OB theories and concepts may require significant changes to an organization's culture and practices, which can be difficult and met with resistance. Overall, while OB provides valuable insights into human behavior in organizations, its limitations need to be considered when applying its theories and concepts in practice.

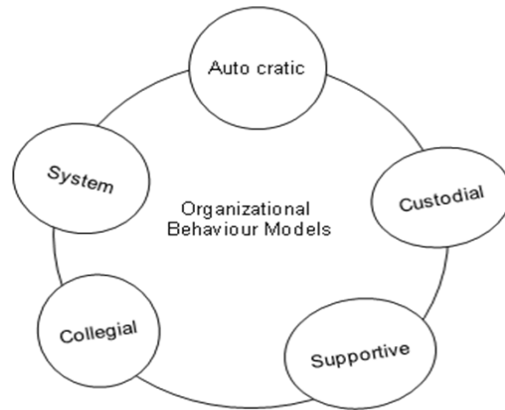
1.9. Models of Organisation Behaviour

Organizations differ in the quality of organizational behaviour that they develop. These differences are substantially caused by different models of organizational behaviour that dominant management's thought in each organization. The Model used depends on the knowledge and skills of managers, the expectations of employees, the policies and ways of life in the organization and the nature of the work e.g. low skilled, high programmed work, temporary work, or intellectual work.

Good OB builds mutual support with manager and employee jointly influencing each other and jointly benefitting...power **with** people, not **over** them. Modern OB is based on human values of treating people with dignity.

The model that a manager holds usually begins with certain assumptions about people and thereby leads to certain interpretations of organizational events. The following four models of organizational behaviour are as follows:

- a) Autocratic model
- b) Custodial model
- c) Supportive model
- d) Collegial model
- e) Systems model



1. Autocratic Model: This model relies on power. For example, managers have the ability, authority to control their employees and the employee's performance in this stage will be much lower than expected. Example: Defence team. This model:

- Depends on power
- Managerial orientation is authority
- Employee orientation is obedience
- Employee psychological result depends on boss
- Employee needs met is subsistence
- Performance result is minimum.

In long run, the employees may develop frustration and may be prone to stress conditions. Their physical or mental health may get affected. The organization may also begin to face such behavioural problems as a high rate of absenteeism, low morale, high rate of labour turnover and so on.

2. Custodial Model: This model depends on economic resources (money). For instance, managers can simulate their employees by offering them facilities, and benefits, but in this model the employee's won't work as a team (Less sharing with others) because everyone will depend on his self to get more benefits than the others.

1. Depends on economical resource
2. Managerial orientation is money
3. Employee orientation is security and benefit
4. Employee psychological result depends on organization
5. Employee needs met is security
6. Performance result is passive cooperation

Example: Garments factory, because here it is based on economical resource. Here labors execute their job for security and benefit, again here if an organization do well then employee get better benefit.

3.Supportive model. This model relies on leadership. For example, managers support their employees by encouraging, and supporting them to perform a better job, get along with each other and as well as developing their skills. The Performance results will be awakened drives. Example: Software firm, because here leaders support there employee to perform their tasks or their project.

1. Depends on leadership
2. Managerial orientation is support
3. Employee orientation is job and performance
4. Employee psychological result is participation
5. Employee needs met is status and recognition
6. Performance result is awakened drives

4.Collegial Model: This model means that employees depend on each other cooperatively and work as a team to do the task. Everyone will be having a normal enthusiasm self- discipline, and responsible Behaviour towards their tasks.

1. Depends on partnership
2. Managerial orientation is teamwork
3. Employee orientation is responsible Behaviour
4. Employee psychological result is self-discipline
5. Employee needs met is self-actualization
6. Performance result is moderate enthusiasm

5.System model: This model is based on trust, self-motivation, and the performance results will be more than expected, because employees will be committed to do their tasks as expected, and as well as organizational goals. Example: Some corporate firm which are based on trust or community where employees are self motivated and committed for organizational goals.

1. Depends on trust, community, understanding
2. Managerial orientation is caring, compassion
3. Employee orientation is psychological ownership

4. Employee psychological result is self motivation
5. Employee needs met is wide range
6. Performance result is passion, commitment, organization goal

It is wrong to assume that a particular model is the best model. The selection of model by a manager is determined by a number of factors such as, the existing philosophy, vision and goals of manager. In addition, environmental conditions help in determining which model will be the most effective model. A comparison between the four OB models may be tabulated as follow:

Type	Autocratic	Custodial	Supportive	Collegial
Basic difference in approach.	Authoritative nature of the management	Organisation takes care of the needs of employees.	The employee is assisted by the manager.	The employee and the manager work as a team.
Position of the subordinate	Total dependence on the manager.	Safe and secured.	Can get help from the superior.	Can secure the participation of the superior in work.
Needs of employees met.	Subsistence	Security	Recognition	Self-Fulfilment
Performance level subordinates.	Minimum		Greater scope to perform well	Higher performance level.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Organisational Behavior is the study and application of knowledge about how people, individuals, and groups act in organisations.
- It does this by taking a system approach, i.e., it interprets people-organisation relationships in terms of the whole person, whole group, whole organisation, and whole social system.
- Its purpose is to build better relationships by achieving human objectives, organisational objectives, and social objectives.
- Organisational behavior encompasses a wide range of topics, such as human behavior, change, leadership, teams, etc.
- The human side of work is an important element in the functioning of an organisation.

- OB is the study of human attitudes, behaviour and performance.
- The essential features of OB include: three levels of analysis, distinct field of study, interdisciplinary in nature, use of scientific methods, focus on application, contingency thinking, subset of management, positive and optimistic, integrative in nature.
- OB is important because it uncovers hidden aspects of organisation, explains and predicts behaviour, helps in acquiring people skills and wins the race, assists in formulating informed judgements.
- OB is special because it combines the orientations offered by multifarious social sciences together into a single – very broad and very exciting – field.

Check Your Progress

1. Organisational behaviour is _____
 - a. A science
 - b. An art
 - c. A science as well as an art
 - d. None of the above
2. Forces affecting organisational behaviour are _____
 - a. People
 - b. Environment
 - c. Technology
 - d. All of the above
3. Scope of Organizational Behaviour does not include _____
 - a. Leadership
 - b. Perception
 - c. Job Design
 - d. Technology
4. Organizational behaviour focuses at 3 Levels-
 - a. Individuals, Organisation, Society
 - b. Society, Organisation, Nation
 - c. Employee, Employer, Management
 - d. Individual, Groups, Organisation.

5. In present context, challenges for Organizational Behaviour are _____
- a. Employee expectation
 - b. Workforce diversity
 - c. Globalization
 - d. All of the above

Glossary

Competencies:	Through learning and experience, each person has acquired a unique set of skills for dealing with various situations.
Expectancies:	Through learning, each person has acquired different expectations of being rewarded or punished for various kinds of behaviour.
Encoding:	Each person has a unique way of perceiving and categorizing experience. One person may see a situation as threatening while another sees it as challenging, and the way it is encoded determines the response
Management:	The process of getting things done effectively and efficiently through and with other people.
Organisational Behavior(OB):	The study of human attitudes, behaviour and performance.
Organisations:	Collections of people working together to achieve a common purpose.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. c. A science as well as an art
2. d. All of the above
3. d. Technology
4. d. Individual, Groups, Organisation.
5. D. All of the above

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
2. James, P. S. (2017). *Organisational Behaviour*, 1e. Pearson Education India.
3. Black, J. S., Bright, D. S., Gardner, D. G. (2019). *Organizational Behavior*. (n.p.): 12th Media Services.

Unit - 2

Historical Perspective of Organisational Behaviour

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

2.1. Introduction

2.2. Various Historical Concepts

2.2.1. Industrial Revolution

2.3. Scientific Management

2.3.1. Fredrick W Taylor

2.3.2. The Gilbreths

2.3.3. Henry L Gantt

2.4. The Human Relations Movement

2.5. Illumination Experiments

2.6. Relay Room Experiments

2.7. Bank Wiring Room Study

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit, we will understand the evolution of Organisational behaviour by looking into its various historical perspectives that has happened over the years which includes the various experiments and scientific findings that has led to the developments which in turn has helped in the evolution of the field of Organisational behaviour.

Objectives

After completion of this unit, your will be able to:

- List the key people who developed the field of industrial and organizational behaviour
- Describe scientific management
- Describe human relations movement

- Distinguish between the main tenets of scientific management and human relations movement; and Analyse the recent developments in the field of industrial and organizational psychology

2.1. Introduction

In 1776, Adam Smith advocated a new form of organisational STRUCTURE based on the division of labour. One hundred years later, German Sociologist Max Weber introduced the concept about rational organisations and initiated the concept of charismatic leadership.

Though the origin to the study of Organisational Behaviour can trace its roots back to Max Weber and earlier organisational studies, it is generally considered to have begun as an academic discipline with the advent of scientific management in the 1890's, with Taylorism representing the peak of the movement. Thus, it was Fredrick Winslow Taylor who introduced the systematic use of goal setting and rewards to motivate employees that could be considered as the starting of the academic discipline of Organisational Behaviour.

Proponents of scientific management held that rationalising the organisation with precise sets of instructions and time-motion studies would lead to increased productivity. Studies of different compensation systems were also carried out to motivate workers.

In 1920's Elton Mayo an Australian born Harvard Professor and his colleagues conducted productivity studies at Western Electric's Hawthorne Plant. With this epoch-making study the focus of organisational studies shifted to analysis of how human factors and psychology affected organisations. This shift of focus in the study of organisations was called the Hawthorne Effect. The Human Relations Movement focused on teams, motivation, and the actualisation of goals of individuals within organisations. Studies conducted by prominent scholars like Chester Barnard, Henri Fayol, Mary Parker Follett, Frederick Herzberg, Abraham Mas low, David Mc Cellan and Victor Vroom contributed to the growth of Organisational Behaviour as a discipline.

In the 1960's and 1970's, the field was strongly influenced by social psychology and the emphasis in academic study was quantitative research. An explosion of the orising, bounded rationality, informal organisation, contingency theory, resource dependence, institution theory and population ecology theories have contributed to the study of organisational behaviour.

2.2. Various Historical Concepts

2.2.1. Industrial Revolution

It has only been since the Industrial Revolution of the nineteenth century that relatively large number of individuals have been required to work together in manager- subordinate relationships. Prior to this many of the large organisations that did exist, were military ones in which the authority of the leader was supreme and practically unquestioned, since membership was not voluntary.

Behavioural problems were relatively easy to deal with under these conditions. It is certainly no accident that much of our current knowledge about human behaviour has been derived from organisations in which influencing behaviour consists of more than just giving orders.

Famous industrialist like William C Durant, Henry Ford, Andrew Carnegie, and John D Rock feller were men of brilliant managerial qualities. They possessed the managerial qualities necessary for the initial stages if industrialization. However, when the industrial revolution began to mature and become stabilized, this approach was no longer appropriate.

2.3. Scientific Management

The great industrialist was primarily concerned with overall manageria organisation in order for their companies to survive and prosper. The scientific management movement around the turn of the century took a narrower, operations perspective. Yet, the two approaches were certainly not contradictory. The managers in both cases applied the scientific method to their problems and they thought that effective management at all levels was the key to organisational success.

2.3.1. Fredrick W Taylor

(1856 - 1915) is the recognized father of scientific management. Taylor started scientific management in his time-and-motion studies at the Midvale Steel Company in the early 1900's. As an industrial engineer, he was concerned within efficiencies in manual labour jobs and believed that by scientifically studying the specific motions that made up the total job, a more rational, objective and effective method of performing the job could be determined. In his early years as a foreman in the steel industry, he saw different workers doing the same job in different ways. It was his opinion that each man could not be doing his job in the optimal way, and he set out to find the "one best way" to perform the job efficiently. His argument proved to be correct and, in some instances,

"Taylorism" resulted in productivity increases of 400 percent. In almost all cases, his methods improved productivity over existing levels.

Taylor had actually shop and engineering experience and therefore was intimately involved with tools, products and various machining and manufacturing operations.

His well-known metal -cutting experiments demonstrated the scientific management approach. Over a period of twenty-six years, Taylor tested every conceivable variation in speed, feed, depth of cut, and kind of cutting tool. The outcome of this experimentation was high speed steel, considered one of the most significant contributions to the development of large-scale production.

Coupled with Taylor's logical, rational, engineering -like approach to management was a simple theory of human behaviour: people are primarily motivated by economic rewards and will take direction if offered the opportunity to better their economic positions.

Put simply, Taylor's theory stated that:

- Physical work could be scientifically studied to determine the optimal method of performing a job.
- Workers could thereafter be made more efficient by being given prescriptions for how they were to do their jobs.
- Workers would be willing to adhere to these prescriptions if paid on "differential piece work" basis.
- In addition to advocating the use of scientific means to develop the best way to do a task, Taylor argued that several other principles were important.
- Workers with appropriate abilities had to be selected and trained in the appropriate task method.
- Supervisors needed to build cooperation among the workers to ensure that they followed the designated method of work. Building such cooperation included soliciting workers' suggestions and being willing to discuss ideas for improved work methods.
- There needed to be a clear division of work responsibilities. Previously, the workers planned how to approach a task, and then they executed it. Under the Taylor scheme, it was management's job to do the task planning, using scientific methods.

- Taylor's four principles of scientific management are summarized here: -
 - Scientifically study each part of a task and develop the best method for performing the task.
 - Carefully select workers and train them to perform the task by using the scientifically developed method.
 - Cooperate fully with workers to ensure that they use the proper method.
 - Divide work and responsibility so that management is responsible for planning work methods using scientific principles and workers are responsible for executing the work accordingly.

Many have criticized Taylor's work for dehumanizing the work place and treating workers like machines, but his overall contribution to management was significant. Although others were studying similar methods at the same general time, Taylor was one of the first to take the theory and practice of management out of the realm of intuitive judgment and into the realm of scientific inquiry and reasoning.

Taylor's ideas on time study, standardization of work practices, goal setting, money as a motivator, scientific selection of workers and rest pauses have all proved to be successful techniques of management today. Taylor was by no means the only noteworthy scientific manager. Others in the movement, such as Frank and Lillian Gilberth and Henry L Gantt made especially significant contributions.

2.3.2. The Gilbreths

Other major advocates of scientific management were the husband-and-wife team of Frank Gilbreth (1868 - 1924) and Lillian Moller Gilberth (1878 - 1972). As Frank become involved in training young brick layers, he noticed the in efficiencies that were handed down from experienced workers. To remedy the situation, he proposed using motion studies to streamline the bricklaying process. Frank also designed special scaffolding for different types of jobs and devised precise directions for mortar consistency.

On the basis of these and other ideas, Frank was able to reduce the motions involved in brick laying from 18 ½ to 4. Using his approach, workers increased the number of bricks laid per day from 1000 to 2700 with no increase in physical exertion.

Frank married Lillian Moller, who began working with him on projects

while she completed her doctorate in psychology. The two continued their studies aimed at eliminating unnecessary motions and expanded their interests to exploring ways of reducing task fatigue. Part of their work involved the isolation of 17 basic motions, each called a therblig ("Gilbreth" spelled backward, with the "t" and "h" reversed). Therbligs included such motions as select, position, and hold - motions that were used to study tasks in a number of industries. The Gilbreths used the therblig concept to study tasks in a number of industries. The Gilbreths used the therblig concept to study jobs and also pioneered the use of motion picture technology in studying jobs.

Lillian's doctoral thesis was published as a book, *The Psychology of Management*, making it one of the early works applying the findings of psychology to the workplace. At the insistence of the publisher, the author was listed as L.M. Gilbreth to disguise the fact that the book was written by a woman. Lillian helped define scientific management by arguing that scientific studies of management must focus on both analysis and synthesis. With analysis, a task is broken down into its essential parts or elements. With synthesis, the task is reconstituted to include only those elements necessary for efficient work. She also had a particular interest in the human implications of scientific management, arguing that the purpose of scientific management is to help people reach their maximum potential by developing their skills and abilities. Lillian Gilbreth ranks as the first woman to gain prominence as a major contributor to the development of management as a science.

2.3.3. Henry L Gantt (1861-1919)

One of Taylor's closest associates, Henry Gantt later became an independent consultant and made several contributions of his own. The most well - known is the Gantt Chart, a graphic aid to planning, scheduling and control that is still in use today. He also devised a unique pay incentive system that not only paid workers extra for reaching standard in the allotted time but also awarded bonuses to supervisors when workers reached standard. He wanted to encourage supervisors to coach workers who were having difficulties.

The scientific managers like Taylor, Frank and Lillian Gilberth and Henry Gantt were not the first or only group that recognized the importance of the operating functions. A hundred years earlier, Adam Smith had carefully pointed out the advantages of division of labour and in 1832, Charles Babbage, a British mathematician with some astounding managerial insights, discussed transference of skill in his book *Economy of Machinery and Manufacture*.

2.4. The Human Relations Movement

The second major step on the way to current organisational behaviour theory was the Human Relations Movement that began in the 1930's and continued in various forms until the 1950's. The practice of management, which places heavy emphasis on employee cooperation and morale, might be classified as human relations. Raymond Mills states that the human relation approach was simply to "treat people as human beings (instead of machines in the productive process), acknowledge their needs to belong and to feel important by listening to and heeding their complaints where possible and by involving them in certain decisions concerning working conditions and other matters, then morale would surely improve and workers would cooperate with management in achieving good production".

The Human Relations Movement, popularized by Elton Mayo and his famous Hawthorne studies conducted at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company, in many ways it remained the foundation of much of our management thinking today. Before the Hawthorne studies officially started, Elton Mayo headed a research team, which was investigating the causes of very high turnover in the mule-spinning department of a Philadelphia textile mill in 1923 and 1924. After interviewing and consulting the workers, the team set up a series of rest pauses, which resulted in greatly reduced turnover and more positive worker attitudes and morale.

2.5. Illumination Experiments

The initial experiments reflected strongly the physical orientation of scientific management, since they were designed to explore the relationship between lighting and productivity. The rational approach of scientific management predicted a positive relationship i.e., as lighting increased, productivity would increase up to a point of course. Logically, at some (high) level of illumination productivity should begin to decline, so the original experiment was designed to determine the optimal level of illumination.

The light experiments were conducted on female workers, who were divided into two groups. One group was placed in a test room where the intensity of illumination was varied, and the other group worked in a control room with supposedly constant conditions.

The results were baffling to the researchers. The researchers found no

predictable relationship between lighting and output and, because the research results could not be explained by existing knowledge, the researchers were forced to find new explanation.

Further research indicated that the lack of a predictable relationship between lighting and output was related to the mental and emotional side of organisations rather than the physical, mechanistic side recognized by scientific management. Additional studies showed that economic factors, such as incentive systems, were equally poor in predicting behaviour.

2.6. Relay Room Experiments

Intrigued with positive changes in productivity some of the engineers and company officials decided to attempt to determine the causes through further studies. Accordingly, a second set of experiments took place between 1927 and 1933 known as the Relay Room experiments.

The most famous study involved five girls assembling electrical relays in the Relay Assembly Test Room, a special room away from other workers where the researchers could alter work conditions and evaluate the results. During the experiment, the girls were often consulted and sometimes allowed to express themselves about the changes that took place in the experiment.

Apparently, the researchers were concerned about possible negative reactions and resistance from the workers who would be included in the experiment. To lessen potential resistance, the researchers changed the usual supervisory arrangement so that there would be no official supervisor; rather, the workers would operate under the general direction of the experimenter. The workers also were given special privileges such as being able to leave their work station without permission, and they received considerable attention from the experimenters and company officials. In total, they were treated and recognized as individuals with something to contribute.

The study was aimed at exploring the best combination of work and rest periods, but a number of other factors were also varied, such as pay, length of the workday, and provisions for free lunches. Generally, productivity increased over the period of the study, regardless of how the factors under consideration were manipulated. The results in the relay room were practically identical with those in the illumination experiment. Each test period yielded higher productivity than the previous one had done. Even when the girls were subjected to the original conditions of the experiment, productivity increased. The conclusion was that the

independent variables (rest pauses and so forth) were not by themselves causing the change in the dependent variable (output).

One outcome of the studies was the identification of a famous concept that ultimately came to be known as the Hawthorne effect. The Hawthorne effect refers to the possibility that individuals singled out for a study may improve their performance simply because of the added attention they receive from the researchers, rather than because of any specific factors being tested in the study. More contemporary investigations now suggest that the Hawthorne effect concept is too simplistic to explain what happened during the Hawthorne studies and that the Hawthorne effect concept itself is defective. In the Hawthorne situation, the workers likely viewed the altered supervision as an important positive change in their work environment, even though that was not what the researchers intended.

2.7. Bank Wiring Room Study

The final phase of the research programme was the bank wiring study, which started in November 1931 and lasted until May 1932. Its primary purpose was to make observational analysis of the informal work group. A group of male workers in the study provided knowledge about informal social relations within groups and about group norms that restrict output when such steps seem advantageous to the group. It also included a massive interviewing programme (1928 - 1931) that was initially aimed at improving supervision but evolved into a means of learning what workers had on their minds and allowing them to let off steam.

The results in the bank wiring room were essentially opposite to those in the relay room. The output was actually restricted by the bank wirers. By scientific management analysis, a standard of 7312 terminal connections per day had been arrived at. This represented 2½ equipments. The workers had a different brand of rationality. They decided that 2 equipments was a "proper" day's work. The researchers determined that the informal group norm of 2 equipments represented restriction of output rather than a lack of ability to produce 2 ½ equipments. The following evidence supports this contention:

1. The observer noted that all the men stopped before quitting time.
2. Most of the men admitted to the interviewer they could easily turn out more work.
3. Tests of dexterity and intelligence indicated no relationship between capacity to perform and actual performance.

Assessing the Hawthorne Studies

The Hawthorne studies have been severely criticized mainly because the studies often had major flaws (such as changing several factors at the same time) and because important data were sometimes ignored in drawing conclusions (especially in discounting the potential importance of pay). The Human Relations Movement, like Scientific Management, is not without its short comings. Because of the nature of its findings and the resulting lessons for managers, it has been criticised as "cow Sociology" (so called because happy cows presumably give more milk). This simplistic view of the relationship between morale and productivity is something that existing research has not been able to verify.

Yet, despite their short comings, the effects of these pioneering studies were far-reaching. In strong contrast to the impersonality that characterized the classical approach, the Hawthorne studies pointed to the impact that social aspects of the job had on productivity, particularly the effect of personal attention from supervisors and relationship among group members. As a result, the focus of the field of management was drastically altered. A common interpretation of the Human Relations Movement is that managers need only treat their employees well to generate maximum productivity. This conclusion is unfortunate for two reasons.

1. It is over simplified and therefore often inaccurate.
2. Those who do not agree with this conclusion might be labeled advocates of poor treatment of employees - which, of course, is also false.

Quite possibly the positive but simplistic philosophy of human relations has actually hindered needed research into organisational behaviour. This does not necessarily mean that an understanding of human relations is not useful; it may have a pay off in areas other than performance, such as absenteeism, turnover etc. The influence of the human relations philosophy can be seen in many managements training programmes today.

Topics such as communication, counselling, understanding people, and leadership are common ingredients in many training programmes and reflect the findings of the original Hawthorne studies. Often participants are taught that improved communications, etc., will increase morale. Unfortunately, these topics can erroneously be seen as the totality of the manager's job, thereby increasing the probability that employee morale may increase and productivity may decrease.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Historical overview of the field of and Organisational Behaviour. The field of Organisational Behaviour is relatively new.
- Three pioneers who attempted to apply psychology to the workplace were Bryan, Scott and Munsterberg.
- Two influential forces in the development of Organisational Behaviour were scientific management and human relations movement.
- The former approach, used by Taylor and Gilbreths, emphasised the importance of designing jobs as efficiently as possible.
- The latter, popularised by the work of Mayo and his path breaking Hawthorne studies, recognised the importance of social processes in work setting.
- The future of Organisational Behaviour is challenging since both the workplace and workforce are changing rapidly.

Check Your Progress

1. _____ is known as “the father of scientific management.”
 - a. Fredrick W. Taylor
 - b. Henry Fayol
 - c. Robert Owen
 - d. None of these
2. Contribution/s of human relations movement is/are
 - a. Great Depression
 - b. Labour Movement
 - c. Hawthorne Studies
 - d. All of these
3. Hawthorne Studies is related to which stage of the organisational behaviour evolution
 - a. Industrial revolution
 - b. Scientific management
 - c. Organisational behaviour
 - d. Human relations movement

4. Which of the following represents the correct sequencing of historical developments of Organisational Behaviour?
- Industrial revolution → Scientific management → Human relations movement → OB
 - Industrial revolution → Human relations movement → Scientific management → OB
 - Scientific management → Human relations movement → Industrial revolution → OB
 - None of these.
5. _____ is recognised as father of “Human relations”
- William Gilbreth
 - Hendry Fayol
 - F.W.Taylor
 - Elton Mayo

Glossary

- Hawthorne effect:** The Hawthorne effect is a type of reactivity in which individuals modify an aspect of their behavior in response to their awareness of being observed.
- Taylorism:** Taylorism is a production system that divides the manufacturing process in small steps that reduce the degree of skills required to perform each activity
- Scientific management:** Scientific management is a theory of management that analyzes and synthesizes workflows.
- Human relations movement:** Human relations movement refers to the researchers of organizational development who study the behaviour of people in groups, particularly in workplace groups and other related concepts in fields such as industrial and organizational psychology.
- Illumination experiments:** Illumination experiments were undertaken to find out how varying levels of illumination (amount of light at the workplace, a physical factor) affected the productivity.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. a. Fredrick W. Taylor
2. d. All of these
3. d. Human relations movement
4. a. Industrial revolution → Scientific management → Human relations movement → OB
5. d. Elton Mayo

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
2. James, P. S. (2017). *Organisational Behaviour*, 1e. Pearson Education India.
3. Black, J. S., Bright, D. S., Gardner, D. G. (2019). *Organizational Behavior*. (n.p.): 12th Media Services.

Unit-3

Challenges, Opportunities and Recent Trends in Organisational Behaviour

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

3.1. Challenges and opportunities in organisational behaviour

3.1.1. Globalization to Respond

3.2. Managing Workforce Diversity

3.3. Improving Quality and Productivity

3.3.1. Improving Customer Service

3.3.2. Improving People Skills

3.3.3. Empowering People

3.4. Stimulating Innovation and Change

3.5. Coping with Temporariness

3.6. Emergence of E-Organization

3.6.1. Working in Network Organization

3.6.2. Helping Employees Balance Work-life Conflicts

3.6.3. Creating Positive Work Environment

3.7. Improving Ethical Behavior

3.8. Organisational Behaviour in the Present Era

3.8.1. Recent Trends in Organisational Behaviour

3.8.2. Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI)

3.8.3. Workforce and Workplace Fit

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit, we will be learning about the various developments that has taken over the period of years in the field of management and thereby resulting in various opportunities and challenges which clearly underlines the importance of organization behaviour as a field of study

which can utilize the opportunities and also overcome such challenges.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, your will be able to:

- List the key people who developed the field of industrial and organizational Behaviour
- Analyse the recent developments in the field of Organizational Behaviour.
- List the opportunities in the field of OB

3.1. Challenges and opportunities in OB

There are lot of challenges and opportunities today for managers to OB concepts. Some of which are stated hereunder:

3.1.1. Globalization to Respond

Today's business is mostly market driven; wherever the demands exist irrespective of distance, locations, climatic conditions, the business operations are expanded to gain their market share and to remain in the top rank etc. Business operations are no longer restricted to a particular locality or region.

Company's products or services are spreading across the nations using mass communication, internet, faster transportation etc. An Australian wine producer now sells more wine through the Internet than through outlets across the country. More than 95% of Nokia hand phones are being sold outside of their home country Finland.

Japanese cars are being sold in different parts of globe. Sri Lankan tea is exported to many cities across the globe. Executives of Multinational Corporation are very mobile and move from one subsidiary to another more frequently.

Globalization affects a managerial skill in at least two ways:

1. An Expatriate manager have to manage a workforce that is likely to have very different needs, aspirations and attitudes from the ones that they are used to manage in their home countries.
2. Understanding the culture of local people and how it has shaped them and accordingly learn to adapt ones management style to these differences is very critical for the success of business operations. One of the main personality traits required for expatriate managers is to have sensitivity to understand the individual differences among people and exhibit tolerance to it.

3. Organizations are no longer constrained by national borders, world become global village.
- **Increased foreign assignment:** Transferred to your employer's operating division in another country. Once there, you'll have to manage workforce, aspiration from employees, and attitudes from those you are used to back home
 - **Working with different people:** Working with bosses, peers and other employees who were born and raised in different culture, to work effectively with them you've to understand how their culture, geographic and religion have shaped them.
 - **Coping with anti-capitalism backlash:** "soak the rich" means fine should be charged with respect of income you earn. Managers at global companies have come to realize that economic values are not universally transferable, need to modify by managers to reflect economic values in those countries they're working.
 - **Overseeing movement of jobs to countries with low cost labor:** In a global economy, jobs tend to flow to places where lower cost provide business firms with a comparative advantages
 - **Managing people during the war on terror:** An understanding of OB topics such as emotions, motivation, communication and leadership can help managers to deal more effectively with their employees' fear about terrorism.

3.2. Managing Workforce Diversity

The people in organization are becoming heterogeneous demographically, Workforce diversity= whereas globalization focuses on differences between people from different countries, mix of people in terms of gender, age, race, and sexual orientation. Embracing diversity
Changing US demographics Changing management philosophy
Recognizing and responding to difference.

This refers to employing different categories of employees who are heterogeneous in terms of gender, race, ethnicity, religion, community, physically disadvantaged, homosexuals, elderly people etc. The primary reason to employ heterogeneous category of employees is to tap the talents and potentialities, harnessing the innovativeness, obtaining synergetic effect among the diverse workforce. In general, employees wanted to retain their individual and cultural identity, values and life styles even though they are working in the same organization with

common rules and regulations. The major challenge for organizations is to become more accommodating to diverse groups of people by addressing their different life styles, family needs and work styles.

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

3.3. Improving Quality and Productivity

World added capacity in response to increase demand. Excess capacity translate in increase competition, is forcing managers to reduce costs and, at the same time; improve the organization quality and productivity.

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

1. **Performance:** Primary operating characteristics of a product such as signal coverage, audio quality, display quality etc.
2. **Features:** Secondary characteristics, added features, such as calculators, and alarm clock features in hand phone.
3. **Conformance:** Meeting specifications or industry standards, workmanship of the degree to which a product's design or operating characteristics match pre established standards.
4. **Reliability:** The probability of a product's failing within a specified period of time.
5. **Durability:** It is a measure of product's life having both economic and technical dimension.
6. **Services:** Resolution of problem and complaints, ease of repair.

7. **Response:** Human to human interface, such as the courtesy of the dealer.
8. **Aesthetics:** Sensory characteristics such exterior finish.
9. **Reputations:** Past performance and other intangibles, such as being ranked first.

More and more managers are confronting to meet the challenges to fulfill the specific requirements of customers.

In order to improve quality and productivity, they are implementing programs like total quality management and reengineering programs that require extensive employee involvement.

Total Quality Management (TQM)

It is a philosophy of management that is driven by the constant attainment of customer satisfaction through the continuous improvement of all organizational process.

The components of TQM are:

- a. intense focus of the customer,
- b. concern for continual improvement
- c. improvement in the quality of everything the organization does
- d. accurate measurement and
- e. empowerment of employees.

Reengineering

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

Today's managers understand that any efforts to improve quality and productivity must influence their employees. These employees will not only be a major force in carrying out changes, but increasingly will participate actively in planning those changes. Managers will put maximum effort in meeting the customer's requirements by involving

everyone from all the levels and across all functions. Regular communications (both formally and informally) with all the staff at all levels is must. Two-way communications at all levels must be promoted. Identifying training needs and relating them with individual capabilities and requirements is must. Top management's participation and commitment and a culture of continuous improvement must be established.

3.3.1. Improving Customer Service

OB can contribute to improving an organization' performance by showing that how employees' attitude and behavior are associated with customer satisfaction.

3.3.2. Improving People Skills

Designing motivating jobs, how creating effective teams, techniques for improving interpersonal skills. Technological changes, structural changes, environmental changes are accelerated at a faster rate in business field. Unless employees and executives are equipped to possess the required skills to adapt those changes, the achievement of the targeted goals cannot be achieved in time. There two different categories of skills – managerial skills and technical skills. Some of the managerial skills include listening skills, motivating skills, planning and organizing skills, leading skills, problem solving skill, decision making skills, etc.

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

3.3.3. Empowering People

The main issue is delegating more power and responsibility to the lower level cadre of employees and assigning more freedom to make choices about their schedules, operations, procedures and the method of solving their work-related problems. Encouraging the employees to participate in work related decision will sizably enhance their commitment at work. Empowerment is defined as putting employees in charge of what they do by eliciting some sort of ownership in them. Managers are doing

considerably further by allowing employees full control of their work. An increasing number of organizations are using self-managed teams, where workers operate largely without boss. Due to the implementation of empowerment concepts across all the levels, the relationship between managers and the employees is reshaped. Managers will act as coaches, advisors, sponsors, facilitators and help their subordinates to do their task with minimal guidance. Implications for Manager: The executive must learn to delegate their tasks to the subordinates and make them more responsible in their work. And in so doing, managers have to learn how to give up control and employees have to learn how to take responsibility for their work and make appropriate decision. If all the employees are empowered, it drastically changes the type of leadership styles, power relationships, the way work is designed and the way organizations are structured.

3.4. Stimulating Innovation and Change

Today's successful organizations must foster innovation and be proficient in the art of change; otherwise they will become candidates for extinction in due course of time and vanished from their field of business. Victory will go to those organizations that maintain flexibility, continually improve their quality, and beat the competition to the market place with a constant stream of innovative products and services. For example, Compaq succeeded by creating more powerful personal computers for the same or less money than IBNM or Apple, and by putting their products to market quicker than the bigger competitors. Amazon.com is putting a lot of independent bookstores out of business as it proves you can successfully sell books from an Internet website.

Some of the basic functions of business are being displaced due to the advent of a new systems and procedures. For example, books are being sold only through internet. Internet selling an organization's employees can be the impetus for innovation and change; otherwise they can be a major hindrance. The challenge for managers is to stimulate employee creativity and tolerance for change. Victory will go the organization that maintain their flexibility, continually improve their quality and beat their competition in market place. An organization's employees can be major block in change, the challenge to the manager to stimulate their creativity and tolerance for change.

3.5. Coping with Temporariness

Survival for the organization, is need to move fast and flexible and innovative in their products, jobs are redesigned, task are done by

flexibility, trained old employees with new technology, better understanding of change, overcome resistance to change, create organizational culture.

In recent times, the Product life cycles are slimming, the methods of operations are improving, and fashions are changing very fast. In those days, the managers needed to introduce major change programs once or twice a decade.

Today, change is an ongoing activity for most managers. The concept of continuous improvement implies constant change. In yesteryears, there used to be a long period of stability and occasionally interrupted by short period of change, but at present the change process is an ongoing activity due to competitiveness in developing new products and services with better features. Everyone in the organization faces today is one of permanent temporariness.

The actual jobs that workers perform are in a permanent state of flux. So, workers need to continually update their knowledge and skills to perform new job requirements. Implications for Manager: Managers and employees must learn to cope with temporariness.

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

3.6. Emergence of E-Organization

E-commerce

It refers to the business operations involving electronic mode of transactions. It encompasses presenting products on websites and filling order. The vast majority of articles and media attention given to using the Internet in business are directed at on-line shopping.

In this process, the marketing and selling of goods and services are being carried out over the Internet. In e-commerce, the following activities are being taken place quite often – the tremendous numbers of people who are shopping on the Internet, business houses are setting up websites where they can sell goods, conducting the following transactions such as getting paid and fulfilling orders.

It is a dramatic change in the way a company relates to its customers. At present e-commerce is exploding. Globally, e-commerce spending was

increasing at a tremendous rate from US\$ 111 billion in 1999 to US\$ 1.3 trillion by 2003.

E-business

It refers to the full breadth of activities included in a successful Internet based enterprise. As such, e-commerce is a subset of e-business. E-business includes developing strategies for running Internet-based companies, creating integrated supply chains, collaborating with partners to electronically coordinate design and production, identifying a different kind of leader to run a 'virtual' business, finding skilled people to build and operate intranets and websites, and running the back room or the administrative side .

E-business includes the creation of new markets and customers, but it's also concerned with the optimum ways to combine Computers, the Web and Application Software.

A sizable number of multinational corporations are selling goods and services via the Internet. Growth rate of e-business: The application of Internet operations are initially covers a small part of the business. At this point, their e-commerce operations are secondary to their traditional business.

An increasingly popular application of e-business is merely using the Internet to better manage an ongoing business. Later, there are millions of firms that are now selling anything over the Internet, but they are using e-business applications to improve communications with internal and external stakeholders and to better perform traditional business functions. Some companies are putting maximum effort in improving its internal efficiency and providing support to its wide-reaching dealer network and to on-line sellers by creating a shared and integrated network.

E-organizations

This embraces e-commerce and e-business. State and central governments, municipal corporations are using the Internet for extending all the public utility services more efficiently through internet. Implications for Managers: The employees must acquire skills, knowledge, attitudes in learning new technology, overcoming any resistance.

3.6.1. Working in Network Organization

Global working through one link i.e. INTERNET, technology changes the people to work together and communicate at thousand miles, people can work from their home and non office locations.

3.6.2. Helping Employees Balance Work-life Conflicts

Flexible Working hours, reporting time, create opportunities for employees, job security, design workplace and jobs.

3.6.3. Creating Positive Work Environment

Human strength, vitality, right person appointed at right place, effort on what good is for organization.

3.7. Improving Ethical Behavior

Manager shouldn't place an order on which subordinate don't agree
Define clearly the right and wrong conduct
Fair policy and appropriate system
Increase confidence and trust over organization
Have some logic against order you place to employee.

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

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

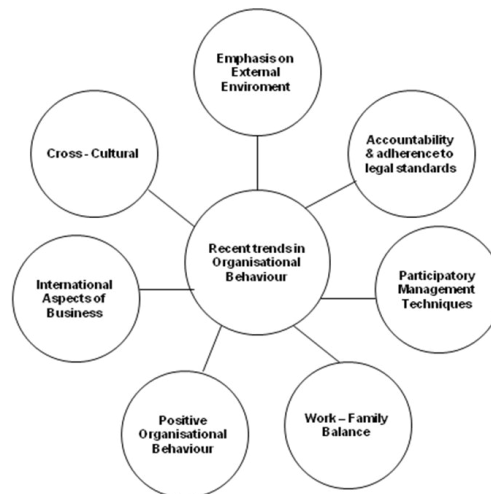
Managers must evolve code of ethics to guide employees through ethical dilemmas. Organizing seminars, workshops, training programs will help improve ethical behavior of employees. Retaining consultants, lawyers, voluntary service organizations to assist the company in dealing with ethical issues will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

3.8. Organisational Behaviour in the Present Era

The history of Organisational Behaviour as seen above is rich and diverse. Our history, although relatively brief, is made up of different traditions and thoughts that have impacted our field as it exists today.

The different subfields of Organisational Behaviour are a reflection of these varying influences.

The field of Organisational Behaviour has made rapid advances in many areas which can be seen in the following figure.



3.8.1. Recent Trends in Organisational Behaviour

The recent trends in Organisational Behaviour can be described as given below:

Today Organisational Behaviour psychologists are paying greater attention to the effects of the external environment, for instance, the wider society, governmental and international developments.

There is greater adherence to legal standards and emphasis on accountability (at least in the West). Post 1950s, as an indirect result of the civil rights movement, discrimination in employment became an important issue on which companies could be sued.

As a result, companies were legally mandated to demonstrate that their practices such as selection, training, performance appraisal, etc. did not discriminate.

A relatively new area is sexual harassment. The first ruling by U.S. Supreme Court on subject of sexual harassment was delivered in 1986. In India, it was in 1997 in the landmark case of Vishaka vs. State of Rajasthan and others, that sexual harassment was identified as a separate illegal behaviour. All this has led to the need for greater accountability for the actions of Organisational Behaviour psychologists.

In the late 1980's, the field of Organisational Behaviour witnessed a rise of participatory management techniques known by such terms as Total Quality Management (TQM).

3.8.2. Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI)

Continuous quality improvement and Continuous Process Improvement (CPI) are important development in the field of Organisational Behaviour.

In the late 1980s and into the 1990s, work stress started receiving increasing attention in Organisational Behaviour research, theory, and practice. Balancing work and family lives also received increased attention in Organisational Behaviour research.

A new area that is emerging in the field of Organisational Behaviour is positive organisational behaviour. This simply refers to application of positive behaviour to the workplace. Its advocates include Luthans (2002), Nelson and Cooper (2007). This includes positive topics such as forgiveness, compassion, resilience, optimism, emotional intelligence at the workplace.

There is increased consideration to the international aspects of business. The world has shrunk and transformed itself into the proverbial 'global village'.

As a result, organisations now operate in more than one country, and the number and size of multinationals that span national boundaries has seen a phenomenal increase in the twentieth century. Managers of multinationals confront a number of challenges that they never had to face when their operations were constrained within national borders.

This has opened new vistas for the field of Organisational Behaviour. Another recent development in the field is examining the cross-cultural factors in work behaviour as necessitated by recent mergers and acquisitions across borders and the cultural diversity of the new workforce (cross-cultural Organisational Behaviour).

3.8.3. Workforce and Workplace Fit

Today, the mandate of Organisational Behaviour is indeed daunting: "to increase the fit between the work force and the workplace at a time when the composition of both is rapidly changing" (Muchinsky, 1997, p. 22).

This poses tremendous challenges to Organisational Behaviour psychologists, especially because it is a relatively new field and people are still trying to learn more about people in the workplace.

The future of Organisational Behaviour indeed promises to be extremely rewarding and exciting.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, we have discussed about the following:

- A brief historical overview of the field of Organisational Behaviour.
- The field of Organisational Behaviour is relatively new.
- Two influential forces in the development of Organisational Behaviour were scientific management and human relations movement.
- The former approach, used by Taylor and Gilbreths, emphasised the importance of designing jobs as efficiently as possible.
- The latter, popularised by the work of Mayo and his path breaking Hawthorne studies, recognised the importance of social processes in work setting.
- The future of Organisational Behaviour is challenging since both the workplace and workforce are changing rapidly.

Check Your Progress

1. Some of OB's challenges and opportunities include all of the following except
 - a. reinforcing the importance of traditional methods of management
 - b. offering specific insights to improve interpersonal and people skills
 - c. helping us learnt to cope in a continues changing world
 - d. facilitating the improvement of quality and employee productivity
2. Organisational Behaviour is a field of study backed by a body associated with growing concern for people at the workplace
 - a. Theory
 - b. Research
 - c. Application
 - d. All of the above
3. The field of organizational behaviour examines such questions as the nature of leadership, effective team development, and _____
 - a. Organisational control; conflict management
 - b. Interpersonal conflict resolution; motivation of individuals

- c. Motivation of individuals; planning
 - d. Planning; development
4. Which of the following is not correct for the organisational behaviour?
- a. Organisational behaviour is an integral part of management
 - b. Organisational behaviour is a disciplinary approach
 - c. Organisational behaviour helps in analysis of behaviour
 - d. Organisational behaviour is goal-oriented
5. Contribution/s of human relations movement is/are
- a. Great Depression
 - b. Labour Movement
 - c. Hawthorne Studies
 - d. All of these

Glossary

Competencies:	Through learning and experience, each person has acquired a unique set of skills for dealing with various situations.
Expectancies:	Through learning, each person has acquired different expectations of being rewarded or punished for various kinds of behaviour.
Encoding:	Each person has a unique way of perceiving and categorizing experience. One person may see a situation as threatening while another sees it as challenging, and the way it is encoded determines the response
Management:	The process of getting things done effectively and efficiently through and with other people.
Organisational Behavior (OB):	The study of human attitudes, behaviour and performance.
Organisations:	Collections of people working together to achieve a common purpose

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. a. reinforcing the importance of traditional methods of management
2. d. All of the above
3. a. Organisational control; conflict management
4. b. Organisational behaviour is a disciplinary approach
5. d. All of these

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
2. James, P. S. (2017). *Organisational Behaviour, 1e*. Pearson Education India.
3. Black, J. S., Bright, D. S., Gardner, D. G. (2019). *Organizational Behavior*. (n.p.): 12th Media Services.

Block-2: Introduction

Block-2: Organisational Behaviour and Individual Perspective-I has been divided in to three Units.

Unit-4: Individual Behaviour and Learning Theories deals with Introduction to Individual Behaviour, Individual Characteristics and Differences, Introduction to Learning, Learning Process, Theories of learning, Classical Conditioning, Operant Conditioning, Social Learning.

Unit-5: Personality and Its Theories explains about the Introduction to Personality, Meaning and definition of Personality, Determinants of Personality, Theories of Personality, Carl Jung's Extrovert-introvert Theory, Trait Theories, Self-Theory, Social Learning Theory, Personality Characteristics in Organisations.

Unit-6 : Perception discuss with Introduction, Perceptual Process, Attribution, Internal and External Attributions, Attribution Theory, Frequently used Shortcuts in Judging Others, Individual Decision-making and Perceptual Errors, Decision-making Process, Perceptual Errors.

In all the units of Block -2 **Organisational Behaviour and Individual Perspective-I**, the Check your progress, Glossary, Answers to Check your progress and Suggested Reading has been provided and the Learners are expected to attempt all the Check your progress as part of study.

Unit - 4

Individual Behaviour and Learning Theories

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

4.1. Introduction to Individual Behaviour

4.2. Individual Characteristics and Differences

4.3. Introduction to Learning

4.4. Learning Process

4.5. Theories of learning

4.5.1. Classical Conditioning

4.5.2. Operant Conditioning

4.5.3. Social Learning

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learn what forms an individual's characteristics, we will also learn the differences between individuals and the concept of behaviour modifications. We will also understand the learning process by reading the various learning theories.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define individual characteristics
- Discuss individual differences
- State the relevance of significance learning
- Explain the concept of behaviour modification
- Describe cognitive dissonance theory

4.1. Introduction to Individual Behaviour

Individual behavior refers to the actions and attitudes of an individual within an organization or social setting. It is influenced by various

factors, including personality traits, values, attitudes, beliefs, and perception of the environment. Understanding individual behavior is critical to organizations, as it impacts job performance, decision-making, and overall organizational effectiveness.

Individual behavior can be studied through various perspectives, including psychology, sociology, anthropology, and management. The study of individual behavior has led to the development of various theories and models, including the Big Five personality traits, the social learning theory, and the self-efficacy theory.

Individual behavior is also influenced by various internal and external factors. Internal factors include individual characteristics such as personality traits and emotions, while external factors include the social and physical environment in which individuals operate. Understanding these factors is critical to developing effective strategies for managing individual behavior in the workplace.

Overall, the study of individual behavior is essential to organizations as it helps managers understand how employees think, act, and react to various situations. By understanding individual behavior, managers can develop effective strategies for motivating employees, enhancing job performance, and improving overall organizational effectiveness.

Meaning of Individual Behaviour

Individual behavior refers to the actions, attitudes, and reactions of an individual in a particular situation. It is influenced by various factors, including personality traits, values, attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions of the environment.

Individual behavior can be studied from different perspectives, including psychology, sociology, anthropology, and management. The study of individual behavior helps in understanding the factors that motivate individuals to perform their tasks effectively, how they interact with others, and how they make decisions.

Individual behavior is also affected by both internal and external factors. Internal factors include individual characteristics such as personality traits, emotions, and motivation, while external factors include the social and physical environment in which individuals operate.

In the workplace, understanding individual behavior is critical to developing effective strategies for managing employees, enhancing job performance, and improving overall organizational effectiveness. Managers need to recognize the diversity of individual behavior and

tailor their management strategies to each employee's needs and preferences.

Overall, the study of individual behavior is essential in various fields, including organizational behavior, psychology, sociology, and anthropology, as it helps in understanding how individuals think, act, and react to different situations.

4.2. Individual Characteristics and differences

Individual characteristics and differences refer to the unique traits and qualities that distinguish one person from another. These characteristics can be innate or acquired and can influence an individual's behavior in different situations. Understanding these characteristics and differences is critical to managing individual behavior in the workplace.

Some of the individual characteristics that can influence behavior include personality traits, attitudes, values, beliefs, motivation, and emotions. For example, an employee with a positive attitude towards their work is more likely to be motivated and perform better than an employee with a negative attitude.

Personality traits are an essential aspect of individual characteristics and differences. There are various personality trait models, including the Big Five model, which includes openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. These traits can influence an individual's behavior in different ways. For example, a person who scores high on extraversion may be more outgoing and assertive, while a person who scores high on neuroticism may be more prone to anxiety and stress.

Individual differences can also be influenced by factors such as age, gender, education, and cultural background. These factors can shape an individual's values, beliefs, and attitudes, which can, in turn, affect their behavior in the workplace.

Understanding individual characteristics and differences is critical to developing effective management strategies for different employees. Managers should recognize and value individual differences, tailor their management styles to each employee's needs and preferences, and provide opportunities for individual growth and development.

Overall, recognizing and understanding individual characteristics and differences is essential in managing individual behavior in the workplace, enhancing job performance, and improving overall organizational effectiveness.

4.3. Introduction to Learning

Learning refers to the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and behaviors through experience, study, or instruction. It is a process that involves changes in behavior, thoughts, and emotions. Learning can occur in various settings, including the classroom, workplace, and everyday life.

There are different theories of learning, including behaviorism, cognitivism, and constructivism. Behaviorism suggests that behavior is learned through environmental stimuli, while cognitivism focuses on how individuals process information and construct knowledge. Constructivism emphasizes the importance of individual experiences and how they shape learning.

Learning can occur through various methods, including observation, experience, practice, and reflection. Observational learning occurs when individuals learn by watching others, while experiential learning involves learning through direct experiences. Practice is essential for skill-based learning, while reflection involves thinking about and analyzing past experiences to gain insights and improve future performance.

In the workplace, learning is essential for employees to perform their tasks effectively and adapt to changing environments. Employers can promote learning by providing training and development programs, encouraging employees to take on new challenges, and fostering a culture of continuous learning.

Overall, learning is a critical process that underlies individual and organizational growth and development. Understanding the different theories and methods of learning can help managers develop effective training and development programs and create a workplace culture that values continuous learning and growth.

Meaning of Learning

There are two primary elements in this definition:

1. The change must be relatively permanent. This means that after “learning” our behaviour must be different, either better or worse as compared to our behaviour prior to this learning experience. For example you “learn” to drive a car or have learned how to use a computer.
2. This change must occur due to some kind of experience or practice. This learning is not caused by biological maturation. For example a child does not learn to walk, it is a natural biological phenomenon. We do not learn to eat or drink.

Learning is thus a change in behaviour as a result of experience. Different psychologists and behavioural scientists have defined learning differently. Given below are a few important definitions of learning:

“Learning is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience”.

Stephen P. Robbins

“Learning is the process of having one’s behaviour modified, more or less permanently, by what he does and the consequences of his action, or by what he observes”.

Munn N.L.

“Learning can be defined as relatively permanent change in behaviour potentially that results from reinforced practice or experience”.

Steers and Porter

Accordingly, as a unique determinant of behaviour, learning cannot take place unless the learner actually experiences what has to be learned.

4.4. The Learning Process

Over the years, educational psychologists have identified several principles which seem generally applicable to the learning process. They provide additional insight into what makes people learn most effectively. The learning process involves the following:

1. Readiness
2. Exercise
3. Effect
4. Primacy
5. Intensity
6. Regency

Let us understand each of them one by one.

- **Readiness:** This refers to the individual's readiness or preparedness to learn. According to Thorndike, individuals are more likely to learn when they are ready and willing to learn, and when the material is presented at an appropriate level of difficulty.
- **Exercise:** This refers to the frequency and intensity of practice or repetition. The more an individual practices a skill or behavior, the more likely they are to remember and reproduce it in the future.

- **Effect:** This refers to the positive or negative consequences of a behavior. According to Thorndike's law of effect, behaviors that are followed by positive consequences are more likely to be repeated in the future, while behaviors that are followed by negative consequences are less likely to be repeated.
- **Primacy:** This refers to the idea that information or experiences presented first are more likely to be remembered than information presented later. This is often referred to as the "primacy effect."
- **Intensity:** This refers to the level of emotional arousal or intensity associated with the learning experience. Thorndike believed that higher levels of emotional arousal can enhance learning and memory.
- **Recency:** This refers to the idea that information or experiences presented most recently are more likely to be remembered than information presented earlier. This is often referred to as the "recency effect."

4.5. Theories Involved in Learning

The most basic purpose of learning theory like any other is to better explain how learning occurs. Attempts have been made by the psychologists and behavioural scientists to develop theories of learning.

How do we learn? Three theories have been offered to explain the process by which we acquire patterns of behaviour:

- Classical conditioning theory;
- Operant conditioning theory;
- Social learning theory.

4.5.1. Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is one of the simplest forms of learning yet it has a powerful effect on our attitudes, likes and dislikes, and emotional responses. We have all learned to respond in specific ways to a variety of words and symbols.

Our lives are profoundly influenced by associations we learn through classical conditioning. Ivan Pavlov whose research on the conditioned reflex in dogs revealed much of what we know about the principles of classical conditioning.

Pavlov's Experiment

Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936) organised and directed research in physiology at the Institute of Experimental Medicine in St. Petersburg, Russia from 1891 until his death in 1936. His book "Conditioned Reflexes" is one of the classic works in psychology.

Pavlov's experiment was a famous study in classical conditioning, which is a type of learning where a neutral stimulus is repeatedly paired with a natural or reflexive response until the neutral stimulus alone can elicit the same response.

In Pavlov's experiment, he studied the salivary reflex in dogs. Normally, dogs salivate when they see or smell food (natural or reflexive response). Pavlov observed that the dogs began to salivate even before they were given food, just at the sound of a bell that was regularly presented before the food.

Here's how Pavlov's experiment worked:

- Before conditioning: The dog was presented with food, which naturally elicited salivation (unconditioned response).
- During conditioning: The dog was presented with a neutral stimulus, such as a bell, just before the food. After repeated pairings of the bell and food, the dog began to associate the sound of the bell with the arrival of food and began to salivate in response to the bell alone (conditioned response).
- After conditioning: The dog would salivate in response to the sound of the bell, even if no food was presented.

Pavlov's experiment demonstrated how a neutral stimulus (the bell) can become associated with a natural or reflexive response (salivation) through repeated pairings, leading to a conditioned response. This experiment has been influential in the development of behaviorist theories of learning and has had practical applications in areas such as animal training and behavior therapy. Elements and Processes in Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is a type of learning in which a neutral stimulus is repeatedly paired with a natural or reflexive response, eventually leading the neutral stimulus to elicit the same response. Classical conditioning involves several key elements and processes, including:

- **Unconditioned stimulus (UCS):** This is a stimulus that naturally and automatically triggers a response without any prior learning.

For example, in Pavlov's experiment, the food was the unconditioned stimulus that naturally triggered the dog's salivation response.

- **Unconditioned response (UCR):** This is the natural or reflexive response that is triggered by the unconditioned stimulus. For example, in Pavlov's experiment, the dog's salivation response to the food was the unconditioned response.
- **Conditioned stimulus (CS):** This is a previously neutral stimulus that, through repeated pairing with the unconditioned stimulus, comes to elicit the same response as the unconditioned stimulus. For example, in Pavlov's experiment, the sound of the bell was the conditioned stimulus that came to elicit salivation.
- **Conditioned response (CR):** This is the learned response that is elicited by the conditioned stimulus. For example, in Pavlov's experiment, the dog's salivation response to the sound of the bell was the conditioned response.

The processes involved in classical conditioning include:

- **Acquisition:** This is the initial learning phase in which the conditioned stimulus is repeatedly paired with the unconditioned stimulus, leading to the development of the conditioned response.
- **Extinction:** This is the gradual weakening and disappearance of the conditioned response when the conditioned stimulus is presented repeatedly without the unconditioned stimulus.
- **Spontaneous recovery:** This is the reappearance of the conditioned response after a period of rest following extinction.
- **Generalization:** This is the tendency to respond to stimuli that are similar to the conditioned stimulus. For example, if a dog is conditioned to salivate to the sound of a particular bell, it may also salivate to other similar-sounding bells.
- **Discrimination:** This is the ability to distinguish between the conditioned stimulus and other similar stimuli that do not elicit the conditioned response.

Overall, classical conditioning involves the pairing of stimuli to elicit a learned response, and understanding the elements and processes involved can help explain how new behaviors and responses are acquired through experience.

Factors Influencing Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is influenced by several factors that can affect the strength and durability of the conditioned response. Some of the factors influencing classical conditioning are:

- **Timing:** The timing between the presentation of the conditioned stimulus and the unconditioned stimulus can impact the strength and durability of the conditioned response. For example, if the conditioned stimulus is presented too long before or after the unconditioned stimulus, the conditioning may not occur as effectively.
- **Intensity:** The intensity or strength of the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli can impact the strength and durability of the conditioned response. For example, if the conditioned stimulus is presented at a low volume or intensity, it may not elicit a strong enough response to effectively condition the behavior.
- **Consistency:** The consistency of the pairing between the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli is important for the conditioning to occur. If the pairing is inconsistent or unpredictable, the conditioning may not occur effectively.
- **Novelty:** The novelty of the conditioned stimulus can impact the conditioning process. A novel or new stimulus may be more salient or attention-grabbing, making it easier to condition a response.
- **Previous experience:** The individual's previous experience with the stimuli can impact the conditioning process. If the individual has had prior experience with the stimuli, it may be more difficult to condition a new response.
- **Biological factors:** Biological factors such as genetics, age, and health can impact the conditioning process. For example, individuals with certain genetic predispositions or health conditions may be more or less responsive to conditioning.

Understanding these factors can help individuals better understand how classical conditioning works and how it can be applied in various contexts, such as in education, therapy, and marketing.

Limitations of Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning has real limitation in its acceptability to human behaviour in organisations for at least three reasons:

- Biological constraints can limit the effectiveness of classical conditioning.
- The presence of other stimuli can overshadow or block the association between the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli.
- The conditioned response can gradually disappear through extinction if the conditioned stimulus is repeatedly presented without the unconditioned stimulus.
- Generalization and discrimination can result in false generalizations or lack of generalization, limiting the effectiveness of classical conditioning.
- Ethical concerns arise with the use of aversive stimuli or techniques in humans and animals.
- Classical conditioning may not be effective if the individual has prior experience or knowledge of the stimuli.
- Classical conditioning may not be applicable to complex behaviors or cognitive processes.
- The strength and duration of the conditioned response can vary between individuals and situations.

4.5.2. Operant Conditioning

Operant conditioning is a type of learning that occurs as a result of the consequences of a behavior.

It was first proposed by B.F. Skinner and is sometimes referred to as Skinnerian conditioning or instrumental conditioning. Unlike classical conditioning, operant conditioning involves voluntary behavior, which is shaped by its consequences.

In operant conditioning, behavior is modified by the consequences that follow it. If a behavior is followed by a favorable consequence, such as a reward, it is more likely to be repeated in the future.

Conversely, if a behavior is followed by an unfavorable consequence, such as punishment or negative feedback, it is less likely to be repeated in the future.

Operant conditioning involves three primary components:

- **Antecedents:** These are the events or stimuli that precede a behavior.
- **Behavior:** This refers to the voluntary action that an individual engages in.

- **Consequences:** These are the events or stimuli that follow a behavior.

The consequences of a behavior can be either positive or negative. Positive consequences include rewards, such as praise or a desirable outcome, which increase the likelihood of the behavior being repeated. Negative consequences include punishments, such as negative feedback or an undesirable outcome, which decrease the likelihood of the behavior being repeated.

Skinner proposed that behavior is shaped through the use of reinforcement, which involves either adding or removing a consequence to increase or decrease the likelihood of a behavior being repeated. Reinforcement can be positive, where a reward is given for a behavior, or negative, where an undesirable consequence is removed. Additionally, operant conditioning can also involve punishment, where an unfavorable consequence is added to decrease the likelihood of a behavior being repeated.

Overall, operant conditioning can be a powerful tool for shaping behavior, particularly in the context of education, parenting, and training. However, it also has its limitations and ethical considerations, such as the potential for reinforcement to become coercive or the use of punishment to become abusive.

Factors Influencing Operant Conditioning

Several factors affect response rate, resistance to extinction and how quickly a response is acquired.

- **Timing:** The timing of the consequences in relation to the behavior can affect the effectiveness of operant conditioning. Immediate consequences are more effective than delayed consequences.
- **Frequency:** The frequency of the consequences can influence the strength of the conditioning. Reinforcing a behavior consistently is more effective than reinforcing it sporadically.
- **Magnitude:** The magnitude of the consequences can also affect the strength of the conditioning. Larger rewards or punishments tend to be more effective than smaller ones.
- **Contingency:** The contingency between the behavior and the consequence is essential in operant conditioning. The behavior should be clearly linked to the consequence for effective conditioning.

- **Motivation:** Motivation can affect the effectiveness of operant conditioning. If an individual is not motivated to perform a behavior, reinforcement may not be effective in shaping the behavior.
- **Previous experience:** Previous experience can influence operant conditioning. If an individual has prior experience with a behavior, reinforcement may be less effective in shaping the behavior.
- **Individual differences:** Individual differences in cognitive ability, personality, and learning style can affect the effectiveness of operant conditioning. Some individuals may respond better to positive reinforcement, while others may respond better to punishment.
- **Cultural factors:** Cultural factors can also influence operant conditioning. Different cultures may have different attitudes towards reinforcement and punishment, which can affect the effectiveness of operant conditioning.

4.5.3. Social Learning

Social learning theory, also known as observational learning, is a theory developed by psychologist Albert Bandura that explains how people learn through observation, imitation, and modeling. Unlike classical and operant conditioning, social learning theory suggests that learning can occur through indirect experience, such as watching someone else perform a behavior and observing the consequences of that behavior.

The key elements of social learning theory are:

- **Observation:** The learner observes the behavior of others, including the consequences of that behavior.
- **Modeling:** The learner imitates the behavior of the model, based on their observation of the consequences.
- **Reinforcement:** The learner is reinforced or punished based on their own behavior, which can further shape their future behavior.
- **Self-efficacy:** The learner develops a sense of self-efficacy or confidence in their ability to perform the behavior.
- Factors that influence social learning include:
- **Attention:** The learner must pay attention to the model and their behavior in order to learn from it.
- **Retention:** The learner must be able to remember the behavior

they observed in order to imitate it later.

- **Reproduction:** The learner must have the physical and cognitive ability to reproduce the behavior they observed.
- **Motivation:** The learner must be motivated to imitate the behavior, which can be influenced by factors such as incentives and consequences.
- **Self-efficacy:** The learner's sense of self-efficacy can influence their willingness to attempt the behavior.

Overall, social learning theory suggests that people learn through a combination of direct experience and observation of others, and that the consequences of behavior can shape future behavior.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Highly effective individuals understand that in today's scenario, they not only need to be technically proficient, but also need to demonstrate Individual behaviour is the ability of an individual to react and interact with others in general or while performing a particular task. It is determined by not just a measure of his practical knowledge or skills in a functional area such as human relations, marketing, or information and communications technologies, but also a reflection of personal experiences, qualities, aptitudes and attitudes.
- Learning is a term frequently used by a great number of people in a wide variety of contexts. Learning can be defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour or potential behaviour as a result of direct or indirect experience.
- Most learning experts agree that reinforcement is the single most important principle of learning. Learning is considered vital for understanding human behaviour at work in organisations

Check Your Progress

1. _____ is a Study of individual Behaviour
 - a. Anthropology
 - b. Psychology
 - c. political science
 - d. Sociology

2. Experiments performed by Ivan Pavlov led to what theory?
 - a. classical conditioning
 - b. operant conditioning
 - c. social learning
 - d. behavior shaping
3. According to operant conditioning, when behaviour is not reinforced, what happens to the probability of that behaviour occurring again?
 - a. It increases.
 - b. It declines.
 - c. It remains unchanged.
 - d. It becomes zero.
4. The application of reinforcement concepts to individuals in the work setting is referred to as
 - a. classical conditioning
 - b. self-management
 - c. Reengineering
 - d. OB Mod
5. Every individual set his goal and he also know the _____ which will take him to achieve the goal.
 - a. Process
 - b. Behaviour
 - c. Event
 - d. way

Glossary

<i>Auditory Learners:</i>	Auditory learners learn primarily through listening.
<i>Classical Conditioning:</i>	Classical conditioning introduces a simple cause-and-effect relationship between one stimulus and response.
<i>Individual Behaviour:</i>	Individual behaviour is the ability of an individual to react and interact with others in general or while performing a particular task.

Kinesthetics Learners:	Kinesthetics learners learn better by doing.
Learning:	Learning is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience.
Operant Conditioning:	Operant conditioning argues that behaviour is a function of its consequences.
Recency:	The principle of recency states that things most recently learned are best remembered.
Reflex:	A reflex is an involuntary response to a particular stimulus.
Social Learning:	Social learning integrates the cognitive and operant approaches to learning. It recognises that learning does not take place only because of environmental stimuli (classical and operant conditioning) or of individual determinism (cognitive approach) but is a blend of both views.
Visual Learners:	Visual learners learn primarily through the written word.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. b. Psychology
2. a. classical conditioning
3. b. It declines
4. d. OB Mod
5. b. Behaviour

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
2. James, P. S. (2017). *Organisational Behaviour, 1e*. Pearson Education India.
3. Black, J. S., Bright, D. S., Gardner, D. G. (2019). *Organizational Behavior*. (n.p.): 12th Media Services.

Unit - 5

Personality and Its Theories

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

5.1. Introduction to Personality

5.1.1. Meaning and definition of Personality

5.1.2. Determinants of Personality

5.1.3. Theories of Personality

5.1.4. Carl Jung's Extrovert-introvert Theory

5.1.5. Trait Theories

5.1.6. Self-Theory

5.1.7. Social Learning Theory

5.2. Personality Characteristics in Organisations

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learning what is personality and what are the determinants that form a personality. We will also learn the various personality theories which will help us understand the concept of personality better and understand the various personalities in an organization.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, your will be able to:

- Understand and define the term Personality
- Discuss determinants of personality
- State the relevance of Personality Theories

5.1. Introduction to Personality

When we talk of personality, we don't mean a person who has charm, a positive attitude toward life, a smiling face, or who has won the "miss

world” contest. When psychologists talk of personality, they mean a dynamic concept describing the growth and development of a person’s whole psychological system. The word ‘personality’ has interesting etymological origins. It can be traced to the Latin words “per sonare” which translates as “to speak through”. The Latin term was used to denote the masks worn by actors in ancient Greece and Rome. This Latin meaning is particularly relevant to the contemporary analysis of personality. Personality traditionally refers to how people influence others through their external appearances and actions. But for psychologists, personality includes:

1. External appearances and behaviour
2. The inner awareness of self as a permanent organising force, and
3. The particular organisation of measurable traits, both inner and outer.

Personality is defined as a relatively stable set of characteristics that influence an individual’s behaviour. For our purposes, you should think of personality as the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others. This is most often described in terms of measurable personality traits that a person exhibits.

5.1.1. Meaning and Definition of Personality

Through psychologists and social scientists unanimously agree to the importance of personality, they are unable to come up with a unanimous definition. Many authorities on the subject have defined personality in different ways. Some of the definitions are reproduced below:

Probably the most meaningful approach would be to include both the person and the role as Floyd L Ruch does in his definition. He states that:

“The human personality includes:

1. External appearance and behaviour or social stimulus value.
2. Inner awareness of self as a permanent organising force.
3. The particular pattern or organisation of measurable traits, both “inner and “outer”.”

Gordon Allport gave the most frequently used definition of personality nearly 70 years ago. He said personality is “the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment”.

J.B Kolasa defines personality as - “Personality is a broad, amorphous designation relating to fundamental approaches of persons to others and themselves. To most psychologists and students of behaviour, this term refers to the study of the characteristic traits of an individual, relationships between these traits and the way in which a person adjusts to other people and situations”.

According to *Gluck* – “Personality is a pattern of stable states and characteristics of a person that influences his or her behaviour toward goal achievement. Each person has unique ways of protecting these states”.

James D Thompson and Donald Van Houten define personality as - “a very diverse and complex psychological concept. The word ‘personality’ may mean something like outgoing, invigorating interpersonal abilities ... but we must also recognize and explain the fact that development results in man acquiring a distinctiveness or uniqueness which gives him identity which enables him and us to recognize him as apart from others. These distinguishing characteristics are summarized by the term ‘personality’”.

From the above definitions we can say that personality is a very diverse and complex psychological concept. It is concerned with external appearance and behaviour, self, measurable traits, and situational interactions.

5.1.2. Determinants of Personality

The determinants of personality can perhaps best be grouped in five broad categories: biological, cultural, family, social and situational.

- **Biological Determinants:** Biological factors play a crucial role in shaping one's personality. Research suggests that genetics, physical attributes, and hormonal imbalances can significantly influence personality development. For example, genes can predispose individuals to certain behavioral tendencies, such as introversion or extroversion. Physical attributes like height, weight, and body shape can also impact one's self-image and overall personality. Hormonal imbalances can affect mood and behavior, and can contribute to conditions like anxiety or depression.
- **Cultural Determinants:** Cultural factors refer to the values, beliefs, customs, and traditions of a society or group. Culture shapes how individuals perceive and interact with the world around them. For example, individualistic cultures place a high

value on independence and personal achievement, whereas collectivist cultures prioritize group harmony and interdependence. Culture can also influence personality traits such as assertiveness, emotional expressiveness, and self-esteem.

- **Family Determinants:** Family dynamics and relationships can have a significant impact on personality development. Parents, siblings, and other family members shape an individual's beliefs, values, and attitudes towards themselves and others. Parenting styles can also play a crucial role in shaping personality. For example, authoritarian parenting, characterized by strict rules and punishment, can lead to individuals with low self-esteem and a lack of autonomy. On the other hand, authoritative parenting, characterized by warmth, support, and clear boundaries, can foster healthy personality development.
- **Social Determinants:** Social factors refer to the environmental influences that shape personality. These factors include peer relationships, educational experiences, and socioeconomic status. Peer relationships can play a significant role in shaping one's self-concept and social skills. Educational experiences, such as exposure to diverse perspectives and critical thinking, can foster intellectual development and openness to new ideas. Socioeconomic status can impact opportunities for education, healthcare, and employment, which in turn can affect personality traits such as resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy.
- **Situational Determinants:** Situational factors refer to the context in which behavior occurs. These factors include immediate social, cultural, and environmental circumstances. Situational factors can influence the expression of personality traits. For example, a person may be shy and introverted in new social situations, but outgoing and sociable with close friends. Situational factors can also impact behavior in the workplace, school, or other settings. For instance, a person may be more assertive and competitive in a work environment than in a social setting.

In summary, the determinants of personality are complex and multifaceted. Biological, cultural, family, social, and situational factors all play a crucial role in shaping personality development and expression.

5.1.3. Theories of Personality

Over time, researchers have developed a number of personality theories and no theory is complete in itself. The theories can be conveniently grouped under following heads:

5.1.4. Carl Jung's Extrovert-introvert Theory

Carl Jung's theory of extroversion and introversion is one of the most well-known and influential theories in the field of psychology. According to Jung, extroverts and introverts are two fundamentally different psychological types that have distinct patterns of behavior, thought, and perception.

Extroverts: Extroverts are individuals who tend to be outgoing, sociable, and expressive. They tend to be oriented towards the external world and seek out stimulation from their environment. Extroverts tend to be energized by social interaction, and they are often assertive, confident, and action-oriented. They may be perceived as outgoing, talkative, and sociable.

Introverts: Introverts, on the other hand, are individuals who tend to be quiet, reserved, and introspective. They tend to be oriented towards their internal world and may find social interaction draining. Introverts tend to be reflective, thoughtful, and sensitive, and may have a rich inner life. They may be perceived as shy, introspective, and thoughtful.

Jung believed that everyone has both an extroverted and an introverted side, but that one of these tendencies tends to be dominant. He also believed that psychological health involves developing both aspects of the self, rather than exclusively relying on one or the other.

Jung's theory of extroversion and introversion can be illustrated in a diagram called the "Jungian cognitive function stack." The cognitive function stack shows how different cognitive functions are ordered and prioritized in each of the two personality types.

For extroverts, the cognitive function stack looks like this:

- Extraverted Sensing (Se)
- Extraverted Thinking (Te)
- Extraverted Feeling (Fe)
- Extraverted Intuition (Ne)
- For introverts, the cognitive function stack looks like this:
- Introverted Intuition (Ni)
- Introverted Feeling (Fi)

- Introverted Thinking (Ti)
- Introverted Sensing (Si)

The cognitive function stack reflects how extroverts and introverts process information and make decisions. Extroverts tend to rely on their senses and direct experience (Se), as well as logical analysis (Te) and social harmony (Fe). Introverts, on the other hand, tend to rely on intuition (Ni), subjective values (Fi), and internal logic (Ti), as well as past experiences (Si).

In summary, Carl Jung's theory of extroversion and introversion posits that these two tendencies represent fundamentally different psychological types, with distinct patterns of behavior, thought, and perception. By understanding and developing both aspects of the self, individuals can achieve greater psychological health and balance. The cognitive function stack provides a useful visual representation of how these different aspects of the self are prioritized and utilized in each personality type.

5.1.5. Trait Theories

Some early personality researchers believed that to understand individuals, we must break down behaviour patterns into a series of observable traits. According to trait theory, combining these traits into a group forms an individual's personality. A personality trait can be defined as an "enduring attribute of a person that appears consistently in a variety of situations". In combination, such traits distinguish one personality from another.

A trait is a personal characteristic that is used to describe and explain personality. It is a list of relatively stable and consistent personal characteristics. Trait theories are attempts to explain personality and differences between people in terms of their personal characteristics.

1. ***Gordon Allport's Personality Traits:*** Claims that personality traits are real entities, physically located somewhere in the brain. We each inherit our own unique set of raw material for given traits, which are then shaped by our experiences. Traits describe the particular way we respond to the environment and the consistency of that response. If we are shy, we respond to strangers differently than if we are friendly; if we are self-confident, we approach tasks differently than if we feel inferior. Recent research in behavioural genetics supports the notion that the genes influence certain personality characteristics.

Allport identified two main categories of traits:

- (a) **Common Traits:** Common traits are those we share or hold in common with most others in our own culture.
- (b) **Individual Traits:** According to Allport, there are three individual traits: cardinal, central and secondary traits.
 - 1. **Cardinal Traits:** A cardinal trait is “so pervasive and outstanding in a life that almost every act seems traceable to its influence”. It is so strong a part of a person’s personality that he may become identified with or known for that trait.
 - 2. **Central Traits:** According to Allport, are those that we would “mention in writing a careful letter of recommendation”.
 - 3. **Secondary Traits:** The secondary traits are less obvious, less consistent and not as critical in defining our personality as the cardinal and central traits. We have many more secondary traits than cardinal or central traits. Examples of secondary traits are food and music preferences.

2. **Raymond Cattell’s 16 Personality Factors:** Raymond Cattell considered personality to be a pattern of traits providing the key to understanding and predicting a person’s behaviour. Cattell identified two types:

- a. **Surface Traits:** Observable qualities of a person like honest, helpful, kind, generous etc., Cattell called these “surface traits”.
- b. **Source Traits:** Make up the most basic personality structure and, according to Cattell, actually cause behaviour. Even though we all possess the same source traits, we do not all possess them in the same degree. Intelligence is a source trait, and every person has a certain amount of it but, obviously not exactly the same amount or the same kind.

Cattell found 23 source traits in normal individuals, 16 of which he studied in great detail. Cattell’s sixteen-personality factors questionnaire, commonly called the “16 P.F. Test”, yields a personality profile. The Cattell personality profile can be used to provide a better understanding of a single individual or to compare an individual’s personality profile with that of others.

The trait approach has been the subject of considerable criticism. Some theorists argue that simply identifying traits is not enough; instead, personality is dynamic and not completely static. Further, trait theorists tended to ignore the influence of situations.

5.1.6. Self-Theory

The Self Theory emphasizes on the set of perceptions an individual has for himself and the perceptions of the relationships he has with others and the other aspects of life. Carl Rogers has contributed significantly towards the self theory.

The self theory comprises of four factors that are explained below:

- **Self-Image:** Self-image means what an individual thinks about himself. Everybody has certain beliefs about themselves, such as who or what they are, these beliefs form the self image and identity of a person.

According to Erikson, identity is formed through a lifelong development usually unconscious to the individual and his society, i.e. an individual forms perception about himself unconsciously, according to the social circumstances.

- **Ideal-Self:** The ideal-self means, the way an individual would like to be. It is very much different from the self-image, as it shows the ideal position perceived by an individual, whereas the self-image is the reality that an individual perceives. Thus, there could be a gap between these two. The ideal-self-acts as a stimulus to motivate an individual to undertake those activities that are in compliance with the characteristics of his ideal self.
- **Looking-Glass-Self:** The looking-glass self means, an individual's perception of how others are perceiving his qualities or feeling about him. Simply, it is the perception of other's perception, i.e. perceiving what others perceive about yourself and not see what actually you are.
- **Real-Self:** The real-self is what others show you with respect to your self-image. An individual's self-image is confirmed when others responses to him and shares their beliefs or perception, about what they actually feel about him. This is taken as feedback from the environment that helps an individual to adjust his self-image accordingly and be in line with the cues he had received.

Thus, according to Carl Rogers, the self-theory is composed of several perceptions of "I" or "me" and the perception of relationships of "I" and "me" to others.

5.1.7. Social Learning Theory

The main focus of social learning approach is on the patterns of

behaviour the individuals learn in coping with environment. Some behaviour patterns are learned or acquired through direct experience. Responses can also be acquired or learned without direct reinforcement. Individuals can also learn by observing what happens to other people and just by being told about something, as well as direct experiences. So, for example, much of what we have learned comes from watching models – parents, teachers, peers, bosses, etc. This view - that we can learn through both observation and direct experience - has been called social-learning theory.

Social-learning theory acknowledges the existence of observational learning and the importance of perception in learning. People respond to how they perceive and define consequences, not to the objective consequences themselves. The influence of models is central to the social-learning process. Four processes have been found to determine the influence that a model will have on an individual. They are:

1. **Attentional Processes:** People tend to be most influenced by models that are attractive and important to us. As the model influences them, they learn from the model by paying close attention to the model.
2. **Retention Processes:** A model's influence will depend on how well the individual remembers the model's actions and behaviours after the model is no longer available.
3. **Motor reproduction processes:** After a person has seen a new behaviour by observing the model, the watching must be converted to doing. This process then demonstrates that the individual can perform the modelled activities.
4. **Reinforcement Processes:** Individuals will be motivated to exhibit the modelled behaviour if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behaviours that are reinforced will be given more attention, learned better, and performed more often. Reinforcement that controls the expression of learned behaviour may be
 - a. **Direct:** It refers to the social approval or disapproval or alleviation of aversive conditions, and other tangible rewards.
 - b. **Vicarious:** It refers to observation of someone else receiving reward or punishment for similar behaviour.
 - c. **Self-administered:** It refers to evaluation of one's own performance with self-praise.

Of all these, self-administered reinforcement theory plays a vital role in social learning theory.

5.2. Personality Characteristics in Organisations

Managers should learn as much as possible about personality in order to understand their employees. Hundreds of personality characteristics have been identified. We have selected eight characteristics because of their particular influences on individual behaviour in organisations.

They are:

1. **Locus of Control:** Some people believe they are masters of their own fate. Other people see themselves as pawns of fate, believing that what happens to them in their lives is due to luck or chance. An individual's generalized belief about internal (self) versus external (situation or others) control is called locus of control.
 - a. **Internals:** Those who believe they control their destinies have been labelled internals. Internals (those with an internal locus of control) have been found to have higher job satisfaction, to be more likely to assume managerial positions, and to prefer participative management styles. In addition, internals have been shown to display higher work motivation, hold stronger beliefs that effort leads to performance, receive higher salaries and display less anxiety than externals (those with an external locus of control).
 - b. **Externals:** Externals are those individuals who believe that what happens to them is controlled by outside forces such as luck or chance. Externals prefer a more structured work setting and they may be more reluctant to participate in decision-making. They are more compliant and willing to follow directions.

Research on locus of control has strong implications for organisations. A large amount of research comparing internals with externals has consistently shown that individuals who rate high in externality are less satisfied with their jobs, have higher absenteeism rates, are more alienated from the work setting, and are less involved on their jobs than internals. Why are externals more dissatisfied? The answer is probably because they perceive themselves as having little control over those organisational outcomes that are important to them. Knowing about locus of control can prove valuable insights to managers. Because internals believe that they control what happens to them, they will want to exercise control in their work environment. Allowing internals considerable

voice in how work is performed is important. Internals will not react well to being closely supervised. Externals, in contrast, may prefer a more structured work setting, and they may be more reluctant to participate in decision- making.

Therefore, internals do well on sophisticated tasks – which includes most managerial and professional jobs – that require complex information processing and learning. Additionally, internals are more suited to jobs that require initiative and independence of action. In contrast, externals should do well on jobs that are well structured and routine and where success depends heavily on complying with the directions of others.

2. **Machiavellianism:** Machiavellianism then is a personality characteristic indicating one's willingness to do whatever it takes to get one's way. An individual high in Machiavellianism is pragmatic, maintains emotional distance and believes that ends can justify means. "If it works, use it", is consistent with a high-Mach perspective.

High-Machs believe that any means justify the desired ends. They believe that manipulations of others are fine if it helps achieve a goal. Thus, high-Machs are likely to justify their manipulative behaviour as ethical. They are emotionally detached from other people and are oriented towards objective aspects of situations.

R. Christie and F.L. Geis, have found that high-Machs flourish

- a. When they interact fact-to-face with others rather than indirectly.
- b. When the situation has a minimum number of rules and regulations, thus allowing latitude for improvisation, and
- c. When emotional involvement with details irrelevant to winning distracts low- Machs.

A high-Mach individual behaves in accordance with Machiavelli's ideas, which include the notion that it is better to be feared than loved.

High-Machs tend to use deceit in relationships, have a cynical view of human nature and have little concern for conventional notions of right and wrong.

They are skilled manipulators of other people, relying on their persuasive abilities. High-Machs are suitable in jobs that require bargaining skills or where there are substantial rewards for winning (example: commissioned sales).

3. **Self-esteem:** Self-esteem is an individual's general feeling of self-worth. Individuals with high self-esteem have positive feelings about themselves, perceive themselves to have strength as well as weaknesses, and believe their strengths are more important than their weaknesses. Individuals with low self-esteem view themselves negatively. They are more strongly affected by what other people think of them, and they complement individuals who give them positive feedback while cutting down people who give them negative feedback.

Self-esteem may be strongly affected by situations. Success tends to raise self-esteem, whereas failure tends to lower it. Given that high self-esteem is generally a positive characteristic; managers should encourage employees to raise their self-esteem by giving them appropriate challenges and opportunities for success.

4. **Self-Efficacy:** Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task. The higher your self-efficacy, the more confidence you have in your ability to succeed in a task. So, in difficult situations, we find that people with low self-efficacy are more likely to slacken their effort or give up altogether, whereas those with high self-efficacy will try harder to master the challenge. In addition, individuals high in self-efficacy seem to respond to negative feedback with increased effort and motivation; those low in self-efficacy are likely to reduce their effort when given negative feedback.

Individuals with high self-efficacy believe that they have the ability to get things done, that they are capable of putting forth the effort to accomplish the task, and that they can overcome any obstacles to their success. There are four sources of self-efficacy:

- a. Prior experiences
- b. Behaviour models - witnessing the success of others
- c. Persuasion from other people and
- d. Assessment of current physical and emotional capabilities.

Believing in one's own capability to get something done is an important facilitator of success. There is strong evidence that self-efficacy leads to high performance on a wide variety of physical and mental tasks. Managers can help employees develop their self-efficacy. This can be done by providing avenues for showing performance, and rewarding an employee's achievements.

5. Self-monitoring: A characteristic with great potential for affecting behaviour in organisations is self-monitoring. Self-monitoring refers to an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external situational factors. High self-monitors pay attention to what is appropriate in particular situations and to the behaviour of other people, and they behave accordingly. Low self-monitors, in contrast, are not as vigilant to situational cues, and act from internal states rather than paying attention to the situation. As a result, the behaviour of low self-monitors is consistent across situations. High self-monitors, because their behaviour varies with the situation, appears to be more unpredictable and less consistent. High self-monitors are capable of presenting striking contradictions between their public persona and their private self. Low self-monitors can't disguise themselves this way.

6. Positive/Negative Affect: Individuals who focus on the positive aspects of themselves, other people, and the world in general are said to have positive affect. In contrast, those who accentuate the negative in themselves, others, and the world are said to possess negative affect.

Employees with positive affect are absent from work less often. Individuals with negative affect report more work stress. Negative individual affect produces negative group affect and this leads to less cooperative behaviour in the work group. Managers can do several things to promote positive affect, including allowing participative decision making and providing pleasant working conditions.

7. Risk-taking: People differ in their willingness to take chances. This 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.

High-risk-taking managers make more rapid decisions and use less information in making their choices than low-risk-taking managers. While, it is generally correct to conclude that managers in organisations are risk averse, there are still individual differences on this dimension. As a result, it makes sense to recognize these differences and even to consider aligning risk-taking propensity with specific job demands.

For example, a high-risk-taking propensity may lead to more effective performance for a stockbroker but these personality characteristics might prove a major obstacle for an auditor.

- 8. Type A Personality:** Type A behaviour pattern is a complex of personality and behavioural characteristics, including competitiveness, time urgency, social status, insecurity, aggression, hostility and a quest for achievements. Type A personality individual is “aggressively involved in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons”.
- 9. Type B Personality:** The alternative to the Type A behaviour pattern is the Type B behaviour pattern. People with Type B personalities are relatively free of the Type A behaviours and characteristics. Type B personalities are “rarely harried by the desire to obtain a wildly increasing number of things or participate in an endless growing series of events in an ever- decreasing amount of time”.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Personality is defined as a relatively stable set of characteristics that influence an individual’s behaviour. One should think of personality as the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others.
- This is most often described in terms of measurable personality traits that a person exhibits.
- Personality plays the most important role in determining the level of individual effectiveness. Various determinants and theories have proven that the individual personality can be developed in order to develop one’s effectiveness.
- The personality not only develops but also changes according to various situations.

Check Your Progress

1. The combination of characteristics or qualities that form an individual’s distinctive character” is the definition of ____
- a. Personality
 - b. Motivation
 - c. Attitude
 - d. behaviour

2. Every individual is _____ by their personality.
 - a. Intellectual
 - b. Specific
 - c. Unique
 - d. systematic
3. From the below which is not a outcome from person having good personality
 - a. good Performer
 - b. Good team player
 - c. Lead a team well
 - d. Make Profit
4. Outgoing, talkative, social are part of _____ Personality Trait as per big 5 personality trait
 - a. Friendly
 - b. Openness to experience
 - c. Introversion
 - d. Extroversion
5. Relaxed and Secure are part of _____ Personality Trait as per big 5 personality trait
 - a. Agreeableness
 - b. Emotional Stability
 - c. Openness to experience
 - d. Introversion

Glossary

- Conscience:** The behaviours for which we have been punished and about which we feel guilty.
- Ectomorph:** According to Sheldon's Physiognomy Theory, he has thin, long and poorly developed body.
- Intuition:** It is based on unconscious inner perception of the potentialities of events or things.
- Mesomorph:** According to Sheldon's Physiognomy Theory, he has a strong, athletic and tough body type.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. a. Personality
2. c. Unique
3. d. Make Profit
4. d. Extroversion
5. b. Emotional Stability

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
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Unit-6

Perception

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

6.1. Introduction

6.2. Perceptual Process

6.3. Attribution

6.3.1. Internal and External Attributions

6.3.2. Attribution Theory

6.4. Frequently used Shortcuts in Judging Others

6.5. Individual Decision-making and Perceptual Errors

6.5.1. Decision-making Process

6.5.2. Perceptual Errors

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learn and understand the concept of perception and its process. We will also be looking into the errors that might arise during the perception process and we will also learn the various theories of perception.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, you will be able:

- Define the term perception
- Discuss Perceptual process
- State the relevance of Frequently used shortcuts in judging others
- Explain the concept of Individual Decision Making
- Know about Perceptual errors

6.1. Introduction

Perception involves the way we view the world around us. It adds meaning to information gathered via the five senses of touch, smell, hearing, vision and taste. Perception is the primary vehicle through which we come to understand our surroundings and ourselves. Perception can be defined as a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment

Why is perception important in the study of OB?

Perception is an essential element in the study of Organizational Behavior (OB) because it is through perception that individuals make sense of the world around them and interpret the events, people, and objects in their environment. Perception is the process by which people organize and interpret sensory information to make sense of their surroundings.

In the context of OB, perception plays a crucial role in shaping how individuals perceive and respond to their work environment. For instance, how an employee perceives their supervisor's communication style or their workload can affect their motivation and job satisfaction. Perception can also influence how individuals perceive their role in the organization, their relationships with their colleagues, and their job performance.

Additionally, perception can impact organizational communication and decision-making. Misperceptions and misunderstandings can lead to conflicts and breakdowns in communication, which can have negative consequences for the organization. Understanding how perception works and how it influences behavior can help managers and organizations create a more positive work environment and improve communication and decision-making processes.

Therefore, studying perception is critical for managers and organizational behavior researchers as it provides insights into how individuals process information, interpret their surroundings, and make decisions. By understanding perception, managers can improve communication, resolve conflicts, and foster a positive work environment that supports employee engagement and performance.

Factors Influencing Perception

Perception is a complex process that involves several factors that influence how individuals interpret and make sense of the world around

them. Some of the primary factors that influence perception include:

- **Experience:** An individual's past experiences can significantly influence how they perceive their environment. Individuals tend to rely on their past experiences and knowledge to make sense of new information and situations.
- **Expectations:** Expectations can also influence perception. People tend to perceive things that match their expectations more readily than things that do not match their expectations. Expectations can be influenced by several factors, including past experiences, cultural background, and stereotypes.
- **Motivation:** An individual's motivation can influence their perception. People tend to be more attentive to stimuli that are relevant to their goals or interests. For example, if an individual is motivated to achieve a particular goal, they may be more likely to notice information that is related to that goal.
- **Emotions:** Emotions can also influence perception. An individual's emotional state can affect how they perceive and interpret information. For instance, someone who is in a negative emotional state may interpret a neutral comment as a criticism.
- **Culture:** Culture plays a significant role in shaping an individual's perception. Cultural background can influence how individuals perceive different stimuli, including facial expressions, gestures, and social norms.
- **Context:** The context in which a stimulus is presented can also influence perception. The same object or event can be perceived differently depending on the context in which it is presented.
- **Attention:** Attention is a crucial factor in perception. People tend to perceive things that they are paying attention to and may overlook information that is not relevant or salient to them.

In summary, perception is influenced by several factors, including an individual's experience, expectations, motivation, emotions, culture, context, and attention. Understanding these factors is essential for managers and organizational behavior researchers to understand how individuals interpret and respond to their environment. By understanding perception, managers can improve communication, resolve conflicts, and create a more positive work environment that supports employee engagement and performance.

6.2. Perceptual Process

Perception is the process of interpreting and understanding one's environment. It is a complex psychological process, but it can be boiled down to four steps: observation, selection, organisation and interpretation. First, we observe information (sensory data) from the environment through our senses: sight, hearing, touch, taste and smell. Next, our mind screens the data and will select only the items we will process further. Finally, we organise the selected data into meaningful patterns for interpretation and response.

The key elements in the perceptual process are selection and organisation.

Selection

Every second of every day, individuals are bombarded by countless stimuli through the human senses of sight, hearing, touch, smell and taste. We attend to only a small portion of these stimuli (Certo and Certo). Since we are not in a position to digest all that we observe, we engage in selectivity. We collect bits and pieces of information from environment—depending on our interests, background, experiences etc. Also, we tend to see only what we want to see. Out of a hundred children playing in a park, 'X' often would look at what his own kids are doing. Thus, people perceive what is most important for them in a particular situation. While in a bus, for example, an employee who is already late for his office is quite likely to look at his watch time again and again rather than two lovers sitting in front of him.

Perceptual Selection, thus, is the tendency to filter out information that is discomforting, that seems irrelevant, or that contradicts one's beliefs. Perceptual selection depends on several factors, some of which are in the environment and some of which are internal to the perceiver.

Organisation

Once people have selected the sensory data to be perceived, they begin grouping the data into recognizable patterns. Perceptual organisation is the process by which people categorize stimuli according to their frame of reference, based on their past learning and experiences. While organising the incoming information into a meaningful whole, people generally depend on the following principles:

Figure Ground Principle:

In the perceptual field, certain factors are considered significant and give

a meaning to the person, and certain others which are rather unimportant for a person or cannot be studied are left as insignificant. The meaningful and significant portion is called the 'figure' and the insignificant or meaningless portion is labelled as 'ground'. For instance, the printed words on this page are the 'figure' and the white space is the 'ground'. The information we classify as figure is assigned more importance than that which we view simply as background. The employee's psychological storage and subsequent interpretation of information will be affected by whether he classified the information as figure or ground.

For instance, when we enter a dark movie theatre, we do not immediately consider what is going on the screen; rather we focus on the seat. Once we find a seat, the seat becomes ground and movie switches from ground to figure. When there is no figure-ground pattern to organise information, we have to live with lot of ambiguity.

6.3. Attribution

As human beings, we are innately curious. We are not content merely to observe the behaviour of others; we want to know why they behave the way they do. We also seek to understand and explain our own behaviour. Attribution simply refers to how a person explains the cause of another's or his or her own behaviour. Attribution thus is the most relevant application of perception concepts to organisation behaviour – the issue of person perception. The attributions or inferred causes we provide for behaviour have important implications in organisations. In explaining the causes of employee performance, good or bad, we are asked to explain the behaviour that was the basis for the performance.

Our perceptions of people differ from our perceptions of inanimate objects like machines or buildings. Non-living objects are subject to the laws of nature; they have no beliefs, motives or intentions. People do. The result is that when we observe people, we attempt to develop explanations of why they behave in certain ways. Our perception and judgement of a person's actions, therefore, will be significantly influenced by the assumptions we make about the person's internal state. We explore Harold Kelly's attribution model, which is based on the pioneering work of Fritz Heider, the founder of attribution theory.

6.3.1. Internal and External Attributions

Attribution theory has been proposed to develop explanations of the ways in which we judge people differently, depending on what meaning we attribute to a given behaviour. Basically, the theory suggests that

when we observe an individual's behaviour, we attempt to determine whether it was internally or externally caused.

1. **Internal attributions:** Attributions can be made to an internal source of responsibility. That means something within the individual's control. For example, suppose you perform well in your MBA examination, you might say you did well because you are smart or because you studied hard. If you attribute your success to ability or effort, you are citing an internal source.
2. **External Attributions:** Attributions can be made to an external source of responsibility. That means something outside the individuals' control. For example, suppose you perform well in your MBA examination you might say the examination was easy or that you had good luck. In this case, you are attributing your performance to sources beyond your control or external attributions.

6.3.2. Attribution Theory

Attribution theory has been proposed to develop explanations of the ways in which we judge people differently, depending on what meaning we attribute to a given behaviour. Attribution is a perceptual process. The way we explain success or failure – whether our own or that of another person – affects our feelings and our subsequent behaviour. Harold Kelley extended attribution theory by trying to identify the antecedents of internal and external attributions. Kelley proposed that individuals make attributions based on information gathered in the form of three informational cues:

1. **Consensus:** Consensus is the extent to which peers in the same situation behave the same way. In other words, if everyone who is faced with a similar situation responds in the same way, we can say the behaviour shows consensus. If everybody in the same circumstance behaves in the same way, you would be given an external attribution, whereas if a single employee behaves in a particular way, your conclusion would be internal.
2. **Distinctiveness:** Distinctiveness is the degree to which the person behaves the same way in other situations. What we want to know is, if this behaviour is unusual or not. If it is, the observer is likely to give the behaviour an external attribution. If this action is not unusual, it will probably be judged as internal.
3. **Consistency:** Consistency refers to the frequency of a particular behaviour over time. An observer looks for consistency in a

person's action. The more consistent the behaviour, the more the observer is inclined to attribute it to internal causes.

6.4. Frequently used Shortcuts in Judging Others

Perceiving and interpreting what others do is burdensome. As a result, individuals develop techniques for making the task more manageable. These techniques are not foolproof. Several factors lead us to form inaccurate impressions of others. These barriers to perception are inaccurate impressions of others. These barriers to perception are:

1. **Selective Perception:** We receive a vast amount of information. Therefore, it is impossible for us to assimilate everything we see – only certain stimuli can be taken note of. That is why, the boss may reprimand some employees for doing something that – when done by another employee goes unnoticed. Since we can't observe everything going on about us, we engage in selective perception.

Selective perception is also our tendency to choose information that supports our viewpoints; individuals often ignore information that makes them feel uncomfortable or threatens their viewpoints. Selective perception allows us to “speed-read” others, but not without the risk of drawing an inaccurate picture. Because we see what we want to see, we can draw unwarranted conclusions from an ambiguous situation. Our perception tends to be influenced more by an individual's attitudes, interests, and background than by the stimulus itself.

2. **Stereotype:** A stereotype is a generalization about a group of people. When we judge someone on the basis of our perception of the group to which he or she belongs, we are using the shortcut called stereotyping. Stereotypes reduce information about other people to a workable level, and they are efficient for compiling and using information. It is a means of simplifying a complex world and it permits us to maintain consistency. It is less difficult to deal with an unmanageable number of stimuli if we use stereotypes. Stereotypes can be accurate, and when they are accurate, they can be useful perceptual guidelines. However, most of the time, stereotypes are inaccurate.
3. **Attractiveness** is a powerful stereotype. We assume that attractive individuals are also warm, kind, sensitive, poised, sociable, outgoing, independent, and strong. Are attractive people always warm, kind, intelligent, sociable, outgoing,

independent, and strong? Are attractive people really like this? Certainly all of them are not. In organisations, we frequently hear comments that represent stereotypes based on gender, age, nationality, etc. From a perceptual standpoint, if people expect to see this stereotype, that is what they will perceive, whether it's accurate or not.

4. **Contrast Effect:** Stimuli that contrast with the surrounding environment are more likely to be selected for attention than stimuli that blend in. A contrasting effect can be caused by colour, size or any other factor that is unusual (any factor that distinguishes one stimulus from others at present). For example, a man walking down the street with a pair of crutches is more attention grabbing than the usual variety of pedestrian. A contrast effect is the evaluation of a person's characteristics that are affected by comparisons with other people recently encountered that rank higher or lower on the same characteristics. The "contrast" principle essentially states that external stimuli that stand out against the background or which are not what are expecting, will receive their attention. The contrast effect also explains why a male student stands out in a crowd of female students. There is nothing unusual about the male student but, when surrounded by females, he stands out.

An illustration of how contrast effects operate is an interview situation in which one sees a pool of job applicants. Distortions in any given candidate's evaluation can occur as a result of his or her place in the interview schedule. The candidate is likely to receive a more favourable evaluation if preceded by mediocre applicants, and a less favourable evaluation if preceded by strong applicants.

5. **Projection:** It is easy to judge others if we assume they are similar to us. This tendency to attribute one's own characteristics to other people is called projection. Projection can distort perceptions made about others. People who engage in projection tend to perceive others according to what they are like, rather than according to what the person being observed is really like. When managers engage in projection, they compromise their ability to respond to individual differences. They tend to see people as more homogeneous than they really are.
6. **Implicit Personality Theories:** We tend to have our own mini-

theories about how people look and behave. These theories help us organise our perceptions and take shortcuts instead of integrating new information all the time. Implicit-personality theory is opinions formed about other people that are based on our own mini-theories about how people behave. For example, we believe that girls dressed in fashionable clothes will like modern music and girls dressed in traditional dress, like a saree, will like Indian classical music. These implicit personality theories are barriers because they limit our ability to take in new information when it is available.

7. **Self-fulfilling Prophecies:** Self-fulfilling prophecies are situations in which our expectations about people affect our interaction with them in such a way that our expectations are fulfilled. Self-fulfilling prophecy is also known as the Pygmalion effect, named after a sculptor in Greek mythology who carved a statue of a girl that came to life when he prayed for this boon and it was granted. The Pygmalion effect has been observed in work organisations as well. A manager's expectations of an individual affect both the manager's behaviour toward the individual and the individual's response. For example, suppose a manager has an initial impression of an employee as having the potential to move up within the organisation. Chances are that the manager will spend a great deal of time coaching and counselling the employee, providing challenging assignments and grooming the individual for success.

6.5. Individual Decision-making and Perceptual Errors

6.5.1. Decision-making Process

Managers have to make decisions, whether they are simple or extremely complex. Making a good decision is a difficult exercise. It is the product of deliberation, evaluation and thought. To make good decisions, managers should invariably follow a sequential set of steps. Decision-making is a process involving a series of steps.

- **First Step:** The first step is recognition of the problem. The manager must become aware that a problem exists and that it is important enough for managerial action. Identification of the real problem is important; otherwise, the manager may be reacting to symptoms and firefighting rather than dealing with the root cause of the problem. In order to monitor the problem situation (decision-making environment), managers may have to look into management reports,

check progress against budgets, compare the results against industry competitors, and assess factors contributing to employee efficiency or inefficiency, etc. They have to use judgement and experience in order to identify the exact nature of the problem. In other words, the manager must determine what is to be accomplished by the decision.

- **Second Step:** The second step in the decision-making process is gathering information relevant to the problem. A successful manager must have the ability to weed out the wheat from the chaff before deciding on a specific course of action. Once aware of a problem, he must state the real problem. He must try to solve the problem, not the symptoms. The manager must pull together sufficient information about why the problem occurred. This involves conducting a thorough diagnosis of the situation and going on a fact-finding mission.
- **Third Step:** The third step is listing and evaluating alternative courses of action. Developing alternative solutions (to the problem) guarantees adequate focus and attention on the problem. It helps managers to fully test the soundness of every proposal before it is finally translated into action.

During this step, a thorough “what if” analysis should also be conducted to determine the various factors that could influence the outcome. It is important to generate a wide range of options and creative solutions in order to be able to move on to the next step. Therefore, managers should encourage people to develop different solutions for the same problem. The ability to develop alternatives is as important as making a right decision among alternatives. The development of alternatives is a creative, innovative activity. It calls for divergent thinking; it calls for “systems thinking”. In other words, managers should try to seek solutions outside the present realm of their knowledge; they are forced to look into all the relevant factors before coming up with a novel solution.

- **Fourth Step:** Next, the manager selects the alternative that best meets the decision objective. If the problem has been diagnosed correctly and sufficient alternatives have been identified, this step is much easier. Peter Drucker has offered the following four criteria for making the right choice among available alternatives:
 - a. The manager has to weigh the risks of each course of action against the expected gains.

- b. The alternative that will give the greatest output for the least inputs in terms of material and human resources is obviously the best one to be selected.
 - c. If the situation has great urgency, the best alternative is one that dramatizes the decision and serves notice on the organisation that something important is happening. On the other hand, if consistent effort is needed, a slow start that gathers momentum may be preferable.
 - d. Physical, financial and human resources impose a limitation on the choice of selection. Of these, the most important resources whose limitations have to be considered are the human beings who will carry out the decision.
- **Final Step:** Finally, the solution is implemented. The manager must seek feedback regarding the effectiveness of the implanted solutions. Feedback allows managers to become aware of the recent problems associated with the solution. It permits managers to monitor the effects of their acts to gauge their success. They can evaluate their own decision-making abilities. Consistent monitoring and periodic feedback is an essential part of the follow-up process.

6.5.2. Perceptual Errors

- a. **Halo Effect:** The halo error in perception is very similar to stereotyping. Whereas in stereotyping the person is perceived according to a single category, under the halo effect the person is perceived on the basis of one trait.

When we draw a general impression about an individual based on a single characteristic, such as intelligence, sociability or appearance, a halo effect is operating. The propensity for the halo effect to operate is not random. Research suggests it is likely to be most extreme when the traits to be perceived are ambiguous in behavioural terms, when the traits have moral overtones, and when the perceiver is judging traits with which he or she has limited experience. Example of halo effect is the extremely attractive secretary who is perceived by her male boss as being intelligent, and a good performer, when, in fact, she is a poor typist.

- b. **First-impression error:** Individuals place a good deal of importance on first impressions. First impressions are lasting impressions. We tend to remember what we perceive first about a person, and sometimes we are quite reluctant to change our

initial impressions. First-impression error means the tendency to form lasting opinions about an individual based on initial perceptions. Primacy effects can be particularly dangerous in interviews, given that we form first impressions quickly and that these impressions may be the basis for long-term employment relationships.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Perception is the primary vehicle through which we come to understand our surroundings and ourselves.
- Perception can be defined as a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment.
- Perception is the primary vehicle through which we come to understand our surroundings and ourselves.
- Social perception is the process of interpreting information about another person.
- Social perception is directly concerned with how one individual perceives other individuals.
- The perceiver's attitudes affect perception.
- Perception is the process of interpreting and understanding one's environment.
- It is a complex psychological process.
- It can be boiled down to four steps: observation, selection, organisation and interpretation
- The major characteristics of the perceiver influencing perception are: Attitudes, Moods, Motives, Self-Concept, Interest, Cognitive STRUCTURE, Expectations
- Attribution simply refers to how a person explains the cause of another's or his or her own behaviour.
- Decision-making is almost universally defined as choosing between alternatives.
- Decision-making is a critical activity in the lives of managers

Check Your Progress

1. Psychological process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment is definition of
 - a. Attitude
 - b. thinking
 - c. Perception
 - d. Personality
2. Which of the following is not a step in perceptual Process?
 - a. Object
 - b. Selection
 - c. Perception
 - d. Response
3. _____ is the sequence of psychological steps that a person uses to organize and interpret information from the outside world.
 - a. Perceptual process
 - b. Thinking process
 - c. Selection Process
 - d. Sequential theory
4. _____ deals with how the social perceiver uses information to arrive at causal explanations for events.
 - a. Attribution theory
 - b. Social Perception Theory
 - c. Selective Perception
 - d. social Theory
5. Process of receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting, checking and reacting to sensory stimuli or data so as to form a meaningful and coherent picture of the world is
 - a. Attitude
 - b. thinking
 - c. Perception
 - d. Communication

Glossary

Extraversion (E):	To focus on the outer world
Feeling (F):	To first look at the people and special circumstances
Introversion (I):	To focus on inner world
Intuition (N):	To interpret and add meaning
Judging (J):	To get things decided
Perceiving (P):	To stay open to new information and options
Sensing (S):	To focus on the basic information you take in
Thinking (T):	To first look at logic and consistency.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. c. Perception
 2. c. Perception
 3. a. Perceptual process
 4. a. Attribution theory
 5. c. Communication
-

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
2. James, P. S. (2017). *Organisational Behaviour*, 1e. Pearson Education India.
3. Black, J. S., Bright, D. S., Gardner, D. G. (2019). *Organizational Behavior*. (n.p.): 12th Media Services.

Block-3: Introduction

Block-3: Organisational Behaviour and Individual Perspective-II has been divided in to three Units.

Unit-7: Attitudes and Values deals with Introduction to Attitudes, Characteristics of Attitudes, Functions of Attitude, Sources and Types of Attitudes, Attitude Formation, Introduction to Values, Importance of Values, Types of Values, Instrumental and Terminal Values, Work Values and the Similarities and dissimilarities between Values and Attitudes.

Unit-8: Motivation explains about the Introduction to Motivation, Early Theories, McGregor's Theory X & Y, Abraham Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory and Herzberg Two Factor Theory.

Unit-9: Leadership discuss with Introduction to Leadership, Characteristic of Leadership, Leadership Skill, Importance of Leadership, Functions of a Leader, Leadership Styles and the Types of Leadership Styles.

In all the units of Block -3 **Organisational Behaviour and Individual Perspective-II**, the Check your progress, Glossary, Answers to Check your progress and Suggested Reading has been provided and the Learners are expected to attempt all the Check your progress as part of study.

Unit - 7

Attitudes and Values

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

7.1. Introduction to Attitudes

7.2. Characteristics of Attitudes

7.3. Functions of Attitude

7.4. Sources and Types of Attitudes

7.5. Attitude Formation

7.6. Introduction to Values

7.7. Importance of Values

7.8. Types of Values

7.9. Instrumental and Terminal Values

7.10. Work Values

7.11. Similarities and dissimilarities between Values and Attitudes

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learn and understand the concept of attitude, its characteristic. We will also learn how attitudes are formed. In the later part of this unit, we will understand what are values and its types. Also, we will understand how important values are.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, you will be able:

- Define and compare Attitudes and Values
- Discuss the types of Attitudes and their formation
- State the significance of Values
- Explain the types of Values
- Describe what are work values

7.1. Introduction to Attitudes

Attitudes are individuals' general affective, cognitive and intentional responses toward objects, other people, themselves, or social issues. Attitudes are evaluative statements – either favourable or unfavourable – concerning objects, people or events. They reflect how one feels about something. As individuals, we respond favourably or unfavourably towards many things: co-workers, bosses, our own appearances, etc. The importance of attitudes lies in their link to behaviour. When an employee says, “I like my job”, he or she is expressing his or her attitude about work.

Attitude is defined as a more or less stable set of predisposition of opinion, interest or purpose involving expectancy of a certain kind of experience and readiness with an appropriate response. Attitudes are also known as “frames of reference”. They provide the background against which facts and events are viewed. It becomes necessary to know the attitudes of members of an organisation because they have to perceive specific aspects like pay, hours of work, promotion etc., of their job life in the wider context of their generalized attitudes.

An attitude is also a cognitive element; it always remains inside a person. Everyone's psychological world is limited and thus everyone has a limited number of attitudes. In business organisations, employees have attitudes relating to world environment, job security, etc. The individual's attitudes towards these factors are indicative of his apathy or enthusiasm towards the activities and objectives of the organisation.

7.2. Characteristics of Attitudes

Attitudes have following characteristics:

Attitudes refer to the positive or negative feelings or evaluations that individuals hold about people, things, or situations. In the context of organizational behavior, attitudes are important because they can influence an individual's behavior towards their job, colleagues, and the organization as a whole. Here are some of the characteristics of attitudes in organizational behavior:

- **Attitudes are learned:** Attitudes are not innate, but rather are learned through a variety of sources such as personal experience, socialization, and media.
- **Attitudes are relatively stable:** While attitudes can change over time, they are generally stable and consistent. This stability

makes attitudes a reliable predictor of behavior.

- **Attitudes are evaluative:** Attitudes are based on an individual's positive or negative evaluation of something, which can influence their behavior towards that thing.

Attitudes have cognitive, affective, and behavioral components: Attitudes consist of three components: cognitive (beliefs and thoughts), affective (emotions and feelings), and behavioral (actions and intentions). These components are interrelated and can influence each other.

- **Attitudes are context-dependent:** Attitudes can vary depending on the context in which they are expressed. For example, an employee may have a positive attitude towards their job but a negative attitude towards their supervisor.
- **Attitudes can be measured:** Attitudes can be measured using self-report questionnaires or behavioral measures. However, it is important to note that attitudes may not always accurately predict behavior due to the influence of other factors such as situational factors and social norms.

In conclusion, attitudes are an important aspect of organizational behavior because they can influence an individual's behavior towards their job, colleagues, and the organization as a whole. Understanding the characteristics of attitudes can help managers and organizations better understand and manage their employees.

7.3. Functions of Attitude

Attitudes are known to serve at least four important functions in an organisation setting:

- **Utilitarian Function:** Attitudes can serve a utilitarian function by providing individuals with rewards and punishments for certain behaviors. For example, an individual may have a positive attitude towards their job because it provides them with financial security and career advancement opportunities.
- **Ego-Defensive Function:** Attitudes can serve an ego-defensive function by protecting an individual's self-esteem and sense of worth. For example, an individual may have a negative attitude towards a certain group of people because it allows them to feel superior and maintain their sense of self-worth.
- **Knowledge Function:** Attitudes can serve a knowledge function

by helping individuals organize and understand the world around them. For example, an individual may have a positive attitude towards a certain political party because they believe that party's policies align with their values and beliefs.

- **Value-Expressive Function:** Attitudes can serve a value-expressive function by expressing an individual's values and beliefs to others. For example, an individual may have a positive attitude towards environmental conservation because they value protecting the environment.
- **Social-Adjustive Function:** Attitudes can serve a social-adjustive function by helping individuals fit in with their social environment. For example, an individual may have a positive attitude towards a certain type of music because it is popular among their peers.

7.4. Sources and Types of Attitudes

Organizational Behavior (OB) has traditionally focused on three key attitudes: job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. These attitudes are important because they are linked to employee behavior and performance, and they can influence organizational outcomes such as employee turnover and productivity.

- **Job satisfaction:** Job satisfaction refers to an individual's overall positive or negative evaluation of their job. It is an effective response that reflects an individual's feelings and emotions towards their job, and it can be influenced by various factors such as job characteristics, pay, and relationships with coworkers and managers. Job satisfaction is important because it has been linked to a range of positive outcomes, such as higher job performance, lower absenteeism, and lower turnover.
- **Job involvement:** Job involvement refers to the degree to which an individual is cognitively and emotionally engaged in their job. It reflects the importance that an individual places on their job and the extent to which they are committed to it. Job involvement is important because it has been linked to higher job satisfaction, higher job performance, and lower absenteeism.
- **Organizational commitment:** Organizational commitment refers to an individual's attachment and loyalty to their organization. It reflects the extent to which an individual identifies with their organization and its goals, and is willing to put effort into achieving those goals. Organizational commitment is important

because it has been linked to a range of positive outcomes, such as lower turnover, higher job performance, and higher job satisfaction.

Together, these three attitudes are important because they can influence employee behavior and organizational outcomes. For example, employees who are highly satisfied with their job, highly involved in their work, and highly committed to their organization are more likely to be motivated to perform well, to stay with the organization, and to contribute to its success. Therefore, understanding and managing these attitudes is important for organizations to create a positive work environment and achieve their goals.

7.5. Attitude Formation

Attitudes are learned. Individuals acquire attitudes from several sources but the point to be stressed is that the attitudes are acquired but not inherited. Our responses to people and issues evolve over time. Two major influences on attitudes are direct experience and social learning.

1. **Direct experience:** Direct experience refers to an individual's personal encounter with a person, object, or situation, which can shape their attitudes towards it. For example, an individual who has had a positive experience with a particular brand of product is more likely to have a positive attitude towards that brand. Similarly, an individual who has had a negative experience with a coworker may develop a negative attitude towards that person. Direct experience is a powerful influence on attitudes because it is based on personal involvement and can be vivid and memorable.
2. **Social learning:** Social learning refers to the process by which individuals acquire attitudes and behaviors by observing others. This can take place through modeling, where individuals observe the behavior of others and then imitate it, or through reinforcement, where individuals learn from the consequences of their own behavior and the behavior of others. For example, an individual may develop a positive attitude towards their job by observing a colleague who is highly engaged and committed to their work. Similarly, an individual may develop a negative attitude towards a particular group by observing others who express negative attitudes towards that group. Social learning is a powerful influence on attitudes because it is based on observation and learning from others.

Overall, direct experience and social learning are two major influences on attitudes, which can shape an individual's perceptions and evaluations of people, objects, and situations. Understanding these influences is important for organizations and individuals to manage attitudes effectively and create a positive work environment.

7.6. Introduction to Values

Another source of individual differences is values. Values exist at a deeper level than attitudes and are more general and basic in nature. We use them to evaluate our own behaviour and that of others. Value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally and socially preferable to the alternative modes of conduct or end states of existence. Once it is internalized, it becomes consciously or unconsciously, a standard or criterion for guiding action, for developing and maintaining attitudes toward relevant objects and situation, for justifying one's own and others' actions and attitudes for morally judging oneself and others, and for comparing oneself with others. Value, therefore, is a standard or yardstick to guide actions, attitudes, evaluations and justifications of the self and others.

Ronald D White and David A Bednar have defined value 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".

Values are tinged with moral flavour, involving an individual's judgement of what is right, good or desirable. Thus values:

1. Provide standards of competence and morality.
2. Are fewer in number than attitudes.
3. Transcend specific objects, situations or persons.
4. Are relatively permanent and resistant to change, and
5. Are more central to the core of a person.

Individuals learn values as they grow and mature. They may change over the life span of an individual develops a sense of self. Cultures, societies, and organisations shape values.

7.7. Importance of Values

Values are important because they lay the foundation for the understanding of attitudes and motivation and because they influence our perceptions. Individuals enter an organisation with preconceived

notions of what “ought” and what “ought not” to be. For example, if Jeevan enters IG Ferns and Curtains with a view that salary on piece-rate system is right and on time-rate basis is wrong, he is likely to be disappointed if the company allocates salary on time-rate basis. His disappointment is likely to breed job dissatisfaction. This will, in turn, adversely affect his performance, his attitude and in turn, his behaviour towards the work environment, which would have been different had his values turned out to be aligned with the company’s reward/ pay policy.

7.8. Types of Values

Values are learned and acquired primarily through experiences with people and institutions. Parents, for example, will have substantial influence on their children’s values. A parent’s reaction to everyday events demonstrates what is good and bad, acceptable and unacceptable and important and unimportant. Values are also taught and reinforced in schools, religious organisations, and social groups. As we grow and develop, each source of influence contributes to our definition of what is important in life. Cultural mores have influence on the formation of values. Basic convictions of what is good or bad are derived from one’s own culture.

Allport and his associates categorized values into six types:

1. **Theoretical:** Interested in the discovery of truth through reasoning and systematic thinking.
2. **Economic:** Interest in usefulness and practicality, including the accumulation of wealth.
3. **Aesthetic:** Interest in beauty, form and artistic harmony.
4. **Social:** Interest in people and love as a human relationship.
5. **Political:** Interest in gaining power and influencing people.
6. **Religious:** Interest in unity and understanding the cosmos as a whole.

7.9. Instrumental and Terminal Values

Rokeach distinguishes between two types of values: Instrumental and Terminal.

1. **Instrumental Value:** Instrumental values reflect the means to achieving goals; that is, they represent the acceptable behaviour to be used in achieving some end state. Instrumental values identified by Rokeach include ambition, honesty, self-sufficiency and courageousness.

Instrumental value refers to a single belief that always takes the form: I believe that such and such a mode of conduct (example honesty, courage, etc.) is personally and socially preferable in all situations with respect to all objects. An instrumental value is a tool or means for acquiring a terminal value.

2. **Terminal Value:** Terminal values, in contrast, represent the goals to be achieved, or the end states of existence. Rokeach identified happiness, love, pleasure, self-respect, and freedom among the terminal values.

Terminal value takes a comparable form: I believe that such and such an end state of existence (example, salvation, or world at peace, etc.) is personally and socially worth striving for. A terminal value is an ultimate goal in a desired status or outcome.

A complete list of instrumental and terminal values is presented in the following Table

Instrumental Value	Terminal Value
Ambitious (hardworking, aspiring) Broad-minded (open-minded) Capable (competent, effective) Cheerful (light-hearted, joyful) Clean (neat, tidy)	A comfortable life (a prosperous life), An exciting life (a stimulating, active life) A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution) A world of peace (free of war and conflict)
Courageous (standing up for your beliefs) Forgiving (willing to pardon others) Helpful (working for the welfare of others) Honest (sincere, truthful)	A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts) Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all) Family security (taking care of loved ones) Freedom (independence, free choice)
Imaginative (daring, creative) Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient) Intellectual (intelligent, reflective) Logical (consistent, rational)	Happiness (contentedness), Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict) Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy) National security (protection from attack) Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life) Salvation (saved, eternal life)
Loving (affectionate, tender) Obedient (dutiful, respectful) Polite (courteous, well mannered) Responsible (dependable, reliable) Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)	Self-respect (self-esteem), Social recognition (respect, admiration) True friendship (close companionship) Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)

Source: M Rokeach “The Nature of Human Values”, New York: Free Press (1973).

7.9. Work Values

Work values are important because they affect how individuals behave on their jobs in terms of what is right and wrong. The work values most relevant to individuals are:

1. **Achievement:** Achievement is a concern for the advancement of one's career. This is shown in such behaviours as working hard and seeking opportunities to develop new skills.
2. **Concern for Others:** Concern for others reflects caring, compassionate behaviour such as encouraging other employees or helping others work on difficult tasks. These behaviours constitute organisational citizenship.
3. **Honesty:** Honesty is accurately providing information and refusing to mislead others for personal gain.
4. **Fairness:** Fairness emphasizes impartiality and recognizes different points of view.

Although individuals vary in their value systems, when they share similar values at work, the results are positive. This means that organisations recruiting job candidates should pay careful attention to an individual's values.

7.11. Similarities and dissimilarities between Values and Attitudes

Values and attitudes are both important concepts in organizational behavior, but they have some similarities and dissimilarities.

Similarities:

- Both values and attitudes are beliefs that an individual holds about people, objects, and situations.
- Both values and attitudes can influence an individual's behavior, decisions, and actions.
- Both values and attitudes are influenced by personal experiences, social learning, and cultural norms.
- Both values and attitudes can be shaped and changed through education, persuasion, and socialization.

Dissimilarities:

- Values are generally more enduring and stable than attitudes, which can be influenced by situational factors.

- Values are more fundamental and basic than attitudes, as they reflect an individual's core beliefs and principles.
- Values are more abstract and general than attitudes, which are more specific and focused on particular objects or situations.
- Values are less susceptible to change than attitudes, which can be influenced by persuasive messages or new experiences.
- Attitudes can be seen as a manifestation of an individual's values, as they reflect how an individual applies their values to specific situations or objects.
- In summary, values and attitudes are similar in that they both reflect an individual's beliefs and can influence behavior, but they differ in terms of their stability, generality, and level of abstraction. Understanding these similarities and dissimilarities is important for individuals and organizations to manage values and attitudes effectively and create a positive work environment.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Attitudes are enduring mental representations of various features of social or physical world. They are acquired through experience and exert a directive influence on subsequent human behaviour. The attitudes are formed by the process of social learning and direct experience. There is continuous effort around us to change the attitude of the persons in an organisation. The attitude can be changed through persuasion and cognitive dissonance. The methods of effecting attitude change include: providing new information, fear arousal and reduction, dissonance arousal, position discrepancy, participation in decision making, compliance, identification and internalisation.
- The factors which determine the degree of influence of attitude on behaviour are: attitude specificity, attitude strength, attitude relevance, attitude accessibility, existence of social pressure and direct experience. There are three primarily work-related attitudes which have significant influence on the organisation. They are: job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment.
- Values provide the basic foundation for understanding a person's attitudes, perception and personality. It contains judgmental element as to what is right, good, or desirable.

- There are six major types of values. They are: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious. Values differ across culture. Various cultural factors influence values of a particular society.
- Organisations should be so designed that they ensure high productivity, high satisfaction of all stakeholders, and low negative factors such as absenteeism, employee turnover, etc. A value-based organisation must be designed which promises sustainability and prosperity to its endeavours.

Check Your Progress

1. _____ is not a capability of an employee having Positive attitude
 - a. Focus
 - b. Creativity
 - c. Pessimism
 - d. Confidence
2. Belief, opinion, knowledge, emotions feelings intention are the components of
 - a. OB
 - b. Job satisfaction
 - c. Attitude
 - d. Personality
3. The attitude based on Beliefs, opinion, Knowledge, or information about the particular event which the employee possesses is under _____ component of Attitude.
 - a. Behavioral
 - b. Cognitive
 - c. Affective
 - d. Positive
4. _____ is the only component of attitude which is visible and can be observed directly.
 - a. Behavioural
 - b. Cognitive
 - c. Affective
 - d. Positive

5. The statement “I don’t feel comfortable in crowd” is an example of _____ component of attitude.
- Behavioral
 - Cognitive
 - Affective
 - Positive

Glossary

Classical Conditioning: A basic form of learning in which one stimulus regularly precedes another.

Cognitive Approach: Attempts to explain what people think about when exposed to persuasive appeals.

Cognitive Dissonance: Internal state that occurs when individuals notice inconsistencies among their attitudes or between their attitudes and their overt behaviour.

Compliance: Application of subtle pressure either through reward or punishment.

Answers to Check Your Progress

- c. Pessimism
- c. Attitude
- b. Cognitive
- a. Behavioural
- c. Affective

Suggested Readings

- Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
- James, P. S. (2017). *Organisational Behaviour, 1e*. Pearson Education India.
- Black, J. S., Bright, D. S., Gardner, D. G. (2019). *Organizational Behavior*. (n.p.): 12th Media Services.

Unit - 8

Motivation

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

8.1. Introduction to Motivation

8.2. Early Theories

8.3. McGregor's Theory X & Y

8.4. Abraham Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

8.5. Herzberg Two Factor Theory

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learn the concept of motivations, its importance in any organization, the various techniques of motivation and the various theories on motivation which will make us understand the concept of motivation better.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define the term motivation
 - Discuss Mc. Gregor's Theory X & Y of motivation
 - State the relevance of Abraham Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory
 - Explain the concept of Herzberg's Two Factor Theory
-

8.1. Introduction to Motivation

Motivation is a concept in organizational behavior that refers to the driving force behind an individual's behavior, actions, and decisions. It is the process by which an individual's needs, desires, and goals lead to behavior that is directed towards achieving specific outcomes.

Motivation is an important concept in organizational behavior because it

can have a significant impact on individual and organizational performance. When individuals are motivated, they are more likely to be engaged, committed, and productive in their work. This can lead to improved performance, higher job satisfaction, and better outcomes for the organization as a whole.

There are many different theories of motivation in organizational behavior, which seek to explain why individuals are motivated and how they can be motivated to perform at their best. These theories range from the more traditional, such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory, to the more contemporary, such as self-determination theory and goal-setting theory.

Understanding motivation is important for managers and leaders in organizations, as they are responsible for creating an environment that fosters motivation and encourages individuals to perform at their best. By understanding the different theories of motivation and how they can be applied in practice, managers and leaders can create a positive work environment that is conducive to high performance and employee engagement.

What is Motivation?

Some of the widely quoted definitions are given below:

Gray Starke, "Motivation is the result of processes, internal or external to the individual, that arouse enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action."

Stephen P Robbins, "We define motivation as the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual needs."

S. Zedeck and M. Blood, "Motivation is a predisposition to act in a specific goal-directed way."

Atkinson J.W., "(Motivation is) the immediate influences on the direction, vigour and persistence of action."

S.W Gellerman, "(Motivation is) steering one's actions toward certain goals and committing a certain part of one's energies to reach them."

M.R. Jones, "(Motivation is) how behaviour gets started, is energized, is sustained, is directed, is stopped and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism while all these are going on."

All these definitions contain three common aspects of the motivation process:

1. What energizes human behaviour?
2. What directs or channels such behaviour?
3. How is this behaviour maintained or sustained?

Motivation has certain underlying properties:

- **Direction:** Motivation is always directed towards a particular goal or outcome. This goal may be explicit or implicit, but it is always present and guides the individual's behavior.
- **Intensity:** Motivation can vary in intensity, depending on the strength of the individual's desire to achieve the goal or outcome. High intensity motivation is often associated with high levels of effort and persistence in pursuit of the goal.
- **Persistence:** Motivation is persistent and enduring, and individuals will continue to pursue their goals even in the face of obstacles and setbacks. This persistence is often linked to the individual's belief in their ability to achieve the goal.
- **Contextual:** Motivation is influenced by the context in which it occurs, including the individual's social, cultural, and organizational environment. Different contexts can affect the strength and direction of motivation, as well as the individual's ability to achieve their goals.
- **Dynamic:** Motivation is not static, but rather changes over time as the individual's goals and priorities shift. It is influenced by both internal and external factors, and can fluctuate in response to changes in the individual's environment or circumstances.

The following table gives examples of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Type	Description	Examples
Intrinsic Motivation	An activity is pursued as an end in itself because it is enjoyable and rewarding.	<p>A person anonymously donates a large sum of money to a university to fund a scholarship for deserving students.</p> <p>A child reads several books each week because reading is fun.</p>

Extrinsic Motivation	An activity is pursued to gain an external reward or to avoid an undesirable consequence.	<p>A person agrees to donate a large sum of money to a university for the construction of a building, provided it will bear the family name.</p> <p>A child reads two books each week to avoid losing television privileges.</p>
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Source: Samuel E. Wood and Ellen Green Wood, "The World of Psychology", Allyn and Bacon, Boston (2nd Edition) 1996, page 36.

8.2. Motivation Theories

The study of motivation can be traced back to the writings of the ancient Greek philosophers. They presented hedonism as an explanation of human motivation. The concept of hedonism says that a person seeks out comfort and pleasure and avoids discomfort and pain. Many centuries later, hedonism was still a basic assumption in the prevailing economic and social philosophies of economists like Adam Smith and J.S. Mill. They explained motivation in terms of people trying to maximize pleasure and avoid pain.

Early psychological thought was also influenced by the idea of hedonism. Psychologists in the 1800s and even in the early 1900s assumed that humans consciously and rationally strive for (a hedonistic approach to) pursuit of pleasure and avoidance of pain.

In organisations, one of the first individuals to address worker motivation explicitly was Fredrick Taylor, who did so through his writings on scientific management between 1900 and 1915. Because Taylor believed that people are motivated mainly by economic factors, he advocated a wage incentive system to encourage workers to excel at doing the job exactly as specified by management. However, the routine and specialized nature of the work, the tendency of managers to reduce wage incentives as production rose, and worker concerns that higher production would lead to job cutbacks led to worker resistance. Money, especially when it was curbed as production rose, did not seem to have the desired effects.

The apparent limitations of money as the sole motivational tool piqued the curiosity of researchers in the human relations school. On the basis of investigations such as, the Hawthorne studies, these researchers argued for devoting greater attention to the social aspects of the job.

According to their prescription, managers should make workers feel important, increase vertical communication, allow some decision making on very routine matters related to the job, and pay greater attention to work group dynamics and group incentives. Still, like the scientific management advocates, the human relations school emphasized gaining strict compliance with managerial directives in carrying out extremely routine, specialized jobs. As a result, these efforts met with only limited success in motivating workers' behaviour.

By demonstrating the inadequacy of viewing workers as robot-like appendages that can be manipulated into compliance, these early efforts laid the groundwork for a more sophisticated approach and a better understanding of the motivation process.

The 1950s were a fruitful period in the development of motivation concepts. Three specific theories were formulated during this time, which, although heavily attacked and now questionable in terms of validity, are probably still the best-known explanations for employee motivation. These theories are:

8.3. McGregor's Theory X & Y

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y are two contrasting approaches to understanding employee motivation and behavior in the workplace. These theories were first introduced by Douglas McGregor, a management professor at the MIT Sloan School of Management in the 1960s. Theory X is a traditional, authoritarian approach to management that assumes that employees are inherently lazy, dislike work, and require constant supervision and control to ensure that they remain productive. Managers who subscribe to Theory X tend to rely on rewards and punishments to motivate employees, and often micromanage their work to ensure that it is completed to a high standard.

Theory Y, on the other hand, is a more participative approach to management that assumes that employees are inherently motivated and want to work towards achieving the organization's goals. Managers who subscribe to Theory Y tend to give employees more autonomy and control over their work, and focus on creating a positive work environment that encourages creativity and innovation. In Theory X, managers tend to assume that employees are motivated primarily by external factors such as pay and benefits, while in Theory Y, managers believe that employees are motivated by internal factors such as job satisfaction and a sense of purpose. McGregor's theories have been influential in shaping management practices in organizations around the

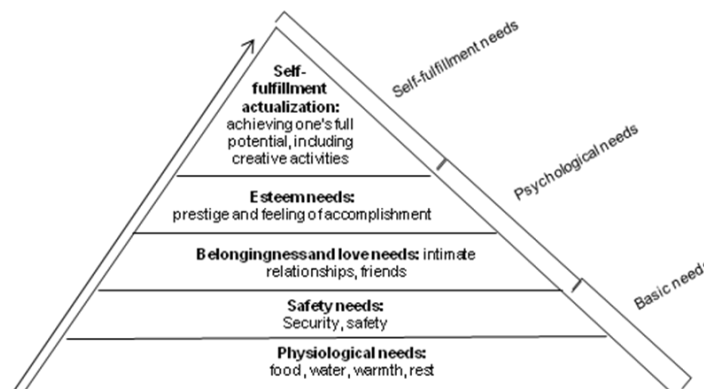
world, and have been used to develop new approaches to leadership and motivation. However, some critics have argued that the theories are too simplistic and do not account for the complex and multifaceted nature of employee motivation and behavior.

McGregor Theory of X and Y

Theory X Manager beliefs	Theory 'V Manager beliefs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees dislike work, avoid responsibility. • Emphasis on continuous monitoring and supervision • Rewards or Punishments are used for motivating employees. <p>Management believes employees work is based on their own self-interest</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "We vs They" relation between management and employees. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees are self motivated, enjoys their work, and ready to take more responsibility. • Believes that employees can work without supervision. • Giving more responsibility, and empowering to take decisions are used for motivating employees. • Collaborative and cordial relations between management and employees.

8.4. Abraham Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

Abraham Maslow was a psychologist who proposed a theory of human motivation for understanding behaviour based primarily upon a hierarchy of five need categories. He recognized that there were factors other than one's needs (for example, culture) that were determinants of behaviour. However, he focused his theoretical attention on specifying people's internal needs. Maslow labelled the five hierarchical categories as physiological needs, safety and security needs, love (social) needs, esteem needs and the need for self-actualization.



Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs pyramid

The five levels of the hierarchy are:

- **Physiological Needs:** This is the most basic level of the hierarchy and includes the most basic survival needs such as food, water, shelter, and sleep. These needs are critical to an individual's survival and take priority over all other needs. In the workplace, providing employees with basic amenities such as restrooms, break rooms, and access to food and water is essential to meeting their physiological needs.
- **Safety Needs:** Once physiological needs are met, individuals focus on ensuring their safety and security. This includes protection from danger, job security, financial stability, and access to basic health care. In the workplace, providing employees with a safe and secure work environment, job security, and access to health care benefits is essential to meeting their safety needs.
- **Love and Belonging Needs:** After safety needs are met, individuals seek social connections and a sense of belonging. This includes friendships, family relationships, and romantic partnerships. In the workplace, providing opportunities for socialization, team-building activities, and a sense of community can help employees fulfill their belonging needs.
- **Esteem Needs:** Once belonging needs are met, individuals seek recognition, respect, and self-esteem. This includes achievements, recognition, and social status. In the workplace, providing opportunities for career growth, recognition programs, and a positive work environment that fosters self-esteem can help employees fulfill their esteem needs.
- **Self-Actualization Needs:** At the highest level of the hierarchy, individuals strive for self-actualization, or the realization of their full potential. This includes creativity, personal growth, and fulfilling their unique purpose in life. In the workplace, providing opportunities for learning and development, allowing employees to use their creativity, and offering meaningful work that aligns with their values can help employees fulfill their self-actualization needs.

According to Maslow, individuals must fulfill their lower-level needs before they can focus on higher-level needs. Thus, managers and leaders must understand the needs of their employees and create an environment that allows them to meet their basic physiological and

safety needs before they can expect them to be motivated by higher-level needs such as self-actualization.

Critics of Maslow's theory have argued that it oversimplifies the complex nature of human motivation and does not account for individual differences in motivation and behavior. Nonetheless, the Need Hierarchy Theory has been influential in shaping our understanding of motivation and has been used to develop new approaches to leadership and motivation in organizations.

8.5. Herzberg Two Factor Theory

Herzberg's Two Factor Theory, also known as the Motivation-Hygiene Theory, is a motivational theory that proposes that there are two types of factors that affect employee motivation and satisfaction: hygiene factors and motivators.

Hygiene factors are the basic factors that are necessary for employees to be satisfied and avoid dissatisfaction. These factors include:

- **Working conditions:** This includes the physical environment, such as the temperature, lighting, and cleanliness of the workspace.
- **Company policies:** This includes the rules and regulations that govern the workplace, such as attendance policies and dress codes.
- **Salary and benefits:** This includes the compensation and benefits package that employees receive, such as salary, health insurance, and retirement benefits.
- **Job security:** This includes the level of job security that employees feel in their position.

Motivators are the factors that contribute to employee satisfaction and motivation. These factors include:

- **Achievement:** This includes the sense of accomplishment that employees feel when they achieve their goals and objectives.
- **Recognition:** This includes the acknowledgment and praise that employees receive for their achievements.
- **Responsibility:** This includes the level of responsibility that employees have in their job.
- **Advancement:** This includes the opportunities for career growth and development that employees have in the organization.

According to Herzberg, hygiene factors are necessary to prevent dissatisfaction, but they do not necessarily lead to motivation or satisfaction. Motivators, on the other hand, are necessary to promote motivation and job satisfaction. Herzberg suggested that managers should focus on providing opportunities for employees to experience motivators, such as recognition, responsibility, and career growth, in order to motivate and satisfy employees.

Critics of Herzberg's theory have argued that it oversimplifies the complex nature of employee motivation and satisfaction, and that it does not account for individual differences in motivation and behavior. Nonetheless, the Two Factor Theory has been influential in shaping our understanding of motivation in the workplace and has been used to develop new approaches to leadership and motivation in organizations.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Motivation is the internal condition that activates behavior and gives it direction; energizes and directs goal-oriented behavior.
- The challenge at work is to create an environment in which people are motivated about work priorities.
- Too often, organisations fail to pay attention to the employee relations, communication, recognition, and involvement issues that are most important to people.
- The first step in creating a motivating work environment is to stop taking actions that are guaranteed to demotivate people.
- The next step is to identify and take the actions that will motivate people.
- There are various theories to motivate people at workplaces.
- A few techniques that can motivate people at work are making only the minimum number of rules and policies needed to protect the organisation legally and create order in the work place; publishing the rules and policies and educating all employees, developing guidelines for supervisors and educating them about the fair and consistent application of the few rules and policies, etc.

Check Your Progress

1. _____ is the process of stimulating people to actions to accomplish the goals.
 - a. Bonus
 - b. Motivation
 - c. Performance-based Incentive
 - d. Promotion
2. _____ is the force of action or motivation.
 - a. Behaviour
 - b. Stimulus
 - c. Perception
 - d. Attitude
3. Motivation includes _____
 - a. job enrichment
 - b. Job rotation
 - c. Job enlargement
 - d. all of the above
4. The higher-order needs specified by Maslow is considered as _____ as per Herzberg.
 - a. Motivators
 - b. hygiene factors
 - c. improvement factors
 - d. advanced factors
5. Responsibility, Advancement etc are an example of
 - a. Motivators
 - b. hygiene factors
 - c. improvement factors
 - d. advance factors

Glossary

Abraham Maslow: Abraham Maslow was a psychologist who proposed a theory of human motivation for

understanding behaviour based primarily upon a hierarchy of five need categories.

Hierarchical Categories:

Maslow labelled the five hierarchical categories as physiological needs, safety and security needs, love (social) needs, esteem needs and the need for self-actualization.

McGregor:

According to McGregor, people should be treated differently according to whether they are motivated by lower-order or higher order needs.

Motivation:

Motivation is the process of rousing and sustaining goal-directed behaviour.

Theory X:

Theory X assumptions are appropriate for employees motivated by lower-order needs.

Theory Y:

Theory Y assumptions, in contrast, are appropriate for employees motivated by higher-order needs.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. b. Motivation
2. b. Stimulus
3. d. all of the above
4. a. Motivators
5. a. Motivators

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
2. James, P. S. (2017). *Organisational Behaviour*, 1e. Pearson Education India.
3. Black, J. S., Bright, D. S., Gardner, D. G. (2019). *Organizational Behavior*. (n.p.): 12th Media Services.

Unit-9

Leadership

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

9.1. Introduction to Leadership

9.2. Characteristic of Leadership

9.3. Leadership Skill

9.4. Importance of Leadership

9.5. Functions of a Leader

9.6. Leadership Styles

9.6.1. Types of Leadership Styles

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit, we will learn and understand the concept of leadership, what are essentials of a good leader, functions and role of leaders in an organization and the various leadership styles.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, your will be able to:

- Define the term leadership
- Discuss basic approaches to leadership
- State the relevance of trait theory
- Explain leadership styles
- Focus on contemporary issues in leadership
- Tell about trust and leadership
- Describe the influence of national culture on leadership style.

9.1. Introduction to Leadership

Leadership is a key process in any organisation. We attribute the

success or failure of any organisation to its leadership. When a business venture, or a cricket team is successful, its managing director or the captain often receives the credit. When failure occurs, it is usually the same individual at the top that is replaced. Thus, one of the key elements of concern in any organisation is how to attract, train, and keep people who will be effective leaders.

The problem of leadership has been one of man's major concerns since antiquity. Leadership was a matter of concern even in biblical times. The children of Israel needed someone to guide them out of their bondage in Egypt, and Moses stepped forward to lead them in their journey to 'the promised land' of Israel. In the 20th century, Great Britain needed the leadership of Winston Churchill to successfully combat her enemies in the Second World War. In the same way, Franklin D Roosevelt provided leadership to the American people, Adolf Hitler in Germany, and Stalin in USSR.

Coming to business enterprises, people working there need leaders who could be instrumental in guiding the efforts of groups of workers to achieve the goals of both individuals and the organisation. Leadership is a process of influence on a group. Leadership is the ability of a manager to induce subordinates to work with confidence and zeal.

Definitions and Meaning of Leadership

Researchers rarely agree on what is meant by leadership. Different investigators define it in different ways. Although there is some consensus on general statements such as "leaders have followers" and "effective leaders somehow get others to do things that are helpful for group performance", exactly how and why performance increases is unclear. Some consensus, however, is being reached on how we should handle this problem. One suggestion was to break down the question of "What is leadership?" into two questions:

1. What characteristics or behaviours make it more likely that an individual will become a leader?
2. Once someone holds a formal position as a leader, what characteristics make it more or less likely that he or she will be effective?

The first question is one of the emergences of a leader. The second question sees leadership as those characteristics or behaviours that make an individual effective in a given position. Leadership is seen not as some set of universally agreed-upon traits, but as those things which are positively related to groups' productivity in a given situation. The

central idea is that there is no best style of leadership. What will work best depends on the proper combination of personal characteristics and the specific situation in which one works. To understand this position more fully, let us examine the definitions given by authorities on the subject, for leadership is a great quality and it can create and convert anything. There are many definitions of leadership. Some of the definitions of leadership are reproduced below:

“Leadership” according to *Alford and Beatty* “is the ability to secure desirable actions from a group of followers voluntarily, without the use of coercion.”

According to Chester I Barnard, “it (leadership) refers to the quality of the behaviour of the individual whereby they guide people on their activities in organised efforts”.

According to Terry, “A leader shows the way by his own example. He is not a pusher; he pulls rather than pushes”.

According to Koontz and O’Donnell, Managerial leadership is “the ability to exert interpersonal influence by means of communication, towards the achievement of a goal. Since managers get things done through people, their success depends, to a considerable extent upon their ability to provide leadership”.

In the words of R. T. Livingston, Leadership is “the ability to awaken in others the desire to follow a common objective”.

According to the Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, “Leadership is the relation between an individual and a group around some common interest and behaving in a manner directed or determined by him”.

9.2. Characteristic of Leadership

1. **Leadership implies the existence of followers:** We appraise the qualities of a leader by studying his followers. In an organisation, leaders are also followers, e.g., a supervisor works under a branch head. Thus, in a formal organisation a leader has to be able to be both a leader as well as a follower, and be able to relate himself both upward and downward.
2. **Leadership involves a community of interest between the leader and his followers:** In other words, the objectives of both the leader and his men are one and the same. If the leader strives for one purpose and his team of workers work for some other purpose, that’s hardly a sign of leadership.
3. **Leadership involves an unequal distribution of authority**

among leaders and group members: Leaders can direct some of the activities of group members, i.e., the group members are compelled or are willing to obey most of the leader's directions. The group members cannot similarly direct the leader's activities, though they will obviously affect those activities in a number of ways.

4. **Leadership is a process of influence:** Leadership implies that leaders can influence their followers or subordinates in addition to being able to give their followers or subordinates legitimate directions.
5. **Leadership is the function of stimulation:** Leadership is the function of motivating people to strive willingly to attain organisational objectives. A successful leader allows his subordinates (followers) to set their own individual goals in such a way that they do not conflict with the organisational objectives, and – more desirably – mesh closely with them.
6. **A leader must be exemplary:** In the words of George Terry – “A leader shows the way by his own example. He is not a pusher, he pulls rather than pushes”. According to L.G. Urwick – “It does not matter what a leader says, still less what he writes, that influences subordinates. It is what he is. And they judge what he is by what he does and how he behaves”. From the above explanation, it is clear that a leader must set an ideal before his followers. He must stimulate, energize and enable people to surpass themselves. In other words, a leader must set the pace by setting a high personal example for his followers to emulate and admire.
7. **A leader ensures absolute justice:** A leader must be objective and impartial. He should not follow unfair practices like favoritism and nepotism. He must display fair play and absolute justice in all his decisions and actions.
8. **Leadership styles and patterns:** Tannenbaum and Schmidt have described the range of possible leadership behaviour available to a manager. Each type of action is related to the degree of authority used by the boss and to the degree of freedom available to his subordinates in reaching decisions.

9.3. Leadership Skill

The leader is expected to play many roles and therefore, must be qualified to guide others to organisational achievement. Although no set of absolute traits or skills may be identified, individuals who would be

leaders must possess abilities to lead others. They must have certain attributes to help them in performing their leadership role. Broadly speaking, the skills that are necessary for an industrial leader may be summarized under four heads:

1. **Human Skill:** A good leader is considerate towards his followers because his success largely depends on the co-operation of his followers. He approaches various problems in terms of people involved more than in terms of technical aspects involved. A leader should have an understanding of human behaviour. He should know people, understand their needs, sentiments, emotions, as also their actions and reactions to particular decisions, their motivations, etc. Thus, a successful leader possesses the human relations attitude. He always tries to develop social understanding with other people. The human skill involves the following:

- (a) **Empathy:** A leader should be able to look at things as objectively as possible. He should respect the rights, beliefs and sentiments of others. He should equip himself to meet the challenges emanating from the actions and reactions of other people. The leader should be empathetic towards his followers so that he can carefully judge their strengths, weaknesses, and ambitions and give them the attention they deserve.
- (b) **Objectivity:** A good leader is fair and objective in dealing with subordinates. He must be free from bias and prejudice while becoming emotionally involved with his followers. His approach to any issue or problem should be objective and not based on any pressure, prejudice or preconceived notions. Objectivity is a vital aspect of analytical decision making. Honesty, fair play, justice and integrity of character are expected of any good leaders.
- (c) **Communication Skills:** A leader should have the ability to persuade, to inform, stimulate, direct and convince his subordinates. To achieve this, a leader should have good communication skills. Good communicator seem to find it easier to discharge their responsibilities because they relate to others more easily and can better utilize the available resources.
- (d) **Teaching Skill:** A leader should have the ability to demonstrate how to accomplish a particular task.
- (e) **Social Skill:** A leader should understand his followers. He should be helpful, sympathetic and friendly. He should have the ability to

win his followers' confidence and loyalty.

2. **Conceptual Skill:** In the words of Chester Barnard – “the essential aspect of the executive process is the sensing of the organisation as a whole and the total situation relevant to it”. Conceptual Skill includes:

- (a) An understanding of the organisational behaviour,
- (b) Understanding the competitors of the firm, and
- (c) Knowing the financial status of the firm.

A leader should have the ability to look at the enterprise as a whole, to recognize that the various functions of an organisation depend upon one another and are interrelated, that changes in one affect all others. The leader should have the skill to run the firm in such a way that overall performance of the firm in the long run will be sound.

3. **Technical Skill:** A leader should have a thorough knowledge of, and competence in, the principles, procedures and operations of a job. Technical skill involves specialized knowledge, analytical skill and a facility in the use of the tools and techniques of a specific discipline. Technical competence is an essential quality of leadership.

4. **Personal Skill:** The most important task of the leader is to get the best from others. This is possible only if he possesses certain qualities. These personal skills include:

- (a) **Intelligence:** Intellectual capacity is an essential quality of leadership. Leaders generally have somewhat higher level of intelligence than the average of their followers.
- (b) **Emotional Maturity:** A leader should act with self-confidence, avoid anger, take decisions on a rational basis and think clearly and maturely. A leader should also have high frustration tolerance. According to Koontz and O'Donnell – “Leaders cannot afford to become panicky, unsure of themselves in the face of conflicting forces, doubtful of their principles when challenged, or amenable to influence”.
- (c) **Personal Motivation:** This involves the creation of enthusiasm within the leader himself to get a job done. It is only through enthusiasm that one can achieve what one wants. Leaders have relatively intense achievement type motivational drive. He should work hard more for the satisfaction of inner drives than for extrinsic material rewards.

- (d) *Integrity*: In the words of F.W. Taylor – “integrity is the straightforward honesty of purpose which makes a man truthful, not only to others but to himself; which makes a man high-minded, and gives him high aspirations and high ideals”.
- (e) *Flexibility of Mind*: A leader must be prepared to accommodate others’ viewpoints and modify his decisions, if need be. A leader should have a flexible mind, so that he may change in obedience to the change in circumstances. Thomas Carlisle has said – “A foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of a little mind”.

In sum, a leader must have a dynamic personality, intellectual attainment, amiable disposition, unassuming temperament and knowledge of how to deal with his followers.

9.4. Importance of Leadership

The importance of leadership in an organisation cannot be denied. People working in an organisation need individuals (leaders) who could be instrumental in guiding the efforts of groups of workers to achieve goals and objectives of both the individuals and the organisation. The leader guides the action of others in accomplishing these tasks. A good leader motivates his subordinates, creates confidence and increases the morale of the workers. In the words of Peter F Drucker – “Good leadership is a must for the success of a business but the business leaders are the scarcest resources of any enterprise”. The following points highlight the importance of leadership:

1. Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group towards the achievement of a goal.
2. An effective leader motivates subordinates for turning in a higher level of performance.
3. Leadership promotes team-spirit and teamwork which is essential for the success of any organisation.
4. Leadership is an aid to authority. Dynamic and enlightened leadership helps in the effective use of formal authority.
5. Leadership creates confidence in subordinates by giving them proper guidance and advice.

The history of business is full of instances where good leaders led their business concerns to unprecedented peaks of success. To quote George R Terry: “The will to do is triggered by leadership, and lukewarm desires for achievement are transformed into burning passion for successful accomplishments by the skilful use of leadership skills”.

9.5. Functions of a Leader

According to Peter Drucker, “An effective leader is one who can make ordinary men do extraordinary things, make common people do uncommon things. Leadership is a lifting of a man’s sights to a higher vision, the raising of man’s standard to a higher performance, the building of a man’s personality beyond its normal limitations.” This viewpoint of Peter Drucker stresses the leader’s obligation to attain organisational goals and gives attention to the needs of the individuals who are his subordinates. The important functions of a business leader may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. **To take the initiative:** A leader initiates all the measures that are necessary for the purpose of ensuring the health and progress of the organisation in a competitive economy. He should not expect others to guide or direct him. He should lay down the aims and objectives, commence their implementation and see that the goals are achieved according to the predetermined targets.
2. **He identifies group goals:** A leader must always help the group identify and attain their goals. Thus, a leader is a goal setter.
3. **He represents the organisation:** A leader represents the organisation and its purpose, ideals, philosophy and problems to those working for it and to the outside world. In other words, a leader is a true representative of the entire organisation.
4. **He acts as an arbitrator:** When groups experience internal difference, whether based on emotional or intellectual clashes, a leader can often resolve the differences. He acts as an arbitrator to prevent serious differences from cropping up within the group.
5. **To assign reasons for his action:** It is the delicate task of a leader to assign reasons to his every command. He has to instruct things in such a way that they are intelligible to all concerned and their co-operation is readily forthcoming.
6. **To interpret:** He interprets the objectives of the organisation and the means to be followed to achieve them; he appraises his followers, convinces them, and creates confidence among them.
7. **To guide and direct:** It is the primary function of the leader to guide and direct the organisation. He should issue the necessary instructions and see that they are properly communicated.
8. **To encourage teamwork:** A leader must try to win the confidence of his subordinates. He must act like the captain of a team.

9. He manages the organisation: Last but not the least, he administers the undertaking by arranging for the forecast, planning, organisation, direction, co-ordination and control of its activities.

9.6. Leadership Styles

Leadership style refers to the behaviour pattern adopted by a leader to influence the behaviour of his subordinates for attaining the organisational goals. As different leadership styles have their own merits and demerits, it is difficult to prefer one leadership style over another. The selection of a leadership style will depend on the consideration of a number of factors. Tannenbaum and Schmidt have pointed out the important factors that affect the choice of a style of leadership.

They are:

1. Forces in the manager, i.e., the manager's personality, experience and value system.
2. Forces in the subordinates, i.e., the subordinates' readiness for taking decisions, and their knowledge, interest, need for independence, etc.
3. Forces in the situation, i.e., complexity of the problem, pressure of time etc.

9.6.1. Types of Leadership Styles

The different types of leadership styles are:

1. Autocratic or Task Management Leadership
2. Participative or Democratic Leadership and
3. Laissez-faire or Free-rein Leadership
4. Paternalistic Leadership.

1. Autocratic or Task Management Leadership

The autocratic leader gives orders which he insists shall be obeyed. He determines policies for the group without consulting them, and does not give detailed information about future plans, but simply tells the group what immediate steps they must take. In other words, an autocratic leader is one who centralizes the authority in himself and does not delegate authority to his subordinates. He is dictatorial by nature, and has no regard for his subordinates. He drives himself and his subordinates with one thought uppermost in his mind – action must produce results. An autocratic leader controls the entire planning process, and calls upon his subordinates to execute what he has

planned. An autocratic leader operates on the following assumptions:

- a. An average human being has inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can.
- b. If his subordinates were intelligent enough, they would not be in subordinate positions.
- c. He assumes that unintelligent subordinates are immature, unreliable and irresponsible persons. Therefore, they should be constantly watched in the course of their work.
- d. As he has no regard for his subordinates, he gets the work done by his subordinates through negative motivation, that is, through threats of penalty and punishment.

Thus, under this style, all decision-making power is centralized in the leader. The autocratic leader stresses his prerogative to decide and order, and denies subordinates the freedom to influence his behaviour.

Types of Autocratic Leadership:

- a. ***Strictly autocratic leaders:*** A strictly autocratic leader relies on negative influence and gives orders which the subordinates must accept. He may also use his power to dispense rewards to his group.
- b. ***Benevolent Autocrat:*** The benevolently autocratic leader is effective in getting high productivity in many situations and he can develop effective human relationships. His motivational style is usually positive.
- c. ***Manipulative Autocrat:*** A manipulative autocratic leader is one who makes subordinates feel that they are participating in decision making process even though he has already taken the decision.

2. Participative or Democratic Leadership

A democratic leader is one who consults and invites his subordinates to participate in the decision making process. He gives orders only after consulting the group, sees to it that policies are worked out in group decisions and with the acceptance of group. The manager largely avoids the use of power to get a job done. He behaves that a desired organisational behaviour can be obtained if employees' needs and wants are satisfied. Therefore, he not only issues orders but interprets them and sees to it that the employees have the necessary skills and tools to carry out their assignments. He assigns a fair work load to his

personnel and accords due recognition to jobs that are well done. There is a team approach to the attainment of organisational goals. He recognizes the human value of showing greater concern for his subordinates.

A participative leader operates on the following assumptions:

- a. Subordinates are capable of doing work independently and assuming the responsibility for proper execution if they are given opportunities and incentives.
- b. Subordinates are supervised, guided and aided rather than threatened and commanded to work.
- c. Mistakes are not viewed seriously. The assumption is that disciplinary action breeds discontent and frustration among employees and creates an unhealthy work environment.

3. Laissez-faire or Free-rein Leadership

A free-rein leader does not lead, but leaves the group entirely to itself. The leader avoids using power and entrusts the decision-making authority to his subordinates. He does not direct his subordinates, thereby giving them complete freedom of operation. Groups of members work independently and provide their own motivation. The manager exists as a facilitator and buffer contact man between the team and outsiders, while bringing for his group the information and resources it needs to accomplish its job. A free-rein leader operates in the following manner:

- a. He follows the rule of minimum exposure to accountability.
- b. He relieves himself of responsibilities and is ready to blame his subordinates if something goes wrong.
- c. He has no clear idea of the goals to be attained.
- d. He is more security conscious than status conscious.

This mode of direction can produce good and quick results, if the subordinates are highly educated and brilliant people who have a sincere need to go ahead and discharge their responsibility.

4. Paternalistic Leadership

Under this type of leadership, the leader assumes that his function is fatherly. His attitude is that of treating the relationship between the leader and his groups as that of family, with the leader as the head of the family. The leader works to help, guide, protect and keep his followers happily working together as members of a family. He provides

them with good working conditions, fringe benefits and employee services. It is said that employees under such leadership will work harder, out of sheer gratitude as well as emotional bondage.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Leadership is a process by which an individual influences the thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors of others.
- Leaders set a direction for the rest of the group, and help it to see what lies ahead.
- They help the team visualize what it might achieve and encourage as well as inspire the entire team to perform up to its true potential.
- Without leadership a group degenerates into non-performers.
- That is why the practice of leadership is known to be a key business differentiator.
- In order to increase individual effectiveness, one must certainly possess good team skills coupled with great leadership qualities.

Check Your Progress

1. _____ is increasing Leadership rapidly:
 - a. Strategy
 - b. Command
 - c. Control
 - d. Getting others to follow
2. Regarding leadership, which statement is false?
 - a. Leadership does not necessarily take place within a hierarchical structure of an organization
 - b. When people operate as leaders their role is always clearly established and defined
 - c. Not every leader is a manager
 - d. All of the above
3. _____ are the approaches to the study of leadership which emphasise the personality of the leader:
 - a. Contingency theories

- b. Group theories
 - c. Trait theories
 - d. Inspirational theories
4. The effectiveness of a leader is dependent upon meeting _____ areas of need within the workgroup:
- a. One
 - b. Three
 - c. Five
 - d. None of the above
5. Contingency theories of leadership based upon:
- a. That there is no single style of leadership appropriate to all situations
 - b. That there is a single style of leadership appropriate to all managers
 - c. That there is a single style of leadership appropriate to all situations
 - d. None of the above

Glossary

Authority-Compliance

Management: High concern for production and low concern for people. This style of management tends to result in efficient operations.

Country Club

Management: Low concern for production and high concern for people. This style of management creates a working environment where employees feel comfortable.

Improvised

Management: This style of management results in employees doing the minimum required.

Leader:

A leader is one who guides and directs other people. He gives the efforts of his followers a direction and purpose by influencing their behaviour

Leadership:

Leadership is the relation between an individual

and a group around some common interest and behaving in a manner directed or determined by him.

Middle-of-the Road

Management: Moderate levels of concern for both people and production. This style of management balances needs through compromise, resulting in adequate performance.

Team Management: High levels of concern for people and production. This style of management results in superior performance from committed employees.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. d. Getting others to follow
2. b. When people operate as leaders their role is always clearly established and defined.
3. c. Trait theories
4. b. Three
5. a. That there is no single style of leadership appropriate to all situations.

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, Organisational Behaviour, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
2. James, P. S. (2017). Organisational Behaviour, 1e. Pearson Education India.
3. Black, J. S., Bright, D. S., Gardner, D. G. (2019). Organizational Behavior. (n.p.): 12th Media Services.

Block-4: Introduction

Block-4: Group Dynamics has been divided into five Units.

Unit-10: Group Behaviour explains about the Introduction, Types of Groups, and Reasons for Forming Groups, Stages of Group Development and Group Decision-making.

Unit-11: Group Properties deals with Introduction, Role, Norms, Status, Size and Composition and Cohesiveness.

Unit-12: Organisational Communication discuss with Introduction, Communication Process, Grapevine–Organization Communication, Barriers to Effective Communication and Overcoming Barriers to Communication.

Unit - 13: Team Building presents about Introduction, Types of Teams, Creating Effective Teams, Turning Individuals into Team Players and Role of Emotional Intelligence in Teamwork.

Unit - 14: Conflict Management describes about the Introduction to Conflict, Definition of Conflict, Outcomes of Conflicts, Sources of Organisational Conflict, Causes of Conflict, Types of Conflict, Conflict Process, Changing View of Conflict and Conflict Management Strategies.

In all the units of Block -4 **Group Dynamics**, the Check your progress, Glossary, Answers to Check your progress and Suggested Reading has been provided and the Learners are expected to attempt all the Check your progress as part of study.

Unit - 10

Group Behaviour

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

10.1. Introduction

10.2. Types of Groups

10.2.1. Reasons for Forming Groups

10.3. Stages of Group Development

10.4. Group Decision-making

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learn the concept of group, the reason for formations of a group. We will also learn the various types of group, the stages in group development and the concept of group decision making.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define the term group
 - Discuss various types of groups
 - State the reasons for forming groups
 - Explain the stages of group development
 - Know about group decision-making
-

10.1. Introduction

Man is by nature a social animal. It is impossible for him to work in isolation of all the other people around him. Moreover, in the world today, it has become almost imperative for a professional to work in consonance with other professionals around.

Organisations are nothing but a group of many professionals working together to achieve a common goal. Different departments comprise of

smaller groups to work over a project/goal/ objective.

Thus it is quite obvious that the organisations are existent and successful only because of the existence and success of the various task groups and project teams existing inside them.

We define “group” as more than two employees who have an ongoing relationship in which they interact and influence one another’s behaviour and performance. The behaviour of individuals in groups is something more than the sum total of each acting in his or her own way. In other words, when individuals are in groups, they act differently than they do when they are alone.

10.2. Types of Groups

Groups can be either formal or informal.

1. **Formal Groups:** A formal group is set up by the organisation to carry out work in support of the organisation’s goals. In formal groups, the behaviours that one should engage in are stipulated by – and directed toward – organisational goals. Examples include a book-keeping department, an executive committee, and a product development team. Formal groups may be command groups or task groups.

a. *Command Group:* A command group consists of a manager and the employees who report to him or her. Thus, it is defined in terms of the organisation’s hierarchy. Membership in the group arises from each employee’s position on the organisational chart.

b. *Task Group:* A task group is made up of employees who work together to complete a particular task or project. A task group’s boundaries are not limited to its immediate hierarchical superior.

It can cross command relationships. An employee’s membership in the group arises from the responsibilities delegated to the employee – that is, the employee’s responsibility to carry out particular activities. Task group may be temporary with an established life span, or they may be open ended.

2. **Informal Groups:** An organisation’s informal groups are groups that evolve to meet social or affiliation needs by bringing people together based on shared interests or friendship. Thus, informal groups are alliances that are neither formally structured nor organisationally determined. These groups are natural formations in the work environment that appear in response to the need for social contact. Many factors explain why people are attracted to one another. One

explanation is simply proximity; when people work near one another every day, they are likely to form friendships. That likelihood is even greater when people also share similar attitudes, personalities, or economic status.

- a. **Friendship Groups:** Groups often develop because the individual members have one or more common characteristics. We call these formations 'friendship groups'. Social alliances, which frequently extend outside the work situation, can be based on similar age, same political view, attended the same college, etc.
- b. **Interest Groups:** People who may or may not be aligned into common command or task groups may affiliate to attain a specific objective with which each is concerned. This is an interest group.
- c. **Reference Groups:** Sometimes, people use a group as a basis for comparison in making decisions or forming opinions. When a group is used in this way, it is a reference group. Employees have reference groups inside or outside the organisation where they work. For most people, the family is the most important reference groups. Other important reference groups typically include co-workers, friends, and members of the person's religious organisation. The employee need not admire a group for it to serve as a reference group. Some reference groups serve as a negative reference; the employee tries to be unlike members of these groups.
- d. **Membership Groups:** When a person does belong to a group (formal and informal groups to which employees actually belong) the group is called a membership group (or affiliation group) for that person. Members of a group have some collection of benefits and responsibilities that go beyond the group serving as a reference point. In a membership group, each member would be expected to contribute to the group's well-being and would enjoy the benefits arising from the group members' friendship.

10.2.1. Reasons for Forming Groups

Formal and informal groups form in organisations for different reasons. Formal groups are sometimes called official or assigned groups and informal groups may be called unofficial or emergent groups. Organisations routinely form groups. If we assume management decisions are rational, groups must benefit organisations in some way.

Presumably, the use of groups can contribute to achieving and maintaining a sustainable competitive advantage. Groups can do this if they enable an organisation to fully tap the abilities and energy of its human resources. Furthermore, with regard to informal groups, people form groups to meet their individual needs.

1. **Performance:** Group effort can be more efficient and effective than individual efforts because they enable employees to specialize and contribute a variety of strengths. Organisations STRUCTURE employees into functional and task groups so that they can develop and apply expertise in particular functions, products, problems or customers. The other factor contributing to performance is motivation, and groups can enhance this as well. When employees work in groups, the group is an important force for creating and enforcing standards for behaviour.
2. **Cooperation:** Carrying out an organisation's mission is something no single person can do alone. However, for several people to accomplish a mutual goal, they must cooperate. Group dynamics and characteristics can enhance cooperation among employees, especially when members identify themselves with – and as – a group and are rewarded for group success.
3. **Satisfaction:** If satisfaction improves motivation (and therefore performance), organisations as well as individual employees can benefit from employees' satisfaction derived from group membership. A major source of this satisfaction is that people have needs for being with others and being liked by them. The way people satisfy this category of needs is participating in groups focusing on social activity. Group membership may also be a means for satisfying needs for security, power and esteem.

10.3. Stages of Group Development

In interpreting behaviour of a particular group, it is important to recognize not only a broad pattern of development but also the unique characteristics of the particular group and the circumstances that contribute to (or detract from) its development. The way in which a particular group develops, depends in part on such variables as the frequency with which group members interact and personal characteristics of group members. However, it is generally believed that groups pass through a standard sequence of five stages.

1. **Forming:** When a group is initially formed, its members cannot accomplish much until they agree on what their purpose is, how they

will work together and so on. Answering such questions brings group members face to face with the first obstacle to maturity: uncertainty, anxiety, and disagreement over power and authority. In this stage, the focus is on the interpersonal relations among the members. Members assess one another with regard to trustworthiness, emotional comfort, and evaluative acceptance. Thus, the forming stage is characterized by a great deal of uncertainty about the group's purpose, STRUCTURE and leadership. Members are testing the waters to determine the type of behaviour that is acceptable. This stage is complete when members have begun to think of themselves as part of a group.

2. **Storming:** The storming stage is one of intergroup conflict. Members accept the existence of the group but resist the constraints the group imposes on individuality. Further, there is conflict over who will control the group. After a group leader has emerged, the remaining group members must sort out where they fit in the group. Even if all the group members accept the leader, the group enters a phase of conflict and challenge. One or more followers may test the leader. The group may split into factions supporting and opposing the leader. If the group gets stuck in this phase of development, group members may engage in battles over turf and expend their energies on a variety of political tactics. When this stage is complete, a relatively clear hierarchy of leadership exists within the group.
3. **Norming:** In this stage, close relationships develop and the group demonstrates cohesiveness. Entering and conducting the cohesion phase requires intervention by a group member who is emotionally unaffected by power and authority issues. Typically, such a person encourages group members to confront these issues openly. If the group engages in this process, the cohesion phase usually passes quickly. Group members recognize where they fit in, and the group agrees on how it will operate. A new leader may emerge, or the existing leader may become more aware of how much others in the group contribute. The norming stage is complete when the group STRUCTURE solidifies and the group has assimilated a common set of expectations of what defines correct member behaviour.
4. **Performing:** The fourth stage is performing. The STRUCTURE at this point is fully functional and accepted. Group energy has moved from getting to know and understand each other to performing the task at hand. Members' attention is directed to self-motivation and the motivation of other group members for task accomplishment.

Some members focus on the task function of initiating activity and ensure that the work of the group really gets moving. Other members contribute to motivation and commitment within the group through maintenance functions such as supporting, encouraging and recognizing the contributions of members or through establishing the standards that the group may use in evaluating its performance.

5. **Adjourning:** For permanent work groups, performing is the last stage in their development. However for temporary groups, there is an adjourning stage. In this stage, the group prepares for its disbandment. High task performance is no longer the group's top priority. Instead, attention is directed toward wrapping up activities.

10.4. Group Decision-making

The most common form of group decision-making takes place in face-to-face interacting groups. Interacting groups often censor themselves and pressure individual members toward conformity of opinion. Once a manager has determined that a group decision approach should be used, he or she can determine the technique best suited to the decision situation. Some of the techniques are summarized below:

1. **Brainstorming:** Brainstorming is a good technique for generating alternatives. The idea behind brainstorming is to generate as many ideas as possible, suspending evaluation until all of the ideas have been suggested. Participations are encouraged to build upon the suggestions of others, and imagination is emphasized. Brainstorming is meant to overcome pressures for conformity in the interacting group that retard the development of creative alternatives. Groups that use brainstorming produce significantly more ideas than groups that do not.
2. **Nominal Group Technique (NGT):** The nominal group technique restricts discussion or interpersonal communication during the decision-making process, hence the term 'nominal'. Group members are all physically present, as in a traditional committee meeting, but members operate independently. NGT has the following discrete steps:
 - a. Individuals silently list their ideas.
 - b. Ideas are written on a chart one at a time until all ideas are listed.
 - c. Discussion is permitted, but only to clarify the ideas. No

criticism is allowed.

- d. A vote is taken by ballot or other recordable means.
3. **Delphi Technique:** The Delphi technique originated at the Rand Corporation to gather the judgements of experts for use in decision-making. The Delphi method is similar to the nominal group technique except that it does not require the physical presence of the group's members. Experts at remote locations respond to a questionnaire. A co-ordinator summarizes the responses to the questionnaire, and the summary is sent back to the experts. The experts then rate the various alternatives generated, and the coordinator tabulates the results. The following steps characterize the Delphi technique.
- a. The problem is identified and members are asked to provide potential solutions through a series of carefully designed questionnaires.
 - b. Each member anonymously and independently completes the questionnaire.
 - c. Results of the questionnaire are compiled at a central location, transcribed, and reproduced.
 - d. Each member receives a copy of the results.
 - e. After viewing the results, members are again asked for their solutions. The advantages of the Delphi Technique are:
 - f. The Delphi technique is valuable in its ability to generate a number of independent judgements without the requirement of a face-to-face meeting.
 - g. The Delphi technique can be used for decision-making among geographically scattered groups.
 - h. The cost of bringing experts together at a central location is avoided. The disadvantages of the Delphi Technique are:
 - i. The Delphi technique is extremely time consuming, it is frequently not applicable where a speedy decision is necessary.
 - j. The method may not develop the rich array of alternatives as the interacting of nominal group technique does.
 - k. Ideas that might surface from the heat of face-to-face interaction may never arise. On the other, introspection in isolation may produce superior results.

4. **Electronic Meetings:** This method blends the nominal group technique with sophisticated computer technology. Issues are presented to participants and they type their responses onto their computer screen. Individual comments, as well as aggregate votes, are displayed on a projection screen.

The advantages of electronic meetings are:

- a. Participants can anonymously type any message they want and it flashes on the screen for all to see at the push of a key on a participant's keyboard.
- b. It allows people to be brutally honest without incurring any penalty.
- c. It is fast because discussions don't go off the point and many participants can "talk" at once. The disadvantages of electronic meetings are:
- d. Those who can type fast can outshine those who are verbally eloquent but poor typists.
- e. Those with the best ideas don't get credit for them; and
- f. The process lacks the information richness of face-to-face oral communication.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- If a group in which the individual is working, is conducive for work, the performance of the individual will be similarly affected and vice versa.
- There are many reasons and methods for group formation but groups are mandatory for one's work.
- Man is by nature a social animal. It is impossible for him to work in isolation of all the other people around him.
- In the world today, it has become almost imperative for a professional to work in consonance with other professionals around.
- Organisations are nothing but a group of many professionals working together to achieve a common goal.
- Different departments comprise of smaller groups to work over a project/goal/objective.

- The behaviour of individuals in groups is something more than the sum total of each acting in his or her own way.
- In other words, when individuals are in groups, they act differently than they do when they are alone. A formal group is set up by the organisation to carry out work in support of the organisation's goals.
- Informal groups are alliances that are neither formally structured nor organisationally determined.
- People who may or may not be aligned into common command or task groups may affiliate to attain a specific objective with which each is concerned. This is an interest group.
- Sometimes, people use a group as a basis for comparison in making decisions or forming opinions. When a group is used in this way, it is a reference group
- When a person does belong to a group (formal and informal groups to which employees actually belong) the group is called a membership group (or affiliation group)
- Groups pass through a standard sequence of five stages: Forming, Storming, Norming, Performing and Adjourning.

Check Your Progress

1. Which one of the following characteristics is not necessarily true about groups?
 - a. Group members are interdependent.
 - b. Groups have two or more members.
 - c. Groups have externally assigned goals.
 - d. Groups interact.
 - e. Members come together to achieve particular objectives.
2. What sort of groups is defined by the organization's STRUCTURE?
 - a. informal
 - b. task
 - c. friendship
 - d. interest
 - e. formal

3. An elementary school principal and her 18 teachers form a(n) _____.
- informal group
 - friendship group
 - command group
 - interest group
 - normative group
4. When do informal groups appear?
- in response to the need for social contact
 - in reaction to formal groups
 - as a result of social needs
 - most frequently in bureaucracies
 - when formal groups cannot meet their goals
5. Julia, Bree and David work in different departments, but often eat lunch together. They are an example of what type of group?
- formal
 - informal
 - command
 - task
 - reactant

Glossary

Formal Group:	A formal group is set up by the organisation to carry out work in support of the organisation's goals.
Group:	The term "group" is defined as more than two employees who have an ongoing relationship in which they interact and influence one another's behaviour and performance.
Informal Groups:	Informal groups are alliances that are neither formally STRUCTURED nor organisationally determined.
Interest Group:	People who may or may not be aligned into common command or task groups may

affiliate to attain a specific objective with which each is concerned. This is an interest group.

Membership Group: When a person does belong to a group (formal and informal groups to which employees actually belong) the group is called a membership group (or affiliation group).

Organisations: Organisations are nothing but a group of many professionals working together to achieve a common goal.

Reference Group: Sometimes, people use a group as a basis for comparison in making decisions or forming opinions. When a group is used in this way, it is a reference group.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. a. Group members are interdependent.
2. b. task
3. d. interest group
4. c. as a result of social needs
5. c. command

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
2. James, P. S. (2017). *Organisational Behaviour, 1e*. Pearson Education India.
3. Black, J. S., Bright, D. S., Gardner, D. G. (2019). *Organizational Behavior*. (n.p.): 12th Media Services.

Unit - 11

Group Properties

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

11.1. Introduction

11.2. Role

11.3. Norms

11.4. Status

11.5. Size and Composition

11.6. Cohesiveness

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learn the various role each has to play in the group and the norms that are part of every group. We will also learn the size, composition and the cohesiveness of groups.

Objectives

After studying this unit, the student should be able to:

- Define the term role
- Discuss the meaning and types of norms
- State the relevance of status and size in group formation
- Explain the concept of cohesiveness

11.1. Introduction

Groups in organisations are more than collections of individual employees. We can distinguish effective groups in terms of role structures, norms, cohesiveness, leadership, status, tasks and size. These characteristics act as a means of understanding why some groups perform better than others.

11.2. Role

A role is a set of activities expected of a person occupying a particular position within the group. It is a pattern of behaviour that is expected of an individual when he interacts with others. The understanding of role behaviour would be dramatically simplified if each of us chose one role and play it out regularly and constantly. However, Individuals play multiple roles while adjusting their roles to the group in which they are. Different groups impose different role requirements on individuals.

Characteristics of Roles

- (i) Roles are impersonal. It is the position that determines the expectations, not the individual.
- (ii) An organisational role is that set of expected behaviours applicable to a particular position vis-à-vis a particular job.
- (iii) It is fairly difficult to pin down roles in exact terms. It is the most complex organised response pattern the human being is capable of undertaking.
- (iv) Roles are learned quickly and can result in major changes in behaviour.

Role Identity: Role identity is certain attitudes and behaviour consistent with a role. People have the ability to shift roles rapidly when they recognize that the situation and its demands clearly require major changes. For example, when a worker who holds a position in a workers' union is promoted as supervisor, his attitude will change from pro-union to pro-management.

Role Perception: Role perception is an individual's view of how he or she is supposed to act in a given situation. Based on an interpretation of how we believe we are supposed to behave, we engage in certain types of behaviour.

Role Expectations: Role expectations are defined as how others believe you should act in a given situation. How you behave is determined to a large extent by the role, defined in the context within which you are operating.

Role Conflict: Role conflict is a situation in which an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations. Role conflict, like other forms of conflict, can be a major source of stress. Excessive stress can cause problems for individual employees and for the organisations that employ them.

Each person in a group has a role, or a pattern of expected behaviours associated with a certain position in the group. Each group member's role is a part of the group's overall role STRUCTURE, that is, the set of roles and relationships among roles that has been defined and accepted by group members. Roles develop through a combination of group processes and individual processes.

- a. Group members have an expected role for each individual. In formal groups, the organisation has expectations of what employees in each position should do.
- b. Though verbal and behavioural messages, group members communicate their expectations: A sent role. For expected roles in formal groups, the organisation often spells out its expectations in job descriptions.
- c. The individual group member's perceptions of these communication results in a perceived role.
- d. The group member's response, acting out (or not acting out) the perceived role is the enacted role. The way the role is enacted influences the group's future role expectations.

11.3. Norms

Norms are shared ways of looking at the world. Groups control members through the use of norms. A norm is a rule of conduct that has been established by group members to maintain consistency in behaviour. Norms tell members what they ought and ought not to do under certain circumstances. From an individual's standpoint, they tell what is expected of him in certain situations. Norms differ among groups, communities, and societies, but they all have norms.

According to Hackman, norms have five characteristics:

1. Norms summarize and simplify group influence processes. They resolve impersonal differences in a group and ensure uniformity of action.
2. Norms apply only to behaviour – not to private thoughts and feelings.
3. Norms are usually developed gradually, but the process can be shortened if members so desire.
4. Not all norms apply to everyone. High status members often enjoy more freedom to deviate from the "letter of the law" than do other members.

Types of Norms

A work group's norms are unique to each work group. Yet there are some common classes of norms that appear in most work groups:

- a. **Performance-related processes:** Work groups typically provide their members with explicit cues on how hard they should work, how to get the job done, their level of output, etc. These norms deal with performance-related processes and have an extremely powerful effect on an individual employee's performance.
- b. **Appearance Factors:** Some organisations have formal dress codes. However, even in their absence, norms frequently develop to dictate the kind of clothing that should be worn to work.
- c. **Allocation of Resources:** These norms cover pay, assignment of difficult jobs, and allocation of new tools and equipment.
- d. **Informal Social Arrangement:** These norms can originate in the group or in the organisation and cover pay, assignment of difficult jobs, and allocation of new tools and equipment.

Factors Influencing Conformance to Norms

As a member of a group, you desire acceptance by the group. Because of your desire for acceptance, you are susceptible to conforming to the group's norms. There is considerable evidence to show that groups can exert strong pressures on individual members to change their attitudes and behaviours to conform to the group's standard. However, conformity to norms is not automatic, it depends on the following factors:

- (i) **Personality Factors:** Research on personality factors suggests that the more intelligent are less likely to conform than the less intelligent. Again, in unusual situations where decisions must be taken based on items that are not very clear, there is a greater tendency to conform to the group's norms. Under conditions of crisis, conformity to group norms is highly probable, e.g., in wartime.
- (ii) **Situational Factors:** Group size, communication patterns, degree of group unanimity, etc., are the situational factors influencing the conformity to norms.
- (iii) **Intragroup Relationships:** A group that is seen as being credible will evoke more compliance than a group that is not.
- (iv) **Compatible Goals:** When individual goals coincide with group

goals, people are more willing to adhere to group norms.

The standards that a work group uses to evaluate the behaviour of its members are its norms of behaviour. These norms may be written or unwritten, verbalized or not verbalized, implicit or explicit. They pertain to that individual members of the group should do, or they may specify what members of a group should not do. Norms may exist in any aspect of work group life. They may evolve informally or unconsciously within a group, or they may arise in response to challenges.

Norms reflect the culture of the particular group, so they vary from one group to another. When the group's norms are consistent with the organisation's goals, they can contribute to organisational effectiveness. The degree to which norms have an impact depends on the extent to which group members comply with them and the group's enforcement of them.

Enforcement of Norms: To function effectively, groups enforce their norms in various ways:

1. The group may increase communication with a non-conforming member.
2. If that does not work, the group may ignore the non-conforming member and exclude him or her from activities.
3. In extreme cases, group members may resort to physical coercion or expulsion.

11.4. Status

Status is a socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others. Individual group members are also distinguished by the amount of status they have within the group – that is, the degree of worth and respect they are accorded by group members.

Status is an important factor in understanding human behaviour because it is a significant motivator and has major behavioural consequences when individuals perceive a disparity between what they believe their status to be and what others perceive it to be.

Formal Status: Status may be formally imposed by organisations through position and titles. We are all familiar with the trappings of high organisational status – large offices with impressive views, fancy titles, high pay, etc.

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

can have status value if others in the group evaluate it as status conferring.

Status is an important characteristic of groups because it affects group STRUCTURE and dynamics. Status figures in the allocation of roles among group members. In general, high-status group members get high status roles such as group leader or expert, whereas low-status group members get low-status roles. Furthermore, group members tend to pay more attention to input from high-status group members, including their contributions to group decisions.

Status is the degree of worth and respect that other members of the group accord individual group members. Status may arise from the person's job or behaviour in the group. Often, a group member's status is linked to the person's position in the organisation. Someone near the top of the organisation's hierarchy has a higher status. Status may also be based on age, gender, educational qualifications, seniority, race or other characteristics.

The status of group members can enhance effectiveness if the high-status members have the most to contribute to the group's objectives. However, if status causes a person to have influence beyond his or her ability to contribute to group goals, the group's effectiveness will suffer.

Status Effects

1. On Norms and Conformity:

- a. High-status members are less restrained by norms and pressure to conform
- b. Some level of deviance is allowed to high-status members so long as it doesn't affect group goal achievement

2. On Group Interaction:

- a. High-status members are more assertive
- b. Large status differences limit diversity of ideas and creativity

11.5. Size and Composition

The size of a group can have profound implications on how the group behaves internally and with regard to other groups. It is an important factor determining the number of interactions of individuals in a group. In a small group, face-to-face interaction is quite easy and uncomplicated. Members can easily communicate with other group members. Research evidence confirms the fact that small groups are effective. On the other hand, in large groups, members have a better chance of finding people

they like to work with. The potential for greater variety of talents is also greater. But the disadvantages of size more than offset its advantages. Larger groups, therefore, apart from being relatively less manageable, offer greater opportunities for differences between – and among – individuals.

11.6. Cohesiveness

It is the Degree to which group members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the group.

The commitment of members to a group and the strength of their desire to remain in the group constitutes a group's cohesiveness. Group cohesion is the "interpersonal glue" that makes the members of a group stick together. Group cohesion can enhance job satisfaction for members and improve organisational productivity. Highly cohesive groups at work may not have many interpersonal exchanges away from the workplace. However, they are able to control and manage their membership better than work groups low in cohesion. This is due to the strong motivation in highly cohesive groups to maintain good, close relationships with other members.

Factors Affecting Cohesiveness: Individuals tend to consider a group attractive if it meets the following conditions:

1. The group's goals are clear and compatible with members' goals.
2. The group has a charismatic leader.
3. The group has a reputation for successfully accomplishing its task.
4. The group is small enough that members can air their opinions and have them evaluated.
5. The members support one another and help each other overcome barriers to growth and development.

Furthermore, cohesiveness may be easier to establish in a group whose membership is homogeneous. Groups also tend to be highly cohesive when they perceive a threat that gives group members a "common enemy".

Managerial Implication–To increase cohesiveness:

1. Make the group smaller.
2. Encourage agreement with group goals.
3. Increase time members spend together.

4. Increase group status and admission difficulty.
5. Stimulate competition with other groups.
6. Give rewards to the group, not to individuals.
7. Physically isolate the group.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Groups in organisations are more than collections of individual employees.
- We can distinguish effective groups in terms of role STRUCTUREs, norms, cohesiveness, leadership, status, tasks and size.
- A role is a set of activities expected of a person occupying a particular position within the group.
- It is a pattern of behaviour that is expected of an individual when he interacts with others.
- Individuals play multiple roles while adjusting their roles to the group in which they are.
- Role identity is certain attitudes and behaviour consistent with a role.
- Role perception is an individual's view of how he or she is supposed to act in a given situation.
- Expectations are defined as how others believe you should act in a given situation.
- Role conflict is a situation in which an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations.
- Group member's role is a part of the group's overall role STRUCTURE, that is, the set of roles and relationships among roles that has been defined and accepted by group members.
- Norms are shared ways of looking at the world. Groups control members through the use of norms.
- A norm is a rule of conduct that has been established by group members to maintain consistency in behaviour.
- Status is a socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others.

- Status is an important characteristic of groups because it affects group structure and dynamics.
- The size of a group can have profound implications on how the group behaves internally and with regard to other groups.
- When a group is heterogeneous in terms of gender, personalities, opinions, abilities, skills and perspectives, there is an increased probability that the group will possess the needed characteristics to complete its tasks effectively.
- The commitment of members to a group and the strength of their desire to remain in the group constitutes a group's cohesiveness.

Check Your Progress

1. _____ refers to the negotiation or an agreement between two groups
 - a. Contracting
 - b. Co-opting
 - c. Pressure tactics
 - d. None of these
2. _____ is the attractiveness of the members towards the group or resistance to leave it
 - a. Group norms
 - b. Group behavior
 - c. Group cohesiveness
 - d. Group structure
3. When a group gives some of its leadership positions to the members of other group, it is
 - a. Contracting
 - b. Coopting
 - c. Coalition
 - d. Competition
4. Beliefs, attitudes, traditions and expectations which are shared by group members is called
 - a. Group norms
 - b. Group communication

- c. Group cohesiveness
 - d. Group structure
5. The group formed by an organization to accomplish narrow range of purposes within a specified time
- a. Formal Group
 - b. Task Group
 - c. Interest Group
 - d. Functional Group

Glossary

Expectations:	Expectations are defined as how others believe you should act in a given situation.
Group Member's Role:	Group member's role is a part of the group's overall role STRUCTURE, that is, the set of roles and relationships among roles that has been defined and accepted by group members.
Norm:	A norm is a rule of conduct that has been established by group members to maintain consistency in behaviour.
Role:	A role is a set of activities expected of a person occupying a particular position within the group.
Role Conflict:	Role conflict is a situation in which an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations.
Role Identity:	Role identity is certain attitudes and behaviour consistent with a role.
Role Perception:	Role perception is an individual's view of how he or she is supposed to act in a given situation.
Status:	Status is a socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. a. Contracting
2. c. Group cohesiveness
3. b. Co-opting
4. a. Group norms
5. b. Task Group

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
2. James, P. S. (2017). *Organisational Behaviour*, 1e. Pearson Education India.
3. Black, J. S., Bright, D. S., Gardner, D. G. (2019). *Organizational Behavior*. (n.p.): 12th Media Services.

Organisational Communication

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

12.1. Introduction

12.2. Communication Process

12.3. Grapevine–Organization Communication

12.4. Barriers to Effective Communication

12.5. Overcoming Barriers to Communication

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learn the process of communication, the various formal communication, its barriers, and the ways to overcome such barriers.

Objectives

After studying this unit, the student should be able to:

- Know about organisational communication
- Discuss issues related to communication
- State the relevance of interpersonal communication
- Explain the strategies to overcome barriers to communication

12.1. Introduction

It is often said that the practice of management is in crisis, and that managers are now finding it harder than ever to develop strategies which withstand the shocks of the marketplace. Many managers fail to adequately consider the communication consequences of the decision-making process and thus cast a negative impact on the organisational effectiveness.

Organisational communication, as a field, is the consideration, analysis,

and criticism of the role of communication in organisational contexts. The field traces its lineage through business information. The current field is well established with its own theories and empirical concerns distinct from other communication subfields and other approaches to organisations.

12.2. Communication Process

Communication is important in building and sustaining human relationships at work. It cannot be replaced by the advances in information technology and data management that have taken place over the past several decades. Communication can be thought of as a process or flow. Before communication can take place, a purpose – expressed as a message to be conveyed – is needed. It passes between the sender and the receiver. The result is transference of meaning from one person to another.

The communication process comprises of seven parts:

1. The communication source,
 2. Encoding,
 3. Message,
 4. Channel,
 5. Decoding
 6. Receiver, and
 7. Feedback.
1. **Source:** The source initiates a message. This is the origin of the communication and can be an individual, group or inanimate object. The effectiveness of a communication depends to a considerable degree on the characteristics of the source. Aristotle believed that acceptance of the source's message could be increased by:
- **Pathos:** Playing on the emotions of the receiver.
 - **Logos:** Generating logical arguments, or
 - **Ethos:** Asking for message acceptance because the source is trustworthy.

The person who initiates the communication process is known as sender, source or communicator. In an organization, the sender will be a person who has a need or desire to send a message to others. The sender has some information which he wants to communicate to some other person to achieve some purpose. By initiating the

message, the sender attempts to achieve understanding and change in the behaviour of the receiver.

2. **Encoding:** Once the source has decided what message to communicate, the content of the message must be put in a form which the receiver can understand. As the background for encoding information, the sender uses his or her own frame of reference. It includes the individual's view of the organization or situation as a function of personal education, interpersonal relationships, attitudes, knowledge and experience.

Three conditions are necessary for successful encoding of the message.

- **Skill:** Successful communicating depends on the skill you possess. Without the requisite skills, the message of the communicator will not reach the receiver in the desired form. One's total communicative success includes speaking, reading, listening and reasoning skills.
 - **Attitudes:** Our attitudes influence our behaviour. We hold predisposed ideas on a number of topics and our communications are affected by these attitudes.
 - **Knowledge:** We cannot communicate what we don't know. The amount of knowledge the source holds about his or her subject will affect the message he or she seeks to transfer.
3. **The Message:** The message is the actual physical product from the source encoding. The message contains the thoughts and feelings that the communicator intends to evoke in the receiver. The message has two primary components:
 - **The Content:** The thought or conceptual component of the message is contained in the words, ideas, symbols and concepts chosen to relay the message.
 - **The Affect:** The feeling or emotional component of the message is contained in the intensity, force, demeanour (conduct or behaviour), and sometimes the gestures of the communicator.

According to D.K Berlo – “When we speak, the speech is the message. When we write, the writing is the message. When we paint, the picture is the message. When we gesture, the movements of our arms, the expressions on our faces are the message”.

4. **The Channel:** The actual means by which the message is transmitted to the receiver (visual, auditory, written or some

combination of these three) is called the channel. The channel is the medium through which the message travels. The channel is the observable carrier of the message. Communication in which the sender's voice is used as the channel is called oral communication. When the channel involves written language, the sender is using written communication. The sender's choice of a channel conveys additional information beyond that contained in the message itself. For example, documenting an employee's poor performance in writing conveys that the manager has taken the problem seriously.

5. **Decoding:** Decoding means interpreting what the message means. The extent to which the message is decoded successfully, i.e., degree of accuracy in transfer of information to the receiver, depends heavily on the individual characteristics of both the sender and the receiver. The greater the similarity in the background or status factors of the communicators, the greater the probability that a message will be transmitted accurately. Most messages can be decoded in more than one way. The process of receiving and decoding a message is a sort of perception. The decoding process is therefore subject to perception biases, and is therefore a subjective process, which further means that interpretation of the contents of a message depends largely on internal factors and a plethora of personal influences and experiences.
6. **The Receiver:** The receiver is the object to whom the message is directed. Receiving the message means one or more of the receiver's senses register the message – for example, hearing the sound of a supplier's voice over the telephone or seeing the boss give a thumbs-up signal. Like the sender, the receiver is subject to many influences that can affect the understanding of the message. Most important, the receiver will perceive a communication in a manner that is consistent with previous experiences. Communications that are not consistent with expectations is likely to be rejected.
7. **Feedback:** The final link in the communication process is a feedback loop. Feedback, in effect, is communication travelling in the opposite direction. If the sender pays attention to the feedback and interprets it accurately, the feedback can help the sender learn whether the original communication was decoded accurately. Without feedback, one-way communication occurs between managers and their employees. Faced with differences in their power, lack of time, and a desire to save face by not passing on negative information,

employees may be discouraged from providing the necessary feedback to their managers.

12.3. Grapevine - Organization Communication

The network for much informal communication is the organization's grapevine. Grapevines develop in organizations to handle communications that the formal channels of communication do not handle. It typically supplements or replaces the organizational hierarchy as the means for transmitting communication. The grapevine serves as an excellent source of information about employee attitudes as well as an emotional outlet for workers. Thus, the grapevine is likely to be strong during uncertain times and in organizations that limit the flow of information to employees through formal channels. Also, employees may participate in a grapevine to help meet social needs.

The Grapevine has three main characteristics:

- a. It is not controlled by management.
- b. It is perceived by most employees as being more believable and reliable than formal communiqués issued by top management.
- c. It is largely used to serve the self-interests of the people within it.

The development of grapevines is inevitable. Although grapevines are neither good nor bad in themselves, the messages they carry are subject to distortion as messages transmitted from one human link to another become progressively more garbled. Their content is misinterpreted, abbreviated, embellished and selectively transmitted in terms of what the sender believes the receiver wants or needs to know. Since the original message may be only partially true, it is not surprising that the grapevine is sometimes referred to as a rumour mill. The information that travels through a grapevine typically takes the form of gossip (belief about other people) and rumours (efforts to predict future events). Despite the fact that grapevines sometimes create difficulties when they carry gossip and false rumours, they are a fact of life in organizations and it is unrealistic of managers to think that they can eliminate grapevines.

12.4. Barriers to Effective Communication

Barriers to communication are factors that block or significantly distort successful communication. Effective managerial communication skills helps overcome some, but not all, barriers to communication in organizations. The more prominent barriers to effective communication which every manager should be aware of is given below:

1. **Filtering:** Filtering refers to a sender manipulating information so it will be seen more favourably by the receiver. The major determinant of filtering is the number of levels in an organization's STRUCTURE. The more vertical levels in the organization's hierarchy, the more opportunities for filtering. Sometimes the information is filtered by the sender himself. If the sender is hiding or camouflaging some meaning and disclosing information in such a fashion as to make it more appealing to the receiver, then he is "filtering" the message deliberately. A manager in the process of altering communication in his favour is attempting to filter the information.
2. **Selective Perception:** Selective perception means seeing what one wants to see. The receiver, in the communication process, generally resorts to selective perception, i.e., he selectively perceives the message based on the organizational requirements, the needs and characteristics, background of the employees, etc. Perceptual distortion is one of the distressing barriers to the effective communication. People interpret what they see and call it a reality. In our regular activities, we tend to see those things that please us and to reject or ignore unpleasant things. Selective perception allows us to keep out dissonance (the existence of conflicting elements in our perceptual set) at a tolerable level. If we encounter something that does not fit our current image of reality, we STRUCTURE the situation to minimize our dissonance. Thus, we manage to overlook many stimuli from the environment that do not fit into our current perception of the world. This process has significant implications for managerial activities. For example, the employment interviewer who expects a female job applicant to put her family ahead of her career is likely to see that in female applicants, regardless of whether the applicants feel that way or not.
3. **Emotions:** How the receiver feels at the time of receipt of information influences effectively how he interprets the information. For example, if the receiver feels that the communicator is in a jovial mood, he interprets that the information being sent by the communicator to be good and interesting. Extreme emotions and jubilation or depression are quite likely to hinder the effectiveness of communication. A person's ability to encode a message can become impaired when the person is feeling strong emotions. For example, when you are angry, it is harder to consider the other person's viewpoint and to choose words carefully. The angrier you are, the harder this task becomes. Extreme emotions – such as jubilation or depression – are most likely to hinder effective communication. In

such instances, we are most prone to disregard our rational and objective thinking processes and substitute emotional judgments.

4. **Language:** Communicated message must be understandable to the receiver. Words mean different things to different people. Language reflects not only the personality of the individual but also the culture of society in which the individual is living. In organizations, people come from different regions, different backgrounds, and speak different languages. People will have different academic backgrounds, different intellectual facilities, and hence the jargon they use varies. Often, communication gap arises because the language the sender is using may be incomprehensible, vague and indigestible. Language is a central element in communication. It may pose a barrier to correct and timely action if its use obscures meaning and distorts intent. Words mean different things to different people. Age, education and cultural background are three of the more obvious variables that influence the language a person uses and the definitions he or she gives to words. Therefore, use simple, direct, declarative language. Speak in brief sentences and use terms or words you have heard from your audience. As much as possible, speak in the language of the listener. Do not use jargon or technical language except with those who understand it.
5. **Stereotyping:** Stereotyping is the application of selective perception. When we have preconceived ideas about other people and refuse to discriminate between individual behaviours, we are applying selective perception to our relationship with other people. Stereotyping is a barrier to communications because those who stereotype others use selective perception in their communication and tend to hear only those things that confirm their stereotyped images. Consequently, stereotypes become more deeply ingrained as we find more “evidence” to confirm our original opinion.

Stereotyping has a convenience function in our interpersonal relations. Since people are all different, ideally we should react and interact with each person differently. To do this, however, requires considerable psychological effort. It is much easier to categorize (stereotype) people so that we can interact with them as members of a particular category. Since the number of categories is small, we end up treating many people the same, even though they are quite different. Our communications, then, may be directed at an individual as a member of a category at the sacrifice of the more effective communication on a personal level.

6. **Status Difference:** The organizational hierarchy poses another barrier to communication within the organization, especially when the communication is between employee and manager. This is so because the employee is dependent on the manager as the primary link to the organization and hence more likely to distort upward communication than either horizontal or downward communication. Effective supervisory skills make the supervisor more approachable and help reduce the risk of problems related to status differences. In addition, when employees feel secure, they are more likely to be straightforward in upward communication.
7. **Use of conflicting signals:** A sender is using conflicting signals when he or she sends inconsistent messages. A verbal message might conflict with a non-verbal one. For example, if a manager says to his employees, "If you have a problem, just come to me. My door is always open, but looks annoyed whenever an employee knocks on his door", then we say the manager is sending conflicting messages. When signals conflict, the receivers of the message have to decide which, if any, to believe.
8. **Reluctance to Communicate:** For a variety of reasons, managers are sometimes reluctant to transmit messages. The reasons could be:
 - They may doubt their ability to do so.
 - They may dislike – or be weary of – writing or talking to others.
 - They may hesitate to deliver bad news because they do not want to face a negative reaction. When someone gives in to these feelings, they become a barrier to effective communications.
9. **Projection:** Projection has two meanings:
 - a. Projecting one's own motives into others' behaviour. For example, managers who are motivated by money, may assume their subordinates also motivated by it. If the subordinate's prime motive is something other than money, serious problems may arise.
 - b. The use of defence mechanism to avoid placing blame on oneself. As a defence mechanism, the projection phenomenon operates to protect the ego from unpleasant communications. Frequently, individuals who have a particular fault will see the same fault in others, making their own fault seem not so serious.
10. **The "Halo Effect":** The term "halo effect" refers to the process of

forming opinions based on one element from a group of elements and generalizing that perception to all other elements. For example, in an organization, a good attendance record may cause positive judgements about productivity, attitude, or quality of work. In performance evaluation system, the halo effect refers to the practice of singling out one trait of an employee (either good or bad) and using this as a basis for judgement of the total employee (e.g., seeing the well-dressed manager as the “good” manager).

12.5. Overcoming Barriers to Communication

There are number of ways managers can minimize a number of communication barriers. In general, communication can be improved in two ways. First, the manger must sharpen his or her skills in manipulating symbols, that is, process of encoding. This implies that the sender must take as much care as possible in choosing symbols and establishing the context within which the message is transmitted. There are number of techniques that are commonly employed by managers to accomplish these ends.

Active listening: It implies that the receiver of information engages in the following patterns of behavior.

- a. stop talking since it is impossible to talk and listen at the same time,
- b. remove the distracting elements as much as possible
- c. is patient and lets the other person say whatever needs to be said,
- d. appreciate the emotion behind the speaker’s words and is empathic,
- e. is attentive,
- f. creates a positive listening environment
- g. uses feedback mechanisms to check understanding
- h. withholds judgment
- i. asks questions,
- j. reacts to the message and not he person.

Active listening takes a lot of energy and be perfected by conscious and constant practice.

Follow up and Feedback: The process of feedback makes communication a two-way process. In face-to-face situations, the sender

should try to become sensitive to facial expressions and other signs that indicate how the message is being received. It is often important to solicit questions of clarification from the receiver. When more formal communication is involved, the writer may specify specific forms and times for responding to insure feedback.

Parallel Channels and Repetition: A major principle of communication technology is to provide parallel channels of communication that reinforce each other. Thus, a verbal request may be followed up with a memo. In this way, the sender has ensured getting the attention of the receivers and also ensured that the sender will have a record to refer to in case he or she forgets in its order.

Timing: A manager may ignore a memo or request simply because other problems are pressing in at the same time. Two kinds of actions can be taken by management to ensure the accurate reception of communication through timing.

1. they may want to standardize the timing of specific messages,
2. many organizations establish “retreats” or time away from normal job pressures to transmit material, ideas and instructions to employees. This action insures the undivided attention of the receivers.

Be patient and paying adequate attention: When choosing a style of language, the sender must give a due consideration to the listener’s intention, and his background. Effective use of language consists of tailoring one’s message for the context of the receivers in order to maximize overall between the intended and received messages.

Information Communication and Information Centers: Running parallel to formal communication channel in an organization is an informal network commonly called grapevines. They tend to be a universal fact of life in all organizations. They have been used to serve not only informational functions but also motivational functions as well. A number of employees needs are served by the powerful reinforcer. Effective communicators often combine formal and informal (grapevine) channels of communication. Thus a manager may reinforce information received through formal with an off-the record talk with key subordinates. In reverse directing, he or she might reinforce and clarify a formal written with an informal chat session among employees.

Exception principle and need to know: In order to deal effectively with the information overload problem many organizations try to establish certain principles for actually limiting the extent of communications.

Many firms implement an “exception principle” in communication channels. This principle orders that only communications regarding exceptional derivations, from orders, plans, and policies be communicated upward on a routine basis. Hence, upper levels of management will receive only that information which truly demands their attention. A closely related principle involves downward communication. Here, managers should be selective and transmit information on a “need to know” basis. In this way, lower level personnel receive only communication that is immediately critical to carrying out their tasks. The success of these two principles depends on the type of organization within which jobs are carried out. They will be most effective in highly structured organizations where tasks are relatively simple and routine. In less formal organization, in which work is rather complex and not highly structured, communication needs to be as open and unrestricted as possible.

Being empathetic in understanding: Good communicators are able to reduce the chance of communication barrier and the associated problems by communicating with empathy – a feeling and awareness of the other person and their point of view. A good communicator is able to recognize emotions in others and respond appropriately. It is reported that empathy as the foundation for the quality of a relationship. In a satisfying relations both parties have empathy for the other person’s point of view and are also willing to provide appropriate and sufficient feedback to achieve the understanding.

Using feedback mechanisms: Since feedback involved both receiver and sender, it is important to understand the conditions under which feedback session will be more effective both from the sender’s and receiver’s perspective. For feedback to be most effective, the person giving the feedback must:

- a. give specific and not general or vague feedback
- b. give feedback immediately or soon after the event has taken place rather than long after the event has occurred
- c. give feedback on aspects that the receiver can rectify rather than on aspects over which the individual has no control
- d. be descriptive than evaluative
- e. give feedback on a few critical issues where improvement is most urgently expected rather than on a wide range of problem areas

- f. examine your own motivation in giving the feedback
- g. be sure that the receiver is ready to receive feedback
- h. be non-threatening and disregard your superior status while offering feedback.

Minimize Physical distraction: Taking due care in minimizing the external noise, interruptions, awkward mannerism, unusual and unwanted incidences, etc., facilitate to heighten the attention levels of the members.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Communication is, and always has been, the glue that binds an organisation together.
- Managers are now finding it harder than ever to develop strategies which withstand the shocks of the marketplace.
- Many managers fail to adequately consider the communication consequences of the decision-making process and thus cast a negative impact on the organisational effectiveness.
- Organisational communication, as a field, is the consideration, analysis, and criticism of the role of communication in organisational contexts.
- The field traces its lineage through business information.
- Travel is always a challenge to a person's problem-solving abilities; this is no different for a person with a disability.

Check Your Progress

1. Communication is sharing of information between two or more persons, with continuous _____.
 - a. Efforts
 - b. Feedbacks
 - c. Gestures
 - d. Movements
2. Which of the following is not listed amongst the barrier to communication?
 - a. Physical noise
 - b. Physiological noise

- c. Psychological noise
 - d. Physically challenged
3. communication between peers is essential for _____ coordination
- a. Functional
 - b. Organizational
 - c. Managerial
 - d. Statistical
4. An advantage of regular downward communication is _____
- a. It motivates employees
 - b. It gives promotion to employees
 - c. It creates a climate of transparency
 - d. It reduces gaps.
5. Break-down in verbal communication is described as:
- a. Short circuit
 - b. Contradiction
 - c. Unevenness
 - d. Entropy

Glossary

Communication:	Communication is, and always has been, the glue that binds an organisation together.
Grape vine communication	Grapevines develop in organizations to handle communications that the formal channels of communication do not handle.
Political Correctness:	It is a set of communication “rules” established over time and within a specific cultural environment.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. b. Feedbacks
2. d. Physiological noise
3. a. Functional
4. c. It creates a climate of transparency
5. c. Unevenness

Suggested Readings

1. Robbins S P, Timothy A. Judge & Sanghi Seema, 2018, *Organisational Behaviour*, Pearson Education, New Delhi.
2. James, P. S. (2017). *Organisational Behaviour*, 1e. Pearson Education India.
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Unit - 13

Team Building

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

13.1. Introduction

13.2. Types of Teams

13.3. Creating Effective Teams

13.4. Turning Individuals into Team Players

13.5. Role of Emotional Intelligence in Teamwork

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learn the various types of teams in organisations of today, the creative ways of team building, turning individuals into team players and the role of emotional intelligence in teamwork.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define the term team
- Discuss various types of teams
- State how to create effective teams
- Explain the way of turning individuals into team players
- Realize the role of emotional intelligence in teamwork

13.1. Introduction

A team is a relatively permanent work group whose members must coordinate their activities to achieve one or more common objectives. The objectives might include advising others in the organisation, producing goods or services, and carrying out a project. Because achievement of the team's objectives requires coordination, team members depend on one another and must interact regularly. A work

team generates positive synergy through coordinated effort. Their individual efforts result in a level of performance that is greater than the sum of those individual inputs. Teams have far-reaching impact in today's workplace. They have become an essential part of the way business is being done.

Teams imply a high degree of coordination among their members, along with a shared belief that winning (achieving team goals) is not only desirable but the very reason for the team's existence. Any team is therefore a group, but unfortunately, not all groups have the high degree of interdependence and commitment to success that we traditionally associate with the concept of a team. Although the desire to achieve high levels of commitment and co-ordination is common among organisations using teamwork, the nature of specific teams varies considerably.

1. **Differentiation:** is the extent to which team members are specialized relative to others in the organisation.
2. **Integration:** is the degree to which the team must coordinate with managers, employees, suppliers and customers outside the team.

13.2. Types of Teams

Based on their objectives, teams may be classified as problem-solving teams, self-managed teams and cross-functional teams:

1. **Problem-solving Teams:** Problem-solving teams consist of groups of 5-10 employees from the same department, who meet for a few hours each week to discuss ways of improving quality, efficiency and the work environment. These members share ideas or offer suggestions on how work processes and methods can be improved. Problem-solving teams meet regularly to discuss their quality problems, investigate causes of problems, recommend solutions and take corrective actions.
2. **Self-managed Work Teams:** A self-managed team includes collective control over the pace of work, determination of work assignments, organisation of breaks, and collective choice of inspection procedures. Fully self-managed work teams even select their own members and have the members evaluate each other's performance. As a result, supervisory positions take on decreased importance and may even be eliminated. These teams do their own scheduling, rotate jobs on their own, establish production targets, set pay scales that are linked to skills, fire co-workers and do the hiring.

3. **Cross-functional Teams:** Cross-functional teams are made up of employees from about the same hierarchical level, but from different work areas, who come together to accomplish a task. Cross-functional teams are an effective way to allow people from diverse areas within an organisation (or even between organisations) to exchange information, develop new ideas, solve problems and coordinate complex projects. These teams are not easy to manage. Their early stages of development are often very time consuming as members learn to work with diversity and complexity. It takes time to build trust and teamwork, especially among people from different backgrounds, with different experiences and perspectives. There are two types of cross- functional teams. They are:
- a. *Task force – is nothing more than a temporary cross-functional team.*
 - b. *Committees – composed of groups made up of members from across departmental lines.*

13.3. Creating Effective Teams

The four possible combination – high or low differentiation plus high or low integration – are associated with creation of effective teams.

1. Advice/Involvement,
 2. Production/Service,
 3. Project/Development, and
 4. Action/Negotiation.
1. **Advice and Involvement:** An advice/involvement team is a team formed to generate input from a broad base of employees. They are low in differentiation. Team members meet only long enough to generate ideas or develop proposals. The work group takes on problem solving as one of its daily activities. Because this team has a limited scope of control, the use of teamwork has essentially no impact on the organisation's management STRUCTURE. Advice/involvement teams the routinely handle quality issues are often called quality circles. Such teams typically meet about an hour each week to generate ideas for improving quality in a given area.
 2. **Production and Service:** Production/service teams, are charged with the activities related to producing and selling goods and services. Production/service teams, draw their membership from a broad base and often are formed as a way to empower first-line employees. They are low on differentiation and high in integration.

They must co-ordinate their work extensively with suppliers, customers, and other groups in the organisation.

3. **Project and Development:** A project/development team is charged with planning, investigating, analyzing and reporting, often with the objective of creating outputs that are complex and unique. Project/development teams are highly differentiated because they require employees with expertise in particular areas. They tend not to be highly integrated because team members generally face internal deadlines, and coordination is primarily among group members.
4. **Action and Negotiation:** Action/negotiation team are usually comprised mainly of experts with specialized skills. Owing to their expertise, the team is highly differentiated; it is also highly integrated with the organisation. It must closely coordinate its efforts with the work of support personnel or with other action/negotiation teams.

13.4. Turning Individuals into Team Players

People do not always respond the way it should be. Sometimes they get frustrated with other team members or with my leadership. Leaders who understand this process can coach and guide a team and minimize frustration.

The following options summarizes on how managers can turn individuals into team players:

Selection: Our selection criteria focuses more of the technical qualifications of a candidate and not much efforts is put into taking a background check to ensuring that the candidate is a team player. There is a general assumption that once a person has been hired they will automatically get along with colleagues/fit in.

This misconception later on leads to unnecessary interruptions and various visits to the HR office for this issue or the other later resulting in the person quitting the job or being fired taking us back to where we started from, recruiting once again. The manager has various ways to dealing with such individualistic persons either to take them to a department that does not require team work (this is rare) or taking the person through training.

1. **Training:** In today's individualistic society training opens a door on where one can get to unlearn the individual mindset and embraces team work. Training specialist have been known to conduct sessions that allow employees to experience the satisfaction that teamwork

provides. One of the most effective tools of modern team building is the recreation weekends which give employees time to interact away from the office.

2. **Rewards:** Rewards system over time has been focused on individual accomplishments therefore pushing employees to strive for the ultimate prize being offered. Without sidelining the individual achievements/efforts organisations can introduce rewards that are focused on encouraging/strengthening team work/spirit. Examples of this would include having various departments in the company rewarded for best team work.

Rewards for persons who have been mindful of their colleagues would also be introduced; these recognitions can go a long way in motivating team work.

Another effective way to transition individuals into team players is to spend some money on a formal and fun teambuilding event. This will help individuals understand why it's so important to work as a team towards a common goal than as an individual with individual goals.

The Team Development Process comes out of social science theory. After years of studying the way teams work, sociologists recognized emerging patterns. These patterns became the crux of team theory. Now we know that all teams go through certain stages of development. We also know that within those stages there are certain things that team members can do and certain things that they are not yet ready to do.

Consider your team as a new baby. You wouldn't ask your new baby to tell you when he is hungry or to let you know when he has to go to the bathroom. Managers make the mistake of asking more of teams than they are ready to give. Similarly, team members ask more of themselves than they are ready to give. Awareness of the Team Development Process can minimize frustration and failure and maximize growth and high achievement.

13.5. Role of Emotional Intelligence in Teamwork

The concept of emotional intelligence and its impact on teamwork is relatively new. Emotions can play on the effectiveness and success of the team should be the aim of each team member. A positive emotional climate should be developed so that all energies can be focussed on the attainment of mutual goals including the success of the project.

More and more organisations are realizing that hard skills testing and

personality assessments are just not cutting it as tools to use in selecting new hires. As companies begin to realize the importance of social skills like the ability to collaborate and work with a team, they are now looking for those “emotional intelligence” qualities not only in new candidates but in existing staff as well. Emotional intelligence in team building is an absolute must to get the most out of any group of people and here are 7 reasons why.

- 1. Self Awareness:** It is exceptionally difficult to understand the emotions and motivations of others if you don't know yourself first. Persons with a high emotional intelligence can quickly identify their emotions which is the first step in being able to control or manage them. Self awareness is the basic building block of emotional intelligence.
- 2. Self control:** Being able to recognize your emotion is one thing but being able to control those emotions, particularly in stressful conditions is quite another. The person with a developed EI understands why they feel like they do which gives them an opportunity to examine the emotion rationally and control it.
- 3. Innate motivational tendencies:** Motivation is a key to team momentum and every member plays a role in providing that motivation. Developed EI manifests itself as positive attitude, persistence and a natural support for others. In short it is infectious and others will follow the lead.
- 4. Empathy:** The person with high emotional intelligence has the ability to understand the emotions in another and empathize with them. They understand people of all walks of life and the impact that different cultures have on decision making processes. Understanding these differences allows the person to accept diversity and not have it serve as a barrier to working together effectively.
- 5. Highly developed social skills:** Essential to team members is a high sense of social skills. Being able to resolve conflicts in a mutually acceptable way is critical to the overall success of the team. Well developed social skills can strongly contribute to collaboration and cooperation which in turn will drive productivity.
- 6. Social interdependence:** When a team is created it will create an environment of social interdependence and that can be a good thing or bad depending on how it is managed. If the team leader explains that the group will focus on team goals and requires the input of all

team members to be successful, the result is a greater effort to collaborate. However if the team is set up as competitors i.e., “the first one to sell 100 widgets gets a big bonus” then you have a team that consists of individuals with individual goals.

7. EI and teamwork: Positive and effective relationships between team members have been demonstrated to be the superior emotional setting to drive results. Members who share a bond both professionally and personally will work harder to achieve success for those for the group than a team where those relationships have not been developed. Developing emotional intelligence through exercises and training can greatly improve the odds of effective team performance.

The participants have held positions ranging from the executive level to administrative staff.

Despite the fact that the challenges and pressures they face at the various organisational levels are quite different, the one common factor they share is “how they feel” or the emotions they experience.

When people become empowered through enhancing their EI skills, they become more internally self-managed and capable of making their greatest contributions. And the organisation ultimately benefits when its employees work in that zone of peak performance.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have studied about the following:

- A team is a relatively permanent work group whose members must co-ordinate their activities to achieve one or more common objectives. The objectives might include advising others in the organisation, producing goods or services, and carrying out a project.
- Because achievement of the team’s objectives requires co-ordination, team members depend on one another and must interact regularly. A work team generates positive synergy through co-ordinated effort.
- Individual efforts result in a level of performance that is greater than the sum of those individual inputs.
- When a team is created it will create an environment of social interdependence and that can be a good thing or bad depending on how it is managed.

- Teams have far-reaching impact in today's workplace. They have become an essential part of the way business is being done.
- Team skills and group membership form a very important component of the attributes required for success in work place. Teams guarantee good productivity.

Check Your Progress

1. A group of people working with common objectives or goals is known as a _____
 - a. Team
 - b. Teamwork
 - c. Group
 - d. Club
2. Which of the following is not a benefit of teamwork?
 - a. Improved solutions to quality problems
 - b. Improved ownership of solutions
 - c. Improved communications
 - d. Decline in integration
3. Which of the following is not a classification of a team?
 - a. Process improvement team
 - b. Cross-functional team
 - c. Natural work team
 - d. Group-directed/group-managed work team
4. Cross-functional teams discuss complex problems and break them down into parts and refer these to departmental teams and work teams of respective functions for further solution.
 - a. True
 - b. False
5. Cross-functional teams are _____
 - a. Temporary
 - b. Permanent
 - c. Neither Temporary nor Permanent
 - d. Either Temporary or Permanent

Glossary

Differentiation: It is the extent to which team members are specialized relative to others in the organisation.

Integration: It is the degree to which the team must co-ordinate with managers, employees, suppliers and customers outside the team.

Problem Solving

Team: Problem-solving teams meet for a few hours each week to discuss ways of improving quality, efficiency and the work environment.

Project/development

Team: A project/development team is charged with planning, investigating, analyzing and reporting, often with the objective of creating outputs that are complex and unique

Self-Managed Team: A self-managed team includes collective control over the pace of work, determination of work assignments, organisation of breaks, and collective choice of inspection procedures.

Team: A team is a relatively permanent work group whose members must coordinate their activities to achieve one or more common objectives.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. a. Team
2. d. Decline in integration
3. d. Group-directed / group-managed work team
4. a. True
5. a. Temporary

Suggested Readings

1. Forsyth, D. R. (2018). *Group dynamics*. Cengage Learning.
2. Kondalkar, V. G. (2020). *Organizational behaviour*. New Age.
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Unit - 14

Conflict Management

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

14.1. Introduction to Conflict

14.1.1. Definition of Conflict

14.2. Outcomes of Conflicts

14.3. Sources of Organisational Conflict

14.4. Causes of Conflict

14.5. Types of Conflict

14.6. Conflict Process

14.7. Changing View of Conflict

14.8. Conflict Management Strategies

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learn the concept of conflict and its types, the reasons and sources of conflicts, the outcomes of conflicts and the various conflict management strategies.

Objectives

After studying this unit, the student should be able to:

- Define the term conflict
- Discuss sources and consequences of conflict
- Explain the process of Conflict
- Explain the concept of conflict management

14.1. Introduction to Conflict

All of us have experienced conflict of various types, yet we probably fail to recognize the variety of conflicts that occur in organisations. Conflict can be a serious problem in any organisation. A better understanding of

the important areas of conflict will help managers to use the people in the organisation more effectively to reach the organisation's objectives. Failure to be concerned about conflict is very costly, since ignoring it will almost guarantee that work and interpersonal relations will deteriorate.

14.1.1. Definition of Conflict

One of the problems in organisational conflict is that the term has been defined in many different ways by academics and managers. But despite the divergent meanings the term has acquired, several common themes underlie most definitions. A few definitions are reproduced below:

According to *Gray and Starke* – “Conflict is behaviour by a person or group that is purposely designed to inhibit the attainment of goals by another person or group. This ‘purposeful inhibition’ may be active or passive.”

R.W. Woodman defines conflict “As any situation in which incompatible goals, attitudes, emotions or behaviours lead to disagreement or opposition between two or more parties.”

K.W. Thomas defines conflict as “A process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected or is about to negatively affect, something the first party cares about.”

According to *B. Kabanoff*, “Conflict refers to a disagreement, opposition, or struggle between two or more individuals or groups. It results from incompatible influence attempts between and within individuals, groups or organisations.”

From the above definitions we can state that conflict most commonly arises from four circumstances:

1. Conflict can occur when individuals or groups perceive they have mutually exclusive goals or values.
2. Behaviour designed to defeat, reduce or suppress an opponent may cause conflict.
3. Groups that face each other with mutually opposing actions and counteractions cause conflict, and
4. If each group attempts to create a relatively favoured position vis-à-vis the other, conflict may ensue.

Today's organisations may face greater potential for conflict than ever before. The marketplace, with its increasing competition and globalization, magnifies difference among people in terms of personality, values, attitudes, perceptions, languages, cultures and national

backgrounds. With the increasing diversity of the workforce, furthermore, comes potential incompatibility and conflict.

14.2. Outcomes of Conflicts

Not all conflicts are bad. In fact, some types of conflict encourage new solutions to problems and enhance the creativity in the organisations. In these cases, managers will want to encourage the conflicts. Functional conflicts are conflicts that support the goals of the group and improve its performance. There are also conflicts that hinder group performance. These are dysfunctional or destructive forms of conflict. Therefore, managers should stimulate functional conflict and prevent or resolve non-dysfunctional conflict. This is the key to conflict management. The consequences of conflict can be positive or negative, as shown in the below table

Positive Consequences	Negative
Leads to new ideas.	Diverts energy from work.
Stimulates creativity.	Threatens psychological well – being.
Motivates Change.	Wastes resources
Promotes organizational vitality.	Creates a negative climate.
Helps individuals and groups establish identities.	Breaks down group cohesion.
Serves as a safety valve to indicate problems.	Can increase hostility and aggressive behaviours.

Consequences of Conflict

Source: Debra L. Nelson, James Campbell Quick, “*Organisational Behavior – Foundations, Realities, and Challenges*”. (Second Edition) (1997), West Publishing Company, Minneapolis, Page 378.

14.3. Sources of Organisational Conflict

1. **Line and Staff Competition:** The growth of highly specialized, creative, well-educated staff poses unique problems for line managers. Faced with a growing dependence on staff, line managers must adjust to a reduction in organisational power and prestige. Conflict in most organisations persists between line and staff because it is virtually impossible to define precisely the responsibility and authority relationships between the two.

2. **Organisation-Individual Disagreements:** From one perspective, the conflict between the organisation and the individual centres around the individual's failure to fulfil the organisation's expectations regarding productivity or compliance with rules. From another, the conflict is often seen as resulting from excessive organisational demands. Such conflict may be overt or hidden from view, depending on the perception each side has of the power of the other.
3. **Overlapping Responsibilities:** Organisations constantly change in response to personnel turnover, expansion or contraction, the adoption of new policies, changes in external environment, and so forth. As a result, it is impossible to establish job responsibilities once and for all. When a change occurs, one person reaches out to assume more responsibility, another retrenches and still another tentatively assumes responsibility for certain functions without knowing definitely who should be performing them. Thus, the stage is set for conflict.
4. **Functional Interdependence:** Conflicts between an organisation's functional units, such as sales, accounting and manufacturing are commonplace. The sales department is at odds with manufacturing because quality is too low or prices are too high to meet the competition. Although departments are separated on the basis of function, they can never function as completely autonomous units. They must somehow resist the constant urge to view the organisation in terms of their narrow self-interests.
5. **Personality Clashes:** Individual differences in such personal qualities as values, attitudes, abilities and personality traits are often the cause of conflict. Two managers may learn to despise each other thoroughly for reasons totally unrelated to their work, but their performance on the job may suffer because of it.
6. **Disagreement Over Goals:** Conflict among managers is often caused by the fact that there is poor agreement over goals. Perhaps an even more common source of conflict is the clash of the personal goals of managers and employees with the goals of the organisation.
7. **Bottlenecks in the Flow of Work:** Line supervisors in manufacturing must meet production deadlines, but they are

dependent upon production schedules, warehousing shipping, and others for effective performance. A bottleneck at any point can prevent the line supervisors from being effective and is quite naturally an occasion for interpersonal conflict.

14.4. Causes of Conflict

There are numerous sources of conflict within formal organisations. To manage it effectively, managers should understand these sources of conflict. They can be classified into two broad categories:

1. Structural factors
2. Personal factors.

Structural Factors

Structural factors stem from the nature of an organisation and the way in which work is organised. The causes of conflict related to the organisation's STRUCTURE include specialization, interdependence, common resources, goal differences, authority relationships, status inconsistencies and jurisdictional ambiguities.

1. **Common and Limited Resources:** Perhaps the most fundamental fact of organisational life is that resources are finite. Any time multiple parties must share resources, there is potential conflict. Even the most successful companies have found that they are limited in what they can accomplish. With this realization, groups and individuals see that there will be times when they will have to fight for what they want. One resource often shared by managers is secretarial support. It is not uncommon for a secretary to support ten or more managers, each of whom believes his or her work is most important. This puts pressure on the secretaries and leads to potential conflicts in prioritizing and scheduling work.

The most obvious manifestation of this problem comes when the annual budget is set. Each department typically submits a request for its needs during the next fiscal year and top management adjusts the request based on its knowledge of the total organisation. Department heads often see their requests cut back because the resources for the total organisation are limited. When cutbacks occur, however, the potential for conflict increases because the heads of various departments begin making value judgements about why management decided to cut back one department but not another. As a general rule, "the greater the scarcity of resources, the greater the potential for conflict".

2. ***Interdependent Work Activities:*** Added to the basic problem of finite resources is the problem of organisational units having to work together. Work that is interdependent requires groups or individuals to depend on one another to accomplish goals. Depending on other people to get work done is fine when the process works smoothly. However, when there is a problem, it becomes very easy to blame the other party and conflict escalates.

It is important for managements to know the nature of work interdependence so systems of work can be implemented that will reduce the potential for dysfunctional conflict. As a general rule, “the more interdependent the work activities, the greater the potential for conflict”.

3. ***Specialization and Differentiation of Activities:*** We noted above that interdependence of work activities is an important source of conflict in organisations. Backing up one step further, we can see that the mere existence of groups doing different functions creates the potential for conflict. Especially when jobs are highly specialized, employees become experts at certain tasks. Highly specialized jobs can lead to conflict, because people have little awareness of the tasks that other perform.

A classic conflict of specialization is one between salespeople and engineers. Engineers are technical specialists responsible for product design and quality. Salespeople are marketing experts and liaison with customers. Salespeople are often accused of making delivery promises to customers that engineers cannot keep because the sales force is felt to lack the technical knowledge necessary to develop realistic delivery deadlines.

4. ***Authority Relationship:*** The traditional boss-employee relationship makes employees feel uncomfortable. The boss is superior to the employees and can dictate terms to his subordinates. For many employees, this relationship is not a comfortable one because another person has the right to tell them what to do. In addition, some bosses are autocratic and manipulative and this increases the potential for conflict. To add to the problem, some employees resent authority more than others, and obviously this creates conflicts.
5. ***Goal Differences:*** The differentiation in work activities leads to differentiation in goals. When work groups have different goals, these goals may be incompatible. For example, production’s goals may be to have long production runs with few changes in product style, because this allows the production facilities to operate at peak

efficiency. Marketing's goal, on the other hand, may be to give customers what they want when they want it. This means rush orders, special orders, and other demands that conflict directly with production's goals.

6. ***Jurisdictions Ambiguities:*** Jurisdictional ambiguity is tantamount to unclear lines of responsibility within an organisation. When a problem occurs for which there is no definite fixation of responsibility, workers tend to "pass the buck" or avoid dealing with the problem. Conflicts emerge over who has responsibility for the problem. For example, if you are a customer of a company and have a problem with the product you bought and you telephone the company to set it right, you would have had your call transferred through several different people and departments.
7. ***Status Inconsistencies:*** Some organisations have a strong status difference between managers and workers. Managers enjoy many privileges like flexible schedules, personal telephone calls at work and longer lunch hours. These privileges are not available to other employees resulting in resentment and conflict.

Personal Factors

Personal factors arise from differences among individuals. These differences include skills and abilities, personalities, perceptions, emotions, values and ethics and communication barriers.

1. ***Differences in Perceptions:*** We all "see" the world slightly differently because we have all had different experiences. Differences in perception can also lead to conflict. One area in which perceptions can differ is the perception of what motivates employees. If managers and workers do not have a shared perception of what motivates people, the reward system can create conflicts. It is hard to make unequivocal statements about how differences in perception will influence conflict. It is also difficult to deduce exactly how a person views the world unless the person is well-known to the manager. Nevertheless, a realization that differences in perception (by groups or individuals) is crucial to conflict means that it must be included in any discussion of conflict.
2. ***Communication Problems:*** Communication problems develop because not all groups have the same information. Each group therefore takes a position based on its view of the world and the information it has. The obvious solution to this problem is to give all groups equal information. However, this is generally not feasible

because individuals with important information may want to use it for their own advantage and not share it.

The various communication barriers that lead to conflict include:

- a. Communication barriers such as physical separation and language can create distortions in messages and these can lead to conflict.
 - b. Another communication barrier is value judgement, in which a listener assigns a worth to a message before it is received. For example, suppose X is a chronic complainer. When X enters the manager's office, the manager is likely to devalue the message before it is even delivered. Conflict can then emerge.
 - c. Communication barriers are also caused by technical jargon that is so frequently used in organisations.
3. **Value and Ethics:** Differences in values and ethics can be sources of disagreement. When conflicts over values or ethics do arise, heated disagreement is common because of the personal value systems giving rise to such differences.
 4. **Skills and Abilities:** Diversity in skills and abilities hold potential for conflict, especially when jobs are interdependent. Experienced workers may find it difficult to work alongside new and unskilled recruits. Employees can become resentful when their new boss, fresh from business school, knows a lot about managing people but is unfamiliar with the technology with which they (employees) are working.
 5. **Emotions:** Moods and emotions can be a source of conflict in the workplace. Personal problems at home often take their toll at the work place and the resultant mood-swings can be hard for others to deal with.
 6. **Personalities:** Personality conflicts are realities in organisations. To expect that you will like all of your co-workers may be a naïve expectation. One personality trait that many people find difficult to deal with is abrasiveness. Abrasive individuals create stress and strain for those around them.

14.5. Types of Conflict

We can analyze the effects of conflicts from many different perspectives. They are:

Intra-individual or Intrapersonal Conflict

This refers to conflict within an individual about which work activities to perform. An individual may experience

1. **Cognitive Conflict:** An intellectual discomfort created by trying to achieve incompatible goals.
2. **Affective Conflict:** Occurs when competing emotions accompany the incompatible goals and result in increased stress, decreased productivity or decreased satisfaction for the individual.
3. There are several types of intrapersonal conflict, including inter-role, intra-role and person-role conflicts.
4. **Inter-role Conflict:** Occurs when a person experiences conflict among the multiple roles in his or her life. One inter-role conflict that many employees experience is work/home conflict, in which their role as worker clashes with their role as spouse or parent.
5. **Intra-role Conflict:** Is conflict within a single role. It often arises when a person receives conflicting message from role senders (the individuals who place expectations on the person) about how to perform a certain role.
6. **Person-role Conflict:** Occurs when an individual in a particular role is expected to perform behaviours that clash with his or her values. For example, salespeople may be officially required to offer the most expensive item in the sales line first to the customer, even when it is apparent the customer does not want or cannot afford the item. This may conflict with the salesman's values or past experience, and he may experience person-role conflict.

Analyzing this type of conflict is difficult because "inner states" of the individual must be assessed.

1. **Inter-individual Conflict :** When two individuals disagree about issues, actions, or goals and where joint outcomes become important, there is inter-individual conflict. Research on this type of conflict (e.g., marriage counselling) often focuses on personality differences and why individuals feel obliged to block the goal attainment of the other person. Inter-individual or interpersonal conflict often arises from differences in individuals' status, perceptions and orientations. Such conflict may motivate individuals to reveal additional relevant issues or it may prevent any further

communication. To further complicate matters, some individuals are more likely to engage in conflict than others.

To manage interpersonal conflict, it is helpful to understand power networks in organisations, defence mechanisms exhibited by individuals and ways of coping with difficult people.

- a. **Power Networks:** According to Mastenbrock, individuals in organisations are organised in three basic types of power networks:
 - b. The first relationship is equal versus equal, in which there is a horizontal balance of power among the parties. The behavioural tendency is the focus on a win-lose approach to problems (sub-optimization) and each party tries to maximize its power at the expense of the other party.
 - c. The second power network is a powerful versus a less powerful relationship. Conflicts that merge here take the basic form of the powerful individuals trying to control others, with the less powerful people trying to become more autonomous.
 - d. The third power network is high versus middle versus low. Two particular conflicts are evident for middle managers: role conflict, in which conflicting expectations are placed on the manager from bosses and employees, and role ambiguity in which the expectations of the boss are unclear.
2. **Defence Mechanism:** When individuals are involved in conflict with other human beings, frustration often results. Defence mechanisms are common reactions to the frustration that accompanies conflict.
 - a. Aggressive mechanisms are aimed at attacking the source of the conflict. Some of these are fixation, displacement and negativism.
 - b. Compromise mechanisms are used by individuals to make the best of a conflict situation. Compromise mechanisms include compensation, identification and rationalization.
 - c. Withdrawal mechanisms are exhibited when frustrated individuals try to flee from a conflict using either physical or psychological means. Flight, conversion and fantasy are examples of withdrawal mechanism.
3. **Coping with Difficult People:** Many interpersonal conflicts arise when one person finds another person's behaviour uncomfortable, irritating or bothersome in one way or another. Robert Baramsom

has identified seven basic types of difficult people that may be encountered at work.

- a. **Hostile-aggressive:** Bully other people by bombarding them with cutting remarks, or throwing a tantrum when things do not go their way.
- b. **Complainers:** Gripe constantly but never take action about what they complain about, usually because they feel powerless or they do not want to take responsibility.
- c. **Clams:** Are silent and unresponsive when asked for opinions. They react to conflict by closing up and refusing to discuss problems.
- d. **Super agreeables:** Are often charming individuals who are sincere and helpful to your face, but they fail to do what they promise when you leave.
- e. **Negativists:** Respond to any attempts to solve a problem with pessimism.
- f. **Know-it-alls:** Display superior attitudes, wanting you to know that they know everything there is to know about everything. If they really know what they are talking about, they are bulldozers. Phoney experts are known as balloons. Balloons only think they know everything. To deal with them, state your position, as your own perception of the situation.

Individual-Group Conflict

In organisations, there are two important situations where individuals find themselves in conflict with groups. The first situation is one in which an individual is violating group norms. The reason for this conflict is that groups have a greater ability to block an individual's goal achievement than the other way around. Only in unusual cases will an individual be able to mobilize the resources to block the group's movement toward its goals.

The second case of individual-group conflict is one in which subordinates of one boss collectively disagree with a course of action the boss wants to take. A conflict exists here because the subordinates are blocking the goal achievement plans of the boss. Although the boss can exercise formal authority to suppress this type of conflict, this is generally an unwise course, since subordinates often find a way to retaliate.

Intergroup Conflict

This involves conflict between groups of people, irrespective of the size of the group. Included in this category, therefore, is interdepartmental conflict within organisations. Intergroup conflict exists between or among groups. Such conflicts can be traced to competing goals, competition for limited resources, cultural differences, power discrepancies and attempts to preserve the groups' separate identities.

Organisational Level Conflict

Conflict can also exist between organisations. The amount of conflict may depend on the extent the organisations create uncertain conditions for competitors, suppliers, or customers; attempt to access or control the same resources; encourage communication; attempt to balance power in the marketplace; and develop procedures for resolving existing conflict. Recent attempts to manage such conflict and ensure that it has a positive impact on organisational performance have emphasized the formation of strategic alliances and partnerships.

Functional Conflict

Some conflicts support the goals of the group and improve its performance; these are functional, constructive disagreements between two or more people. Functional conflict can produce new ideas, learning and growth among individuals; when they engage in constructive conflict, they develop a better awareness of themselves and others.

Dysfunctional Conflict

There are conflicts that hinder group performance, and are therefore known as dysfunctional or destructive forms of conflict. Dysfunctional conflict is an unhealthy, destructive disagreement between two or more people. A key for recognizing a dysfunctional conflict is that its origin is often emotional or behavioural.

Disagreements that involve personalized anger and resentment directed at specific individuals rather than specific ideas are dysfunctional. In dysfunctional conflict, the losses to both parties may exceed any potential gain from the conflict.

The demarcation between functional and dysfunctional conflict is neither clear nor precise. The criterion that differentiates functional and dysfunctional conflict is group performance. Since groups exist to attain a goal or goals, it is the impact the conflict has on the group, rather than on any individual member, that determines functionality. The manager must look at the issue, the context, and the parties involved. The

following questions can be used to diagnose the nature of the conflict a manager faces:

1. Are the parties approaching the conflict from a hostile standpoint?
2. Is the outcome likely to be a negative one for the organisation?
3. Do the potential losses of the parties exceed any potential gains?
4. Is energy being diverted from goal accomplishment?

If the majority of the answers to these questions are 'yes', then the conflict is probably dysfunctional. Once the manager has diagnosed the type of conflict, he or she can either work to resolve it (if it is dysfunctional) or to stimulate it (if it is functional).

14.6. Conflict Process

Diagnosing the nature of conflict is aided by considering it as a sequence of conflict episodes. Regardless of the level of conflict, each conflict episode proceeds through one or more of five possible stages.

1. **Latent Conflict:** The first step in the conflict process is the presence of conditions that create opportunities for conflict to arise. Individuals or groups may have power differences, compete for scarce resources, strive for autonomy, have different goals, or experience diverse role pressures. These differences are the genesis of disagreement and ultimately conflict.
2. **Perceived Conflict:** If the conditions cited in stage 1 negatively affect something that one party cares about, then the potential for opposition or incompatibility becomes actualized in the second stage. This stage is important because:
 - a. It is where conflict issues tend to be defined.
 - b. Emotions play a major role in shaping perceptions. In this stage,
 - c. Differences of opinion are voiced.
 - d. Incompatible goals or values become apparent.
 - e. Individuals demean others or try to enact opposing actions.
3. **Felt Conflict:** When one or more parties feel tense or anxious as a result of such disagreements or misunderstandings, conflict has moved beyond 'perceived' to 'felt' conflict. Here, the conflict becomes personalized to the individuals or groups involved: intentions

intervene between people's perceptions and emotions and their overt behaviour. These intentions are decisions to act in a given way.

4. **Manifest Conflict:** Observable behaviour designed to frustrate another's attempts to pursue his or her goals is manifest conflict, the most overt form of conflict. Both open aggression and withdrawal of support illustrate manifest conflict. At this stage, conflict must be used constructively resolved if effective organisational performance is to occur.

When most people think of conflict situations, they tend to focus on "manifest conflict" because this is where conflicts become visible. These conflict behaviours are usually overt attempts to implement each party's personal agenda.

5. **Conflict Aftermath:** The conflict episode ends with its aftermath, after the conflict has been managed and the resulting energy heightened, resolved or suppressed. If the conflict is resolved, the parties may experience a new reality as they adjust their perceptions. Unresolved conflict, which exists everywhere, simply sows the seeds for manifest conflict later. The process continues and is a normal part of organisational life.

14.7. Changing View of Conflict

If we look back over the happenings of the last century, it becomes obvious that assumptions about whether conflict is good or bad for organisations have changed substantially. The traditional view is that conflict must be avoided because it indicates a malfunctioning within the group. The Human Relations view is that conflict is a natural and inevitable outcome in any group. The third view is that conflict is absolutely necessary for groups to perform effectively. These three views are explained below:

1. **Traditional View:** This view of conflict, which was popular until the early 1940s, assumed that conflict was bad for organisations. In the view of the traditionalists, organisational conflict was proof that there was something "wrong" with the organisation. The view that all conflict is bad certainly offers a simple approach to looking at the behaviour of people who create conflict. Since all conflict is to be avoided, we need merely direct our attention to the causes of conflict and correct such malfunctions in order to improve group and organisational performance.

Because conflict was viewed as bad, considerable attention was given to reducing, eliminating or even suppressing it. While these

tactics sometimes worked, they were largely ineffective because they did not get at the exact cause of the conflict, and

- a. Suppressing the conflict did not allow any of the positive aspects of conflict emerge.

The traditional view of conflict appears to be losing ground as time passes, despite the fact that many people still subscribe to that viewpoint.

2. **Human Relations View:** According to this view, organisational conflict is neither good nor bad per se, but is inevitable. Thus, conflict will occur even if organisations have taken great pains to prevent it. Thus, organisations will experience conflict even if they have well defined job descriptions, and their managers are reasonable people who treat employees well. Since conflict was inevitable, the human relations school advocated acceptance of conflict. In other words, they rationalize its existence.

3. **Interactionist View:** This approach encourages conflict on the ground that a harmonious, peaceful and co-operative group is prone to becoming static, and non-responsive to needs for change and innovation.

According to the Interactionist view of conflict, when the amount of conflict (low to high) is related to organisational performance (low to high), we see that there is an optimum level of conflict which maximizes organisational performance. This optimum level is neither low nor high. At moderate levels of conflict, employees are motivated to resolve conflicts, but these do not disrupt the normal work activities.

14.8. Conflict Management Strategies

Managers have at their disposal a variety of conflict management styles: avoiding, accommodating, competing, compromising and collaborating. The way they handle conflict depends on the degree to which they seek to satisfy their own concerns (assertiveness) and the degree to which they try to satisfy the other person's concerns (co-operativeness).

1. **Avoiding:** Managing a conflict with an avoiding strategy involves just what the term sounds like: not seeking to meet your own objectives or the objectives of the other person. Avoiding is a style low on both assertiveness and co-operativeness. Avoiding is a deliberate decision to take no action on a conflict or to stay out of a conflict situation.

2. **Accommodating:** In an accommodating strategy, one person attempts to satisfy another person's objectives. Appropriate situations for accommodating include those when you find you are wrong, when you want to let the other party have his or her way. Accommodating is cooperative but unassertive.
3. **Competing:** A competing strategy involves attempting to win, with the presumption that others will lose. Under this strategy, you want to satisfy your own interests and are willing to do so at the other party's expense. Competing is a style that is very assertive and uncooperative.
4. **Compromising:** In a compromising strategy, the parties reach a mutually acceptable solution in which each person gets only part of what he or she wanted. Often, this means the parties decide to "split the difference". The compromising style is intermediate in both assertiveness and co-operativeness, because each party must give up something to reach a solution to the conflict.
5. **Collaborating:** This strategy seeks to make everyone a winner. Working towards collaborating involves an open and thorough discussion of the conflict and arriving at a solution that is satisfactory to both parties. Collaborating is a win-win style that is high on both assertiveness and cooperativeness.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- Conflict management refers to the long-term management of intractable conflicts. A conflict can be internal or external.
- Conflict is inevitable and often good. Getting the most out of diversity means often- contradictory values, perspectives and opinions. Conflict helps to raise and address problems, energizes work to be on the most appropriate issues, helps people "be real learn how to recognize and benefit from their differences."
- Conflict is a problem when it hampers productivity, lowers morale, causes more and continued conflicts or results in inappropriate behaviors. There are many reasons for conflicts.
- Similarly, there are many reasons to settle a conflict. One must try to make only the positive use of a conflict and not vice versa.

Check Your Progress

1. Which of the following methods is/are used to solve intergroup conflicts indirectly
 - a. Avoidance
 - b. Encouragement
 - c. Bargaining
 - d. All of these
2. Which of the following is / are not direct method to solve intergroup conflicts
 - a. Problem solving
 - b. Domination by the management
 - c. Removing key figures in conflict
 - d. Persuasion
3. Behaviour, power, and conflict are central areas of study for _____
 - a. sociologist
 - b. Anthropologists
 - c. Social psychologists
 - d. Operations analysts
4. In which stage of the conflict process does conflict become visible?
 - a. Illumination
 - b. Intentions
 - c. Behaviour
 - d. Cognition
5. Which of the following is/are not organizational factors causing stress
 - a. Task demand
 - b. Role demand
 - c. Role conflict
 - d. Satisfaction

Glossary

<i>Assertive:</i>	An assertive style of behavior is to interact with people while standing up for your rights.
<i>Biofeedback:</i>	Biofeedback is a process that involves measuring a person's specific and quantifiable bodily functions such as blood pressure, heart rate, skin temperature, and muscle tension, conveying the information to the patient in real-time.
<i>Compromise:</i>	A concept of finding agreement through communication, through a mutual acceptance of terms.
<i>Conflict:</i>	Actual or perceived opposition of needs, values and interests.
<i>Distress:</i>	A kind of suffering that occurs when an individual cannot adapt to stress.
<i>Negotiation:</i>	Negotiation is a dialogue intended to resolve disputes, to produce an agreement upon courses of action, to bargain for individual or collective advantage, or to craft outcomes to satisfy various interests.
<i>Stressor:</i>	An agent, condition, or other stimulus that causes stress.
<i>Transcendental Meditation:</i>	The Transcendental Meditation or TM technique is a form of mantra meditation used worldwide as a stress management technique.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. a. Avoidance
2. d. Persuasion
3. a. Sociologist
4. c. Behaviour
5. c. Role conflict

Suggested Readings

1. Forsyth, D. R. (2018). *Group dynamics*. Cengage Learning.
2. Kondalkar, V. G. (2020). *Organizational behaviour*. New Age.
3. Elsmore, P. (2017). *Organisational Culture: Organisational Change?: Organisational Change?*. Routledge.

Block-5: Introduction

Block-5: Organisational Culture and Change has been divided in to two Units.

Unit-15: Organisational Culture deals with Introduction, Types of Organisational Culture, Creating and Sustaining Culture, Changing Organisational Culture and the Cross Cultural Management in MNCs.

Unit-16: Organisational Change explains about Introduction, Forces for Change in Organisations, Forms of Change, Resistance to Change, Sources of Resistance and the Overcoming Resistance to Change.

In all the units of Block -5 **Organisational Culture and Change**, the Check your progress, Glossary, Answers to Check your progress and Suggested Reading has been provided and the Learners are expected to attempt all the Check your progress as part of study.

Unit - 15

Organisational Culture

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

15.1. Introduction

15.2. Types of Organisational Culture

15.3. Creating and Sustaining Culture

15.4. Changing Organisational Culture

15.5. Cross Cultural Management in MNCs

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will be learning the various types of Organisational Culture, the ways of Creating and Sustaining Culture, the dynamics of Organisational Culture and Cross Cultural Management in MNCs.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define the term organisational culture
- Discuss the types of organisational culture
- Explain the concept of creating and sustaining culture
- Describe the dimensions of organisational culture
- Focus on changing organisational culture

15.1. Introduction

Organisational culture is an idea in the field of organisational studies and management which describes the psychology, attitudes, experiences, beliefs and values, both personal and cultural, of an organisation. It can also be defined as the specific collection of values and norms that are shared by people and groups in an organisation and that control the way they interact with each other and with stakeholders outside the organisation.

The culture of an organisation can be further expanded as beliefs and ideas about what kinds of goals and objectives, the members of an organisation should pursue. It also covers the ideas about the appropriate kinds or standards of behavior organisational members should use to achieve these goals as objectives as determined earlier. These values in turn help determine the organisational norms, guidelines or expectations that prescribe appropriate kinds of behavior by employees in particular situations and control the behavior of organisational members towards one another.

Since we know that the culture is comprised of the assumptions, values, norms and tangible signs (artifacts) of organisation members and their behaviors. Members of an organisation soon come to sense the particular culture of that organisation. For example, the culture of a large, for-profit corporation is quite different than that of a hospital which is quite different that of a university. From the wider concept of organisational culture, emerges the narrower, yet equally important concept of corporate culture. As compared to the organisational culture, corporate culture can be said to be something that an organisation 'is' rather than what it 'has'.

Corporate culture can be looked at as a system in which the inputs include feedback from, e.g., society, professions, laws, stories, heroes, values on competition or service, etc. The process is based on our assumptions, values and norms, e.g., our values on money, time, space and people. Outputs or effects of our culture are, e.g., organisational behaviors, technologies, strategies, image, products, services, appearance, etc.

15.2. Types of Organisational Culture

There are different types of organisational culture in the corporate world. This depends on the way of working, strategy formulated by an organisation, and also its core values. Very widely known are two categories namely – strong and weak. But here, we pertain to different classification. While different theorists and different companies even might have differing opinions on the types of organisational cultures out there, there is a general consensus on four different types of organisational culture.

Most companies or corporations in their style or plan can fall into one of these four general types, viz.

1. Clan Culture
2. Hierarchy Culture

3. Adhocracy Culture
4. Market Culture

Let us understand each of them one by one.

1. **Clan Culture:** This type of culture is visible in those organisations which are very friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family.
2. **Hierarchy Culture:** This type of culture is visible in those organisations which are much formalized structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do.
3. **Adhocracy Culture:** This type of culture is visible in those organisations which are dynamic entrepreneurial and creative places to work. People stick their necks out and take risks.
4. **Market Culture:** This type of culture is visible in those organisations which are results oriented organisations whose major concern is with getting the job done. People are competitive and goal-oriented.

As already said, most companies will fall into one of these categories. Knowing these organisational types will help in analyzing each company and the organisational culture appropriate for each one.

15.3. Creating and Sustaining Culture

How Organisational Culture Begins

An organisation's current customs, traditions and general way of doing things are largely due to what it has done before and the degree of success it has had with those endeavours.

The original source of an organisation's culture usually reflects the vision or mission of the organisation's founders. Because the founders had the original idea, they also may have biases on how to carry out the idea. Their focus might be on aggressiveness or it might be on treating employees as family. The small size of most new organisations helps the founders instil their vision in all organisational members. Organisational cultures can develop in a number of different ways. These steps are explained below:

- a. ***A single person (founder) has an idea for a new enterprise:***
Some organisational cultures may be the direct, or at least, indirect, result of actions taken by the founders. The founders of an organisation traditionally have a major impact on that

organisation's early culture. They have a vision of what the organisation should be.

- b. **Founders' creation of a core group:** The founder brings in one or more other key people and creates a core group that shares a common vision with the founder. Founders only hire and keep employees who think and feel the way they do. These employees who form the core group believe that the idea is a good one, is worth the investment of time, money and energy. Sometimes founders create weak cultures, and if the organisation is to survive, a new top manager must be installed who will sow the seeds for the necessary strong culture.
- c. **Indoctrinate and Socialize:** The founding core group begins to act in concert to create an organisation by raising funds, obtaining patents, incorporating, locating land, building infra structure and so on. The core group indoctrinate and socialize employees to their way of thinking and feeling.
- d. **Build a Common History:** The founders' own behaviour acts as a role model that encourages employees to identify with them and thereby internalize their beliefs, values, and assumptions. At this point, others are brought into the organisation, and a common history begins to be built. When the organisation succeeds, the founder's vision becomes seen as a primary determinant of that success. At this point, the founders' entire personalities become embedded in the culture of the organisation. Most of today's successful organisations follow the vision of their founders.

Sustaining a Culture

Once a culture is in place, there are practices within the organisation that act to maintain it by giving employees a set of similar experiences. Sustaining a culture depends on three forces. These forces are explained below:

1. **Selection:** The goal of the selection process is to identify and hire individuals who could make the organisation successful through their services. Therefore candidates who believe in the values of the organisation have to be selected. Thus, the selection process attempts to ensure a proper match in the hiring of people who have values essentially consistent with those of the organisation or at least a good portion of those values cherished by the organisation. In this way, the selection process sustains an organisation's culture

by selecting those individuals who will fit into the organisation's core values.

2. **Top Management:** Top management have an important role to play in sustaining the organisation's culture. It is the top management who establish norms that filter down through the organisation. It is they through their conduct both implicit and explicit that shows what is desirable. They do this through pay raises, promotions and other rewards.
3. **Socialization:** Socialization is the process that adapts employees to the organisation's culture. Organisation wants to help new employees adapt to its culture. The adaptation is done through the process of "socialization". Socialization is made up of three stages:
 - a. **The Pre-arrival Stage:** This stage encompasses all the learning that occurs before a new member joins the organisation. The socialization process covers both the work to be done and the organisation. The pre-arrival stage is the period of learning in the socialization process that occurs before a new employee joins the organisation. For example, when students join a business school to pursue their MBA degree, they are socialized to have attitudes and behaviours that business firms want. This is so because their success depends on the degree to which the students have correctly anticipated the expectations and desires of those in the business school.
 - b. **Encounter Stage:** In this stage of the socialization process, the new employee sees what the organisation is really like and confronts the possibility that expectations and reality may diverge. If expectations prove to have been more or less accurate, the encounter stage merely provides a reaffirmation of the perceptions gained during the pre-arrival stage. Those employees who fail to learn the essential or pivotal role behaviours risk being labelled as "rebels" and face the risk of expulsion. This further contributes to sustaining the culture.
 - c. **Metamorphosis Stage:** Metamorphosis stage is that stage in the socialization process in which a new employee changes and adjusts to the job, work group and organisation. In this stage, relatively long-lasting changes take place. The employee masters the skills required for performing his or her job, successfully performs his or her new roles, and makes the adjustments to his or her work group's values and norms. The metamorphosis stage completes the socialization process. The

new employee internalizes the norms of the organisation and his work group and understands and accepts the norms of the organisation and his work group. The success of this stage will have a positive impact on the new employee's productivity and his commitment to the organisation.

How Employees Learn Culture?

Culture is transmitted to employees in a number of ways. The most significant are stories, rituals, symbols, and language.

Stories: Organisational "stories" typically contain a narrative of significant events or people including such things as the organisation's founders, rules breaking, reactions to past mistakes, and so forth. Levinson and Rosenthal suggest that stories and myths about an organisation's heroes are powerful tools to reinforce cultural values throughout the organisation and specially in orienting new employees. These stories provide prime examples that people can learn from. Stories and myths are often filtered through a "cultural network" and remind employees as to "why we do things in a certain way". To help employees, learn the culture and organisational stories, anchor the present in the past, provide explanations and legitimacy for current practices, and exemplify what is important to the organisation.

Rituals and Ceremonies: Corporate rituals are repetitive sequences of activities that express and reinforce the values of the organisation, what goals are most important, and which people are important and which ones are superfluous. Ceremonies and rituals reflect such activities that are enacted repeatedly on important occasions. Members of the organisation who have achieved success are recognized and rewarded on such occasions. For example, awards given to employees on "Founders' Day", gold medals given to students on graduation day are reflections of the culture of that institution.

Material/Cultural Symbols: Symbols communicate organisational culture by unspoken messages. When you walk into different businesses, do you get a "feel" for the place—formal, casual, fun, serious, and so forth? These feelings that you get demonstrate the power of material symbols in creating an organisation's personality. Material artifacts created by an organisation also speak of its cultural orientation and make a statement about the company.

These material symbols convey to employees exactly who is important, the degree of equality desired by top management and the kinds of behaviours that are expected and appropriate.

Examples: assigned parking space for senior executives in the company premises, large offices given to senior managers, luxury automobiles given to senior or successful officers of the organisation.

Organisational Heroes: Top Management and prominent leaders of the organisation become the role models and a personification of an organisation's culture. Their behaviour and example become a reflection of the organisation's philosophy and helps to mould the behaviour of organisational members.

Language: Many organisations and units within organisations use language as a way to identify members of a culture. By learning this language, members attest to their acceptance of the culture and their willingness to help to preserve it.

15.4. Changing Organisational Culture

If organisations are to consciously create and manage their cultures, they must be able to take their employees into consideration. There are problems that managers face when they go about the business of changing organisational culture. Changing organisational culture takes patience, vigilance, and a focus on changing the parts of an organisational culture that managers can control:

1. **Behaviours:** One way of changing a corporate culture is to use behavioural addition or behavioural substitution to establish new patterns of behaviour among employees.
 - a. **Behavioural Addition:** Behavioural Addition is the process of having managers and employees perform new behaviours that are central to and symbolic of the new organizational culture that a company wants to create.
 - b. **Behavioural Substitution:** Behavioural substitution is the process of having managers and employees perform new behaviours central to the "new" organisational culture in place of behaviours that used to be central to the "old" organisational culture.
2. **Visible Artifacts:** Another way in which managers can begin to change corporate culture is to change visible artifacts of their old culture. Visible artifacts are visible signs of an organisation's culture, such as office design and layout, company dress codes, and company benefits and perks like stock options, personal parking spaces, etc. These need to change keeping the new corporate culture in mind.

Corporate cultures are very difficult to change. Consequently, there is no guarantee that behaviour-substitution, behavioural addition or changing visible artifacts will change a company's organisational culture. Clearly, an open display of top management commitment and support for the new values and beliefs is critically important to enable employees to change.

15.5. Cross Cultural Management in MNCs

There is increased awareness that well-developed global diversity programmes and policies can provide many benefits in terms of equality management and cross-cultural management. To succeed in the international business environment, MNCs need to manage cultural diversity effectively in order to expand and grow their operations and knowledge bases. The challenge of managing cultural diversity is assessing the degree of cultural fit between parent companies and their subsidiaries in order to minimise the 'cultural gap' Globalization is capturing pace across the borders of different nations, for its contribution in developing global economy and world progress. Because of World Trade Organization (WTO), Indian government has liberalized trade and commerce, and MNC's are looking at India in a big way.

Cross Cultural Management basically covers the behaviour of people from different cultures in a single organization and comparisons of the behaviour of people in an organization located in two or more different culture.

Multinational companies have been seriously considering behavioral resources and leadership competencies in particular, as a source for competitive advantage and sustainable strategic development, while trying to balance global and local perspectives on effective leadership behavior. Universal standards in this area have not been developed yet, and, taking into consideration the contingent nature of strategy and leadership, probably would not be finalized. Over the past couple of years Multinational Companies (MNC) had to face a number of new challenges in their daily business. Globalization changed numerous things for global players. Normally the STRUCTURE of a typical MNC shows a focus on their main resources and departments like finance, technology, marketing, sales and production. This is because they want to have a large number of customers and also want to make a good profit.

But if they neglect these new challenges coming up with the globalization they might not be successful anymore. A big challenge

MNC's have to manage is their workforce diversity. Diversity means any sort of difference between two or more people.

These differences might exist in terms of age, gender, race, education, social status and other terms. To manage this diversity MNC's have to implement strategies that knit all employees together into a dynamic workforce.

Because of this enormous diversity one of the key success factors of MNC's is the recruitment and selection of labor who offer valuable individuality. These individuals are forming the values and beliefs of an organization.

The management of this diversity is a challenge of the human resource management. In this paper I will focus on how MNC's can improve their HRM and make their company staying successful in terms of managing diversity. It is hard to become a major player in the global market without an effective HRM.

There are two major challenges within Cross Cultural Management namely building global corporate cultures and developing global leaders that have to be mastered in order to manage diversity and be successful in the global business environment.

Basically, human races came with different background. "Cultural background". The way of doing things in one culture may not be the way in other culture. What is good in one culture, may be bad in other culture. Sometime the activities are all the same in two different cultures, but two different meanings, two different interpretations.

When person from one cultural background, meet, interact with, understand and deal with person from other cultural background. That is cross-cultural management.

Nowadays cultural diversity plays an important role in a company. The criteria discriminating these groups include race, geographic origin, ethnicity, gender, age, functional or educational background, physical and cognitive capability, language, lifestyles, beliefs, cultural background, economic category, tenure with the organization and sexual preference (Seyman, 2006).

The situation within global enterprises has been changing for many years. According to the cheap labor in eastern world and other factors, there has never been such a need for understanding the different cultures in multinational companies). Cultural empathy, integrity, and comfortability in dealing with people from various cultures, along with

effective performance, highlight the necessity to think and act in relevant cultural terms. This does not mean that today's managers must know in detail the cultural and historical backgrounds of other nations. Rather, it means that global managers need to think and act with an open mind and in socially responsive ways to events at home and abroad (Ali & Camp, 1996)

The company can't offer quality products or services to the customers if it doesn't understand and take in account the impact that the culture has in all the processes (Maddock, Lois Viton, 2008). Workers usually think that their behavior hasn't got any influence on the final product or service, but to be effective, every part must have a clear vision of the company and a clear mission on it.

The social, political and enterprise STRUCTURE depends on everyone in the company, so the internal area and the human resources, one of the most important areas of a company, must be developed with the rest of the company to achieve their goals.

The misunderstanding and ignoring of different cultures, language and historical background lead to disasters in the field of setting up multinational business.

To avoid this, a general knowledge of another nation's culture and history is essential. So general cultural knowledge, if coupled with prejudice and prejudgment, is an obstacle to effective global management.

Multinational companies, of course, vary in the effectiveness of their behavioral practices. Successful multinationals propose internationally recognized competitive elements: various "packages" of motivation programs, broad employee participation in decision-making, encouragement of creativity, environments favorable to employees' continuous education, in- corporate training and self-improvement, and promotion of shared company values.

Multinational companies' experiences in the belief that managers are innovative and dynamic professionals. They clearly articulate values and share them with the majority of employees. They underline their commitment to long-term presence in the country and focus on key issues of social commitment, including charitable and educational activities, mutual respect, and trust, encouragement of innovation and entrepreneurship, and equal rights and opportunities for organizational members.

To manage workforce diversity in MNC's it's a challenge for the human resource management to establish a global corporate culture. To identify with the corporate culture of the company is the most important thing for the staff. That is why building a global corporate culture is one of the most important challenges for Multinational Companies.

But also the management in MNC's has been changing. There is a need for global leaders. The formation of such global leaders is also a part of the human resource management.

To be able to work efficiently in the global market and industry it is very important to build a corporate business culture. A corporate culture can be explained by convening several different cultures represented by numerous different workers, working in a Multinational enterprise (Mendenhall et al., 2003). As the word Multinational enterprise already expresses that the company is acting global, it is common that numerous different people with different cultures are working for this company (Stern, 2008).

Furthermore, every culture has its own methods, values, beliefs, habits, language and so on. Organizations acting global can never work without interference of the leader board to create a global corporate culture. That is why a multinational company has to offer corporate values, beliefs, methods, habits and working processes all set in the global corporate culture.

Of course, it is necessary to respect local cultures because if an organization does not respect the local cultures, workers will not be satisfied and can never identify with the company they are working for. Changes have taken place not only in quality of life (better living standards than in past) but also in the social architect of society (conventional to modern). Cultural values (for which India is known), have changed due to liberalization and globalization. As a result, a global culture is emerging. The main effect of spread of MNC's in the reason has taken a toll on family STRUCTURE. Indian society was considered a conservative society during pre-liberalization period but changes are clearly visible in post liberalization.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- The presence of a strong and appropriate organisational culture has become essential for an organisation to function effectively and efficiently in the modern era.

- Organisational culture is the consciously or subconsciously accepted and followed way of life or manner of performing day-to-day activities in an organisation.
- It plays an important role in determining and controlling employee behavior at workplace. The core values, assumptions, norms, procedures, etc. that are followed in an organisation constitute its culture. These are more often than not, accepted and followed throughout the organisation, without much deviation.
- However, the presence of individuals from various social cultures and backgrounds in an organisation, may lend a slight variation to the beliefs and ideologies of the organisational members. This difference results in the formation of subcultures within organisations.
- The presence of subcultures may be advantageous to an organisation as the deviations from the norm may throw up alternatives to existing practices, which are often useful to the organisation in adapting to changes in the external environment. Such adaptability is essential for the organisation to survive.
- Nevertheless, if the differences in ideologies go beyond a desirable level, they may have a negative effect on the organisation and undermine it.
- The strength of an organisational culture depends on the sharedness and intensity of the core values of the organisation. A strong culture tends to enhance employee commitment and loyalty towards the organisation. Organisational cultures have been classified into four major types - market culture, adhocracy, clan culture and hierarchical culture.
- Many analysts have given different analysis of organisation culture and the issues to be dealt with.

Check Your Progress

1. The subject of organizational culture has been most influenced by which behavioural science discipline?
 - a. Anthropology
 - b. Psychology
 - c. social psychology
 - d. political science

2. _____ is a set of values that states what an organisation stands for
 - a. Organization behavior
 - b. Organizational culture
 - c. Organizational spirit
 - d. Organizational effectiveness

3. A technique to bring changes in the entire organization, rather than focusing attention on individuals to bring changes easily.
 - a. Organizational development
 - b. Organizational change
 - c. Organizational culture
 - d. Organizational conflicts

4. There are number of factors that decide or define the culture of an organization including:
 - a. Structure and size, leadership
 - b. Environment, events, nature of business and nature of client.
 - c. Both A&B
 - d. None

5. Organizational Culture _____
 - a. It refers to a set of beliefs, values and attitudes shared by everyone in the organization.
 - b. It refers to the way in which organizations are managed.
 - c. Both A&B
 - d. None

Glossary

- Adhocracy Culture:** This type of culture is visible in those organisations which are dynamic entrepreneurial and creative places to work. People stick their necks out and take risks.
- Clan Culture:** This type of culture is visible in those organisations which are very friendly place to work where people share a lot of

themselves. It is like an extended family.

Encounter Stage:

In this stage of the socialization process, the new employee sees what the organisation is really like and confronts the possibility that expectations and reality may diverge.

Hierarchy Culture:

This type of culture is visible in those organisations which are much formalized structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do.

Market Culture:

This type of culture is visible in those organisations which are results oriented organisations whose major concern is with getting the job done. People are competitive and goal-oriented.

Metamorphosis Stage:

Metamorphosis stage is that stage in the socialization process in which a new employee changes and adjusts to the job, work group and organisation.

Organisational Culture:

Organisational culture is an idea in the field of organisational studies and management which describes the psychology, attitudes, experiences, beliefs and values, both personal and cultural, of an organisation.

The Pre-arrival Stage:

This stage encompasses all the learning that occurs before a new member joins the organisation.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. a. Anthropology
2. b. Organizational culture
3. a. Organizational development
4. c. Both A&B
5. a. It refers to a set of beliefs, values and attitudes shared by everyone in the organization.

Suggested Readings

1. Forsyth, D. R. (2018). *Group dynamics*. Cengage Learning.
2. Kondalkar, V. G. (2020). *Organizational behaviour*. New Age.
3. Elsmore, P. (2017). *Organisational Culture: Organisational Change?: Organisational Change?*. Routledge.

Unit - 16

Organisational Change

STRUCTURE

Overview

Objectives

16.1. Introduction

16.2. Forces for Change in Organisations

16.3. Forms of Change

16.4. Resistance to Change

16.4.1. Sources of Resistance

16.5. Overcoming Resistance to Change

Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress

Glossary

Answers to Check Your Progress

Suggested Readings

Overview

In this unit we will learn the various forces that bring about Change in Organisations, the forms of Change, the resistance to and sources of Change and the ways of overcoming Resistance to Change in any organisations.

Objectives

After Completion of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define the term change
- Discuss forces for change in organisations
- State the relevance of various forms of change in an organisation
- Explain the concept of resistance to change
- Know, how to overcome resistance to change

16.1. Introduction

There is nothing permanent except change. It has become an inescapable fact of life; a fundamental aspect of historical evolution. Change is inevitable in a progressive culture. Change in fact, is accelerating in our society. Revolutions are taking place in political,

scientific, technological and institutional areas. Organisations cannot completely insulate themselves from this environmental instability. Change is induced by the internal and external forces.

Meeting this challenge of change is the primary responsibility of management. An organisation lacking adaptability to change has no future. Adaptability to change is a necessary quality of good management.

Modern managers have the responsibility to devise management practices that best meet the new challenges and make use of the opportunities for the growth of the organisation.

The topic of managing change is one that comes closest to describing the totality of a manager's job. Practically everything a manager does is in some way concerned with implementing change.

1. Hiring a new employee-Changing the work group
2. Purchasing a new piece of-Changing work methods equipment
3. Rearranging work station-Changing work flows

All require knowledge of how to manage change effectively. Flexibility requires that organisations be open to change in all areas, including the STRUCTURE of the organisation itself.

In a flexible organisation, employees can't think of their roles in terms of a job description. They often have to change the tasks they perform and learn new skills. The most flexible organisations have a culture that (a) values change, and (b) managers who know how to implement changes effectively.

16.2. Forces for Change in Organisations

More and more organisations today face a dynamic and changing environment that, in turn requires these organisations to adapt. Change has become the norm in most organisations. Plant closing, business failures, mergers and acquisitions, and downsizing have become common experiences for most organisations.

Adaptiveness, flexibility and responsiveness are terms used to describe organisations that will succeed in meeting the competitive challenges that businesses face. In the past, organisations could succeed by claiming excellence in one area quality, reliability or cost. But this is not the case today. The current environment demands excellence in all areas.

Table below summarizes six specific forces that are acting as stimulants for change.

Table Forces for Change

Force	Example
Nature of the work force	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More cultural diversity • Increase in professionals • Many new entrants with inadequate skills
Technology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More computers and automation
Economic shocks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • TQM programs • Re-engineering programs • Security market crashes
Competition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interest rate fluctuations • Foreign currency fluctuations • Global competitors
Social trends	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mergers and consolidations • Growth of specialty retailers • Increase in college attendance
World Politics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Delayed marriages by young people • Increase in divorce rate • Collapse of Soviet Union • Iraq's invasion of Kuwait • Overthrow of Haitian dictator

Source: Stephen P Robbins, “*Organisational Behaviour – Concepts, Controversies, Applications*” (7th Edition) Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ (1996) page 717.

Why is organisational change so important?

From outside and inside the organisation, a variety of forces press for change. “We live in the midst of constant change” has become a well-worn but relevant cliché. Pressures for change are created both inside and outside the organisation. Organisations must forge ahead on these forces to survive. Some of these are external, arising from outside the company, whereas others are internal arising from sources within the organisation.

1. **External Forces:** When the organisation's general or task environment changes, the organisation's success often rides on its ability and willingness to change as well. The modern manager is change-conscious and operating in the constantly changing environment. Many external changes bombard the modern organisations and make change inevitable. The general environment has social, economic, legal, political and technological dimensions. Any of these can introduce the need for change. In recent years, far-reaching forces for change have included developments in information technology, the globalization of competition, and demands that organisations take greater responsibility for their impact on the environment. These forces are discussed below:

a. **Technological Change:** Rapid technological innovation is a major force for change in organisations, and those who fail to keep pace can quickly fall behind. It is perhaps the greatest factor that organisations reckon with. According to C. Handy, "the rate of technological changes is greater today than any time in the past and technological changes are responsible for changing the nature of jobs performed at all levels in the organisation". For example, the substitution of computer control for direct supervision is resulting in wider spans of control for managers and flatter organisations.

Technological innovations bring about profound change because they are not just changes in the way work is performed. Instead, the innovation process promotes associated changes in work relationships and organisational STRUCTURES. Sophisticated information technology is also making organisations more responsive. The team approach adopted by many organisations leads to flatter STRUCTURES, decentralized decision making and more open communication between leaders and team members.

b. **Globalization:** The global economy means competitors are likely to come from across the ocean. The power players in the global market are the multinational and trans-national organisations. This has led companies to think globally. There are no longer any mental distinctions between domestic and foreign operations. Globalization of an organisation means rethinking the most efficient ways to use resources, disseminate and gather information and develop people. It requires not only structural changes but also changes in the minds of employees.

Successful organisations will be the ones that can change in response to the competition. They will be fast on their feet, capable of developing new products rapidly and getting them to market quickly.

- c. **Social and Political Changes:** A firm's fate is also influenced by such environmental pressures as social and political changes. Many new legal provisions in the corporate sector get introduced every time that affects organisations.
 - d. **Workforce Diversity:** Related to globalization is the challenge of workforce diversity. Workforce diversity is a powerful force for change in organisations. The demographic trends contributing to workforce diversity are
 - (i) The workforce will see increased participation from females, as the majority of new workers will be female.
 - (ii) The workforce will be more culturally diverse than ever (part of this is attributable to globalization).
 - (iii) The workforce is aging. There will be fewer young workers and more middle-aged workers.
 - e. **Managing Ethical Behaviour:** Employees face ethical dilemmas in their daily work lives. The need to manage ethical behaviour has brought about several changes in organisations. Most centre on the idea that an organisation must create a culture that encourages ethical behaviour. Society expects organisations to maintain ethical behaviour both internally and in relationship with other organisations. Ethical behaviour is expected in relationships with customers, environment and society. These expectations may be informal or they may come in the form of increased legal requirements. These challenges are forces that place pressures to change on organisations. Organisations cannot afford to be rigid and inflexible in the wake of environmental pressures, rather they must be dynamic and viable so that they survive.
2. **Internal Forces:** Besides reacting to or anticipating changes on the outside, an organisation may change because someone on the inside thinks a new way of doing things will be beneficial or even necessary. Pressures for change that originate inside the organisation are generally recognizable in the form of signals indicating that something needs to be altered. These internal forces are discussed below:

- a. **Changes in Managerial Personnel:** One of the most frequent reasons for major changes in an organisation is the change of executives at the top. No two managers have the same styles, skills or managerial philosophies. Managerial behaviour is always selective so that a newly appointed manager might favour different organisational design, objectives procedures and policies than a predecessor. Changes in the managerial personnel are thus a constant pressure for change.
- b. **Declining Effectiveness:** Declining effectiveness is a pressure to change. A company that experiences losses is undoubtedly motivated to do something about it. Some companies react by instituting layoffs and massive cost cutting programmes, whereas others view the loss as symptomatic of an underlying problem, and seek out the cause of the problem.
- c. **Changes in work climate:** Changes in the work climate at an organisation can also stimulate change. A workforce that seems lethargic, unmotivated, and dissatisfied is a symptom that must be addressed. This symptom is common in organisations that have experienced layoffs. Workers who have escaped a layoff may find it hard to continue to be productive. They may fear that they will be laid off as well and may feel insecure in their jobs.
- d. **Deficiencies in the Existing System:** Another internal pressure for organisational change is the loopholes in the system. These loopholes may be unmanageable spans of control, lack of coordination between departments, lack of uniformity in politics, non-cooperation between line and staff etc.
- e. **Crisis:** A crisis also may stimulate change in an organisation; strikes or walkouts may lead management to change the wage STRUCTURE. The resignation of a key decision maker is one crisis that causes the company to rethink the composition of its management team and its role in the organisation.
- f. **Employee Expectations:** Changes in employee expectations also can trigger change in organisations. These forces may be:
 - (i) Employees' desire to share in decision-making.
 - (ii) Employees' demand for effective organisational mechanism.
 - (iii) Higher employee expectation for satisfying jobs and work environment.
 - (iv) Employees' desire for higher wages.

All these forces necessitate change in organisations. Besides these forces, a company that hires a group of young newcomers may be met with a set of expectations very different from those expressed by older workers.

Although organisational changes are important, managers should try to institute changes only when they make strategic sense. A major change or two every year can be overwhelming to employees and create confusion about priorities. A logical conclusion is that managers should evaluate internal forces for change with as much care as they evaluate external forces.

16.3. Forms of Change

Change has become the norm in most organisations. Adaptiveness, flexibility and responsiveness are terms used to describe the organisations that will succeed in two basic forms of change in organisations that will succeed in meeting the competitive challenges that businesses face. There are two basic forms of change in organisations: Planned change and unplanned change.

- a. **Planned Change:** Planned change is change resulting from a deliberate decision to alter the organisation. It is an intentional, goal-oriented activity. The goals of planned change are:

First, it seeks to improve the ability of the organisation to adapt to changes in its environment.

Second, it seeks to change the behaviour of its employees.

- b. **Unplanned Change:** Not all change is planned. Unplanned change is imposed on the organisation and is often unforeseen. Responsiveness to unplanned change requires tremendous flexibility and adaptability on the part of organisations. Examples of unplanned changes are changes in government regulations and changes in the economy.

The Role of Change Agents

Change in organisations is inevitable, but change is a process that can be managed. The individual or group that undertakes the task of introducing and managing a change in an organisation is known as a change agent. Change agents can be of two types:

1. **Internal Change Agents:** Change agents can be internal, such as managers or employees who are appointed to oversee the change process. Internal change agents have certain advantages in managing the change process. They are:

- (i) They know the organisation's past history, its political system, and its culture.
- (ii) Internal change agents are likely to be very careful about managing change because they must live with the results of their change efforts.

There are also disadvantages of using internal change agents:

- (i) They may be associated with certain factions within the organisation and may easily be accused of favouritism.
- (ii) Internal change agents may be too close to the situation to have an objective view of what needs to be done.

2. **External Change Agents:** Change agents can also be external, such as outside consultants. They bring an outsider's objective view to the organisation.

External change agents have certain advantages:

- (i) They may be preferred by employees because of their impartiality.
- (ii) They have more power in directing changes if employees perceive the change agents as being trustworthy, possessing important expertise, and having a track record that establishes credibility.

There are also disadvantages of using external change agents:

- (i) External change agents face certain problems, including their limited knowledge of the organisation's history.
- (ii) They may be viewed with suspicion by organisation members.

16.4. Resistance to Change

As the manager contemplates and initiates change in the organisation, one phenomenon that is quite likely to emerge anytime in the change process is the resistance to change. People often resist change in a rational response based on self-interest. Resistance to change doesn't necessarily surface in standardized ways. Resistance can be overt, implicit, immediate, or deferred. It is easiest for management to deal with resistance when it is overt and immediate. The greater challenge is managing resistance that is implicit or deferred.

16.4.1. Sources of Resistance

The sources of resistance to change can be categorized into two

sources: individual and organisational.

1. **Individual Resistance:** One aspect of mankind that has remained more or less constant is his innate resistance to change. Individuals resist change because they attach great preference to maintaining the status quo. Individual sources of resistance to change reside in basic human characteristics such as perceptions, personalities and needs. The following are the reasons:

- a. **Economic Reasons:** The economic reasons to fear change usually focus on one or more of the following:
 - (i) Fear of technological unemployment.
 - (ii) Fear of reduced work hours and consequently less pay.
 - (iii) Fear of demotion and thus reduced wages.
 - (iv) Fear of speed-up and reduced incentive wages.

Changes in job tasks or established work routines can also arouse economic fears if people are concerned they won't be able to perform the new tasks or routines to their previous standards, especially when pay is closely tied to productivity.

- b. **Fear of the unknown:** Change often bring with it substantial uncertainty. Employees facing a technological change, such as the introduction of a new computer system, may resist the change simply because it introduces ambiguity into what was once a comfortable situation for them. This is especially a problem when there has been a lack of communication about the change.
- c. **Fear of Loss:** When a change is impending, some employees may fear losing their jobs, particularly when an advanced technology is introduced. Employees may also fear losing their status because of a change. Another common fear is that changes may diminish the positive qualities the individual enjoys in the job. For example, computerizing the customer service positions, threaten the autonomy that sales representatives previously enjoyed.
- d. **Security:** People with a high need for security are likely to resist change because it threatens their feeling of safety.
- e. **Status quo:** Perhaps the biggest and most sound reason for the resistance to change is the status quo. As human beings, we are creatures of habit. Change may pose disturbance to the existing

comforts of status quo. When confronted with change, this tendency to respond in our accustomed ways becomes a source of resistance. Change means they will have to find new ways of managing them and their environment the ways that might not be successful as those currently used.

- f. *Peer Pressure*: Individual employees may be prepared to accept change but refuse to accept it for the sake of the group. Whenever change is unwilling to the peers, they force the individuals who want to accept change to resist change.
 - g. *Disruption of Interpersonal Relationships*: Employees may resist change that threatens to limit meaningful interpersonal relationships on the job.
 - h. *Social Displacement*: Introduction of change often results in disturbance of the existing social relationships. Change may also result in breaking up of work groups. Thus when social relationships develop, people try to maintain them and fight social displacement by resisting change.
2. **Organisational Resistance**: Organisations, by their very nature are conservative. They actively resist change. Some of the organisational resistances are explained below:
- a. *Resource Constraints*: Resources are major constraints for many organisations. The necessary financial, material and human resources may not be available to the organisation to make the needed changes. Further, those groups in organisation that control sizable resources often see change as a threat. They tend to be content with the way things are.
 - b. *Structural Inertia*: Some organisational STRUCTUREs have in-built mechanism for resistance to change. For example, in a bureaucratic STRUCTURE where jobs are narrowly defined and lines of authority are clearly spelled out, change would be difficult. This is so because formalization provides job descriptions, rules, and procedures for employees to follow. The people who are hired into an organisation are chosen for fit; they are then shaped and directed to behave in certain ways. When an organisation is confronted with change, this structural inertia acts as a counterbalance to sustain stability.
 - c. *Sunk Costs*: Some organisations invest a huge amount of capital in fixed assets. If an organisation wishes to introduce change,

then difficulty arises because of these sunk costs.

- d. *Politics*: Organisational change may also shift the existing balance of power in an organisation. Individuals or groups who hold power under the current arrangement may be threatened with losing these political advantages in the advent of change.
- e. *Threat to established power relationships*: Any redistribution of decision-making authority can threaten long established power relationships within the organisation. Managers may therefore resist change that introduces participative decision making because they feel threatened.
- f. *Threat to expertise*: Change in organisational pattern may threaten the expertise of specialized groups. Therefore, specialists usually resist change.
- g. *Group Inertia*: Even if individuals want to change their behaviour, group norms may act as a constraint. For example, if union norms dictate resistance to any unilateral change made by management, an individual member of the union who may otherwise be willing to accept the changes may resist it.

16.5. Overcoming Resistance to Change

Although resistance to change is a common phenomenon in organisations, it must be noted that not all changes are resisted. In fact, if we look at any organisation closely we would probably find that far more changes are accepted than resisted. The traditional view of resistance to change treated it as something to be overcome, and many organisational attempts to reduce the resistance have only served to intensify it. One key to managing resistance is to plan for it and to be ready with a variety of strategies for using the resistance as feedback and helping employees negotiate the transition.

Some tactics have been suggested for use in dealing with resistance to change.

1. ***Education and Communication***: Communication about impending change is essential if employees are to adjust effectively. The details of the change should be provided, but equally important is the rationale behind the change. Employees want to know why change is needed. If there is no good reason for it, why should they favour the change? Providing accurate and timely information about the change can help prevent unfounded fears and potentially damaging rumours from

developing. It is also beneficial to inform people about the potential consequences of the change. Educating employees on new work procedures is often helpful.

2. **Participation:** It is difficult for individuals to resist a change decision in which they participated. Prior to making a change, those opposed can be brought into the decision process. When employees are allowed to participate, they are more committed to the change.
3. **Empathy and Support:** Another strategy for managing resistance is providing empathy and support to employees who have trouble dealing with the change. Active listening is an excellent tool for identifying the reasons behind resistance and for uncovering fears. An expression of concerns about the change can provide important feedback that managers can use to improve the change process.
4. **Negotiation:** Another way to deal with potential resistance to change is to exchange something of value for a lessening of the resistance. Where some persons in a group clearly lose out in a change, and where groups have considerable power to resist, negotiation and agreements are helpful. It becomes relatively easy to avoid major resistance through negotiation. Negotiation as a tactic may be necessary when resistance comes from a powerful source.
5. **Manipulation and Co-optation:** Manipulation refers to covert influence attempts. Twisting and distorting facts to make them appear more attractive, withholding undesirable information and creating false rumours to get employees to accept a change are all examples of manipulation. It involves giving individuals a desirable role in design or implementation of change.
6. **Coercion:** Coercion is the application of direct threats or force on the resisters. They essentially force people to accept a change by explicitly or implicitly threatening them with the loss of their jobs, promotion possibilities and transferring them. Coercion is mostly applied where speed is essential in implementing change and the change initiator possesses considerable power.

Let Us Sum Up

In this unit, you have learned about the following:

- For organisations to develop, they often must undergo significant

change at various points in their development. Organisational Change occurs when an organisation evolves through various life cycle.

- Significant organisational change occurs, when an organisation changes its overall strategy for success, adds or removes a major section or practice, and/or wants to change the very nature by which it operates.
- Leaders and managers continually make efforts to accomplish successful and significant change. The changes that bring a complete overhaul are most often than not resisted by the others first. It is very important that the staff be made to understand the necessity for the change.
- There are many approaches to guiding change – some planned, Structured and explicit, while others are more organic, unfolding and implicit.
- Different people often have very different – and strong – opinions about how change should be conducted.
- Whatever resistances or objections, if the change is essential and justified, it must be undertaken, as they say- the only constant factor is change.

Check Your Progress

1. A technique to bring changes in the entire organization, rather than focusing attention on individuals to bring changes easily.
 - a. Organizational development
 - b. Organizational change
 - c. Organizational culture
 - d. Organizational conflicts
2. Change management can be defined as 'the continuous process of aligning an organisation with its marketplace and doing it more responsively and effectively than competitors'.
 - a. True
 - b. False
3. External Triggers for organization change include:
 - a. Changes in the economic cycle (for example, an economic downturn)
 - b. New laws or regulations affecting the industry

- c. Stiffer competition from rivals or from new entrants
 - d. All of the above
4. Change can occur at the different levels within an organization such as:
- a. Individuals (involves changing their skills, values, attitudes and behaviours)
 - b. Structures and systems (involve changing the formal and informal organisational structures in place)
 - c. Organisational climate (involves changing the way people relate to each other in an organisation)
 - d. All of the above
5. It is very hard to ignore the impact of change on contemporary businesses. Implementing and managing change is often an integral part of strategy implementation.
- a. True
 - b. False

Glossary

Coercion:	Coercion is the application of direct threats or force on the resisters.
Disengagement:	Psychological withdrawal from change.
Dis-identification:	The absence of identification, the absence of the self-image.
Global Economy:	The global economy means competitors are likely to come from across the ocean.
Globalization:	Globalization of an organisation means rethinking the most efficient ways to use resources, disseminate and gather information and develop people
Manipulation:	Manipulation refers to covert influence attempts.
Organisational Change:	Organisational change refers to a modification or transformation of the organisation's STRUCTURE, processes or goods.
Planned Change:	Planned change is change resulting from a

deliberate decision to alter the organisation.

Power Players:

The power players in the global market are the multinational and trans-national organisations.

Refreezing:

Refreezing is the third of Lewin's change transition stages, where people are taken from a state of being in transition and moved to a stable and productive state.

Unfreezing:

Unfreezing is the first of Lewin's change transition stages, where people are taken from a state of being unready to change to being ready and willing to make the first step.

Unplanned Change:

Unplanned change is imposed on the organisation and is often unforeseen.

Answers to Check Your Progress

1. a. Organizational development
2. a. True
3. d. All of the above
4. d. All of the above
5. a. True

Suggested Readings

1. Forsyth, D. R. (2018). *Group dynamics*. Cengage Learning.
2. Kondalkar, V. G. (2020). *Organizational behaviour*. New Age.
3. Elsmore, P. (2017). *Organisational Culture: Organisational Change?: Organisational Change?*. Routledge.

Model End Semester Examination Question Paper

Bachelor of Commerce (B.Com) / Bachelor of Business
Administration (BBA)

Course Code: **DCBBA-23**/ Course Title: **Organizational Behaviour**

Max. Marks: 70

Time: 3 hours

PART – A (5x2 =10 Marks)

Answer any FIVE questions out of EIGHT questions
[All questions carry equal marks]

- (1). Define organisational behaviour.
- (2). Define individual behaviour.
- (3). Define group behaviour.
- (4). Define organisational culture.
- (5). What is leadership?
- (6). List out few traits of a successful leader.
- (7). Explain 'Resistance to change'
- (8). Define organizational Culture.

PART – B (4X5=20 Marks)

Answer any FOUR questions out of SEVEN questions
[All questions carry equal marks]

- (9). Explain the historical perspective of organisational behaviour and its significance in contemporary workplaces.
- (10). Compare and contrast recent trends in organisational behaviour.
- (11). Explain the relationship between individual behaviour and learning theories.
- (12). Apply different leadership styles to various organizational contexts.
- (13). Explain the properties of effective groups and their impact on organizational performance.
- (14). Explain the process of organisational change and its impact on employees.
- (15). Apply strategies for managing resistance to change in an organisational setting.

PART - C (10 Marks) 4X10= 40 Marks

Answer any FOUR questions out of SEVEN questions

[All questions carry equal marks]

(16). Compare and contrast recent trends in organisational behaviour and their impact on modern businesses.

(17). Develop strategies to address emerging challenges in organisational behaviour.

(18). Analyze how attitudes and values impact employee performance and organisational culture.

(19). Develop a team-building exercise to improve collaboration and cohesion among team members.

(20). Analyze how organisational culture influences the success of change initiatives.














(21). Analyze common sources of conflict in groups and their resolution techniques.

(22). Develop a plan for fostering a positive organisational culture and implementing change effectively within an organization.

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34	Health Sciences
35	Metallurgical and Material Science Engineering, Mining and Ocean Engineering
36	Skills and Logistics (IT - Enabled Sector, Banking, Financial and Insurance sector Skills Logistics, Supply Chain Management and Transportation, Life skills)
Channels 37 to 38 are managed by IIT Tirupati	
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