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ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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(Syllabus)
CORE PAPER : 10   B.B.A. ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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LESSON-1

CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

Organizations are social systems. If one wishes to work in them or to manage them, it is necessary to understand how they operate. Organizations combine science and people – technology and humanity. Unless we have qualified people to design and implement, techniques alone will not produce desirable results. Human behavior in organizations is rather unpredictable. It is unpredictable because it arises from people's deep-seated needs and value systems. However, it can be partially understood in terms of the framework of behavioral science, management and other disciplines. There is no idealistic solution to organizational problems. All that can be done is to increase our understanding and skills so that human relations at work can be enhanced

1.2   CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organizational Behavior is field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behavior within organization. It is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within organizations. It is a human tool for human

benefit. It applies broadly to the behavior of people in all types of organizations, such as business, government, schools and services organizations. It covers three determinants of behavior in organizations: individuals, groups, and structure. OB is an applied field. It applies the knowledge gained about individuals, and the effect of structure on behavior, in order to make organizations work more effectively. OB covers the core topics of motivation, leadership behavior and power, interpersonal communication, group structure and process, learning, attitude development and perception, change process, conflict, job design and work stress.

1.2.1 DEFINITION

Organizational behavior is the study and application of knowledge about how people – as individuals and as groups – act within the organizations. It strives to identify ways in which people can act more effectively. Organizational behavior is a scientific disciple in which a large number of research studies and conceptual developments are constantly adding to its knowledge base. It is also an applied science, in that information about effective practices in the organization are being extend to many others. Aldag and brief have defined OB as follows:

"Organizational behavior is a branch of the social sciences that seeks to build theories that can be applied to predicting, understanding and controlling behavior in work organizations"

Callahan et al defined OB as a subset of management activities when they state that,

"Organization behavior is a subset of management activities concerned with understanding, predicting and influencing individual behviour in organizational setting"

According to both these definitions, the first ingredients of OB are the same, that is, understanding and controlling the human behavior through both treat OB as a field of study in different forms – a branch of the social science or a subset of management activities. We can define OB as follows:

"Organizational behavior is the study and application of knowledge about the human behavior related to other elements of the organization such as structure technology and social systems"

Thus, OB is primarily concerned with that aspect of human behavior which is relevant for organizational performance. It studies human behavior at individual, group level, and organizational level. It applies the knowledge gained about individuals groups and the effect of organization structure on the behavior towards the end of making organizations work more effectively

1.2.2 GOALS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The four primary goal of s of organizational behaviour are typical of any science. The first is to describe, systematically, how people behave under a variety of conditions. Achieving this goals allow managers to communicate about human behavior at work using a common language.

The second goal is to understand why people behave as they do. Managers would be highly frustrated if they could only talk about behaviours of their employees, but not understand the reasons behind those actions. Predicting future employee behavior is another goal of organizational behavior. Ideally managers would have a capacity to predict which employee might be dedicated and productive or which might be absent, tardy, or disruptive on certain day. This would allow then to take preventive actions. The final goal of organizational behavior is to control (at least partially) and develop some human activity at work. Since managers are held responsible for performance outcomes, they are vitally interested in being able to make an impact on employee behavior, skill development, team effort, and productivity. Mangers need to be able to improve results through the actions they and their employees take, and organizational behavior can aid them in this goal

1.2.3   ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

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

PEOPLE:

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

i)   Individual employee who are expected to perform the tasks allotted to them

ii)   Dyadic relationships such as superior-subordinate interactions

iii)   Groups who work as teams and have the responsibility for getting the job done,

iv)   People out side the organization system such as customers and government officials

STRUCTURE:

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

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

a) **Hierarchy of Authority:** This refers to the distribution of authority among organizational positions and authority grants the position holder certain rights including right to give direction to others and the right to punish and reward.

b) **Division of Labor:** This refers to the distribution of responsibilities and the way in which activities are divided up and assigned to different members of the organization is considered to be an element of the social structure.

c) **Span of Control:** This refers to the total number of subordinates over whom a manager has authority

d) **Specialization:** This refers to the number of specialties performed within the organization.

e) **Standardization:** It refers to the existence of procedures for regularly recurring events or activities

f) **Formalization:** This refers to the extent to which rules, procedures, and communications are written down

g) **Centralization:** This refers to the concentration of authority to make decision.

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

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

MECHANISTIC FORM OF ORGANIZATION:

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

ORGANIC FORM OF ORGANIZATION:

A highly organic system is characterized by decentralized decision-making which allows people directly involved with the job to make their own decisions, very few levels in the hierarchy with flexible authority and reporting patters, loosely defined job responsibilities

for members, and very few written rules and regulations. It is relatively simple, informal and decentralized. Compared with mechanistic organizations, employees in organic organizations, such as design firms or research labs, tend to be more generalist in their orientation.

TECHNOLOGY:

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

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

Classification of Technology:

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

i) **Long linked Technology:** In this, tasks are broken into a number of sequential and interdependent steps, where the outputs of one unit become the input of the next. (eg. Assembly line) this facilitates to have high volume of output and efficiency. This technology calls for mechanistic structures with high levels of specialization, standardization and formalization.

ii) **Mediating Technology:** This links different parties who need to be brought together in a direct or indirect way (eg. Banks – use mediating technology to lend money to borrowers by taking money from depositors)

iii) **Intensive Technology:** It is used when a group of specialists are brought together to solve complex problems using a variety of technologies (eg. Hospital – parties are treated with the help of experts drawn from different fields of specialization). Coordination of the different activities is achieved in the system primarily through mutual adjustment among those engaged in solving the problem in the different units. Organic structures would fit in this system using intensive technology.

ENVIRONMENT:

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

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

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

Two Distinct Sets of Environment:

i) **Specific Environment:** This includes the suppliers, customers, competitors, governments' agencies, employees, unions, political parties etc.

ii) **General Environment:** It includes the economic, political, cultural, technological and social factors in which the organization embedded.

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

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

1.2.4   SCOPE OF ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The scope of Organisational Psychology may be summed up in the words of S.P. Robbins as follows:

"It is the field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behaviour within organisations, for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organisation's effectiveness".

When a manger organizes human relationships in an organizational undertaking, he has to take into account not only the physical needs of the workers but also their psychological requirements. This is necessary because every human being has not only a body, but also a mind. The mind of the worker functions through impulses, emotions and passions all of which combine together to influence his attitude and behaviour. In the ultimate analysis, it is the attitude of the worker toward his work and his employer which determines the results of his efforts. If a worker does not feel happy at his job either because he has no liking for it, or because it is so repetitive that it is tedious, he is likely to adopt an indifferent attitude toward his work. Similarly, if the worker is not satisfied with the treatment meted out by his employer, he will develop grievances against the employer and will not be able to do his best for the concern. Every human being has certain instincts which are the "essential springs of all thought and action". These instincts require satisfaction. If they are not satisfied, the individual concerned is bound to feel dissatisfied and even frustrated with the job and environment.

The behaviour of an individual is governed and controlled by such powerful instincts as fear, anger, love, hatred, pride and curiosity whether in organisation or in the social life at large. If a worker can claim credit for creating something perfect, it gives him a feeling of pride which inspires him to work with greater enthusiasm.

Psychology is the science of the human mind and deals with human behaviour in work environment. Organisational Psychology is the application of the basic principles of psychology to the problems, of those working in organisations.

According to Harrell,

"It is the scientific study of people at work. It includes certain principles of understanding people and the application of certain techniques of dealing with people".

It can be regarded as an aid to human resources management, because its object is to make the work interesting and inspiring so that every worker puts forth his best. It is concerned with changing the attitude of the worker. It seeks to give the worker the greatest amount of ease, both physical and mental, at his job.

Assumptions of Organisational Psychology:

There are two fundamental assumptions underlying organisational psychology:

a.   Individuals differ from each other in degree though not in kind; and

b.   Human behaviour is caused and does not occur automatically by itself.

1.2.5   NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Organisational Psychology or organisational behaviour is emerging as a separate field of study. Its nature can be identified as follows:

1.   **A field of study and not a discipline**: It can be treated as a distinct field of study and not a discipline or even emerging discipline. Due to its broad base, recent emergence and interdisciplinary orientation, it is not accepted as science.

2. **Interdisciplinary approach**: It is basically an interdisciplinary approach. An interdisciplinary approach integrates the relevant knowledge drawn from different disciplines for some specific purpose. Organisational Psychology draws heavily from economics, political science, law and history.

3. **An applied science**: The basic objective of Organisational Psychology is to make application or various researches to solve the organisational problems particularly related to human behaviour aspect. Unlike the pure science which concentrates on fundamental researches, Organisational Psychology concentrates on applied researches. Thus it is both science as well as art.

4. **Normative and value centred**: It is a normative science. A normative science, unlike the positive science which suggests only cause-effect relationships, prescribes how the various findings of the researches can be applied to get organisational results which are acceptable to the society.

5. **Humanistic and optimistic**: It focuses the attention on people from humanistic point of view. It is based on the belief that needs and motivation of people are of high concern

6. **Oriented towards organisational objective**: Being an applied science and emphasizing human aspect of the organisation, is oriented towards organisational objectives. Though an organisation may have several objectives and sometimes conflicting with individual objectives, it should not be understood that Organisational Psychology emphasizes the achievement of individual objectives at the cost of organisational objectives. In fact, it tries to integrate both types of objectives so that these are achieved simultaneously. For this purpose, it suggests various behavioural approaches.

7. **A total systems approach**: It is a total systems approach wherein the living system of an organisation is viewed as an enlargement of a man. The systems approach is an integrative approach which takes into account all the variables affecting organisational functioning.

1.3 DISCIPLINES CONTRIBUTING TO ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Organisational Psychology draws concepts and principles from behavioural sciences and the core disciplines of behavioural sciences are psychology, sociology and anthropology. Since these disciplines themselves 'are part of social sciences, it can be said that Organisational Psychology draws something from social sciences like economics, history and political science. The contributions of core discipline of behavioural sciences to organisational behaviour are as follows:

Psychology:

The term psychology comes from the Greek word 'psyche' meaning soul or spirit. Psychology is a science of behaviour. Psychology studies behaviour in various conditions-

normal, abnormal, social, industrial, legal, childhood, adolescence, old age etc. It also studies processes of human behaviour, such as learning, thinking, memory, sensation, perception, emotion, feeling and personality. Its contributions to behavioural science, as applied to managerial practices are in the field of learning, perception, motivation, individual and group decision making. Pattern of influence and change in organisations, group process, vocational choice and satisfaction, communication and personal selection and training. Human relations is the integration of human factor into work situation which motivates it to work together effectively providing it social, psychological and economic satisfaction. From this point of view, the contribution of psychology is quite significant.

Sociology:

Sociology can be described as an academic discipline that utilizes the scientific method in accumulating knowledge about man's social behaviour. It studies the patterned, shared human behaviour; the way in which people act toward one another. It specifically studies social groups, social behaviour, society, customs, institutions, social class, status, social mobility and prestige. It has also developed sub-fields of political sociology, industrial sociology, sociology of law, family sociology, educational sociology and sociology of religion. To the managerial practice, its contribution is mainly in the field of bureaucracy, role structures, social system theory, group dynamics, effect of industrialisation on the social behaviour etc.

Anthropology:

The term anthropology combines the Greek term 'anthropo' meaning man and the noun ending 'logy' meaning science. Anthropology is the science of man. It particularly studies civilisation, forms of cultures and their impact on individuals and groups, biological features of man and evolutionary pattern, speech and relationship among languages. Anthropology contributes in understanding the cultural effects on organisational behaviour, effects of value systems, norms, sentiments, cohesion and interaction.

Besides these three basic behavioural disciplines, economics contributes in understanding the decision process, methods of allocating scarce resources in the organisations and the impact of economic policy on organisations. Political science provides clue to conflicts in organisations, power and authority structure, and overall administrative process.

1.4   IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

People bring to their work place their hopes and dreams as well as their fears and frustrations. Most of the time, people in organisations may appear to be acting quite rationally, doing their fair share of work, and going about their tasks in a civil manner. Suddenly, a few people appear distracted, their work slips and they even get withdrawn. Worse still, one may find someone taking advantage of others to further his or her personal interests. Organisational Psychology helps in understanding and managing human behaviour as discussed below:

1. **Understanding of self and others**: The behavioural sciences help an individual understand himself and others better. This will improve interpersonal relations considerably. Of particular significance are topics like attitude, perception, leadership, communication, transactional analysis and conflict. An understanding of these will be very helpful to the individual in shaping his personality and dealing with others effectively.

   Organisational psychology is a useful tool of understanding human behaviour in all the directions in which human beings interact. Human behaviour can be studied at the individual level, inter-personal level, group level and inter-group level as discussed below:

   (i) **Individual Behaviour:** The main focus of psychology is the study of individual behaviour. It tries to analyse why and how an individual behaves in a particular way. Human behaviour is affected by a number of psychological, social and cultural factors. Organisational behaviour integrates these factors to understand individual behaviour.

   (ii) **Inter-personal Behaviour:** Inter-personal interaction takes place because of individual's natural desire of socialisation. Behavioural sciences provide ways for understanding the interpersonal relations in the organisation. By studying the behavioural sciences, an individual can understand himself and others better. This will help him to improve interpersonal relations considerably. Understanding of inter-personal behaviour is facilitated by the study of attitude, perception, role analysis, transactional analysis, etc.

   (iii) **Group Behaviour:** An individual behaves differently as an individual and as a member of the group as revealed by Hawthorne studies. His behaviour is often modified by group norms. Therefore, study of group dynamics has assumed greater importance' in organisational behaviour. It helps in knowing how groups are formed, why people join groups and how groups exert pressures on the individuals, groups and management. Management can use group dynamics for better communication, effective leadership and building high morale.

2. **Motivation of Human Resources**: The job of a manager in an organisation is to get things done through others. He will be successful in his job when he can motivate his subordinates to work for organisational goals. Organisational behaviour will help the manager understand the needs and desires of the subordinates and other forces which affect their motivation. He can use suitable incentives to motivate the subordinates.

3. **Effective Communication**: Behavioural sciences help in improving communication in the organisation. It is communication through which people come in contact with each other. To achieve organisational effectiveness, the communication must be effective. The communication process and how it works in interpersonal dynamics is evaluated by behavioural sciences. The analysis of factors that influence communication will suggest measures to make communication effective.

4. **Effective Organisational Climate:** Behavioural sciences suggest the creation of organisational climate in totality rather than merely improving the physiological conditions or increasing employee satisfaction by changing isolated work-process. Satisfactory working conditions, adequate compensation and better equipments for the job are viewed as only a small effort in creating a sound organisational climate. Of greater importance are the creation of an atmosphere of participative leadership, two-way communication, the opportunities for the realisation of personal goals, congenial relations with others at the work-place and the like.

5. **Good Human Relations**: Organisational psychology can be useful to achieve and maintain cordial relations in the organisation. If an employee is slow in his work, it is not always because of denial of promotion or poor work environment. Similarly, if the union gives a strike call, the basic issue may not be a demand for more wages, higher bonus: a better canteen or entertainment facilities. Reluctance of the management to talk to union leaders about workers' problems might provoke them to give a strike call. In other words) relations between management and employees are quite often strained for reasons which are psychological and not rational. Organisational psychology helps understand the causes of poor industrial relations in the organisation and suggest suitable measures for their improvement.

6. **Introduction of Change in the Organisation**: Change is the law of nature. Organisations have also to undergo changes as a result of technological, social, political and other environment. Changes are often resisted by the organisational members. This problem can be successfully handled by the use of behavioural science knowledge. Change can be introduced through group dynamics and by proper education of employees through effective communication. The benefits of change should be highlighted and information should be shared with all those likely to be affected by the change.

1.5 BASIC APPROACHES OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

i) **An Interdisciplinary Approach:** It is integrating many disciplines. It integrates social sciences and other disciplines that can contribute to the Organizational Behavior. It draws from these disciplines any ideas that will improve the relationships between people and organization. Its interdisciplinary nature is similar to that of medicine, which applies physical, biological and social science into a workable medical practice. Organizations must have people, and people working toward goals must have organizations, so it is desirable to treat the two as a working unit.

ii)   **Scientific Management Approach:** The fundamental concern of the scientific management school was to increase the efficiency of the worker basically through good job design and appropriate training of the workers. Taylor is the father of the scientific management movement and he developed many ides to increase organizational efficiency. Taylor showed that through proper job design, worker selection, employee training and incentives, productivity can be increased. The scientific management school advocated that efficiency can be attainted by finding the right methods to get the job done, through specialization on the job, by planning and scheduling, by using standard operating mechanisms, establishing standard times to do the job, by proper selection and training of personnel and through wage incentives.

iii)   **A Human Resources (Supportive) Approach:** It is developmental approach concerned with the growth and development of people toward higher levels of competency creativity and fulfillment, because people are the central resource in any organizations and any society. It helps people grow in self-control and responsibility and then it tries to create a climate in which all employees may contribute to the limits of their improved abilities. It is assumed that expanded capabilities and opportunities for people will lead directly to improvements in operating effectiveness. Work satisfaction will be a direct result when employees make fuller use of their capabilities. Essentially, the human resources approach means that better people achieve better results.

iv)   **A Contingency Approach**: Traditional management relies on one basic principle – there is one best way of managing things and these things can be applied across the board in all the instances. The situational effect will be totally ignored in this traditional management. Situations are much more complex than first perceived and the different variables may require different behavior which means that different environments required different behavior for effectiveness. Each situation much be analyzed carefully to determine the significant variables that exist in order to establish the kinds of practices that will be more effective.

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

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v) **A Systems Approach:** This implies that organization consists of many inter related and inter dependent elements affecting one another in order to achieve the overall results. Conceptually a system implies that there are a multitude of variables in organization and that each of them affects all the others in complex relationships. An event that appears to affect one individual or one department actually may have significant influences elsewhere in the organization.

Systems theorists describe the organization as "open to its external environment", receiving certain inputs from the environment such as human resources, raw materials etc, and engaging in various operations to transform those raw materials into a finished products and finally turning out the "outputs" in its final form to be sent to the environment. The organization, since it is open to the environment, also receives feedback from the environment and takes corrective action as necessary. This input-transformation process-output model with the feedback mechanism can be illustrated through a simple example.

1.6 LETS SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about nature and scope of organisational Behaviour. Contribution of different fields to the Organisational Behaviour along with different approaches of Organisational Behaviour has also discussed.

1.7 LESSON END ACTIVITIES

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

1.8 REFERENCES

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LESSON-2

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

CONTENTS

2.1 FOUNDATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

We have seen earlier that behaviour is caused. In this process, both an individual and stimuli play role. Here, we are concerned only with individual as stimuli will be discussed in the remaining parts of the text. Factors that affect an individual's behaviour may broadly be classified into two major categories: physiological and socio-psycho1ogical.

It may be mentioned that physiological factors are biological and, therefore, they cannot be learned. Socio-psycho1ogical factors can be developed by an individual over the period of time through learning and practice. Our focus in the remaining chapters of this part will be on these factors as these affect individual behaviour more than physiological factors.

2.1.1 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The nature of human behaviour is complex and in understanding the behaviour of people, they should be studied in their totality by taking a total man concept. This concept is essentially a combination of all factors affecting human behaviour. It recognizes that any attempt at generalization usually falls short of the mark because people are different. If both individual and environmental variab1es are considered, there can be (i) differences in behaviour in an individual over time (intra individual) and (ii) differences in behaviour among individuals given the same set of stimuli (inter individual).

2.1.2 NATURE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Individual differences may be reflected in individual's different types of behaviour - conformity, rate of learning and development, interaction with people having different types of personality characteristics, productivity and any such type of behaviour. Such differences range along a continuum from desirable to undesirable. With respect to work, people differ in the following respects:

1. People differ in the importance they attach to intrinsic rewards to the job. People with different psychological make-ups respond differently to challenging versus routine jobs. Some people prefer challenging jobs that afford the expression of the scope for higher abilities. As against this, there may be people who prefer job security and routine operations in their jobs. Thus, different people attach different degrees of importance to rewards and kinds of job they would like to perform.

2. People differ in the type of compensation plan they want or desire. Some people like to work under time-wage system while others prefer to work under piece-wage system or incentive system involving compensation based on productivity.

3. People differ in the style of supervision. Some people prefer to provide necessary inputs for important decisions and like to be their own boss to the maximum extent. On the other hand, some people may not like such working and may depend mostly on others for decision making. Similarly, people respond differently to different styles of leadership and supervision. Some may prefer to work under autocratic style while others work more effectively under democratic or laissez-faire style.

4. People differ in their preferred schedules of work hour. Some people do exactly opposite of this.

5. People differ in their tolerance for stress and ambiguity. Some people do better in stressing and ambiguous situations as such situations may bring out their best and they feel the situations as challenging. Others may not bear such stresses for long.
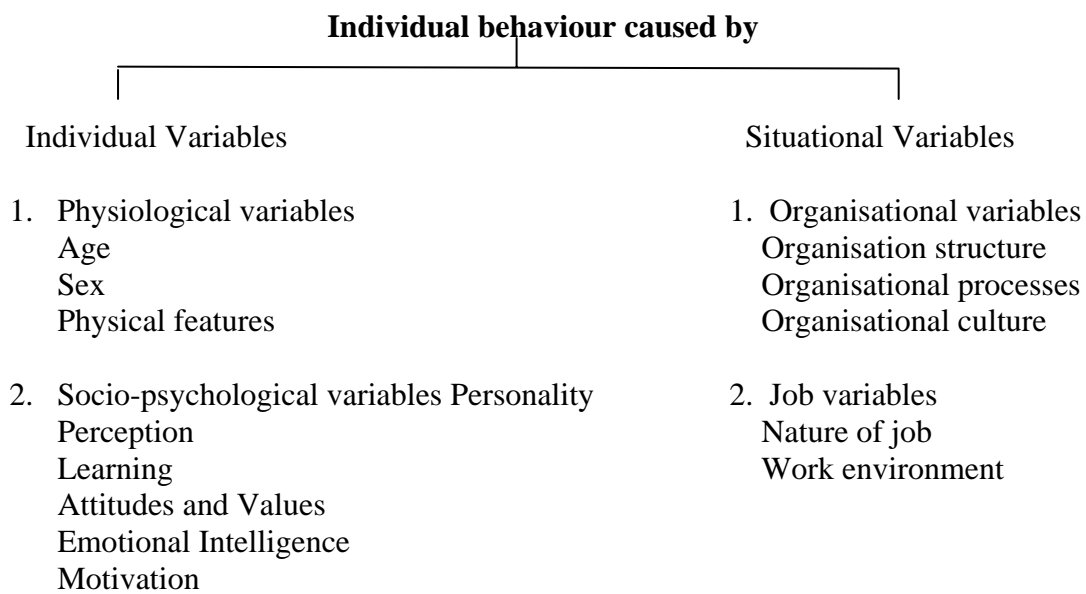
2.1.3 FACTORS CAUSING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The variability in human behaviour is the result of operation of many factors which shape behaviour. All these factors affect the human behaviour in one way or other. As indicated in the previous section, some of these factors lie within the individual himself and others lie in the situations with which he interacts. Various such factors, relevant in organizational context are presented in Figure 2. 1.

Each individual differs on the basis of various individual factors. Therefore, two individuals may react differently with a given stimulus in the same situation. However, situational variables play powerful role in shaping behaviour. Therefore, situational variables also make difference between individuals so far as, their behaviour is concerned. Psychologists agree that both these variables are important though there is disagreement over the relative importance of these factors. The concept of relative importance of both these factors is important because management has varying degree of controllability over these factors.

Situational variables can be controlled to a considerable degree but individual variables can be controlled only to a limited extent. In order to be effective, managers should take both these variables as integrated components rather than as separate entities. Here, brief descriptions of these variables are presented.

Figure 2. 1 Factors causing individual differences

Individual behaviour caused by

Individual Variables	Situational Variables

1. Physiological variables
    Age
    Sex
    Physical features
	1. Organisational variables
	    Organisation structure
	    Organisational processes
	    Organisational culture

2. Socio-psychological variables Personality
    Perception
    Learning
    Attitudes and Values
    Emotional Intelligence
    Motivation
	2. Job variables
	    Nature of job
	    Work environment

A.   Individual Variables

An individual is a combination of physiological as well as socio-psychological being. While some of the physiological characteristics of an individual change over the period of time as a natural process such as physical maturity with the age, change in the socio-psychological features occurs because of the learning over the period of time.

1. Physiological Variables. Human beings possess certain biological endowments which are vital to their behaviour. Various physiological characteristics of heredity, sensory organs, physical build up, and nervous system determine the outcome of the behaviour. However, a person is not merely a conglomeration of organs, nerves, bones, and brain but a much more complex. As such, these factors are essential to his maintenance and adjustment but play a relatively minor role in shaping his behaviour.

2. Socio-psychological Variables. These variables are more important in shaping the behaviour of a person. From the moment of birth of a child, various psychological processes - perception, learning, motivation - become integral part of the child which helps in shaping his personality. These processes do not operate as isolated separate entities as do the biological mechanism of the body, rather, there is continuous interaction between the person and his environment, both social and cultural. Out of this interaction, he learns many behaviours which help him in shaping his attitudes and values.

All these variables - physiological as well as socio-psychological - taken together make an individual unique and distinct as compared to others and, therefore, his behaviour is likely to be different from others.

B.   Situational Variables

Besides individual variables, situational variables also have impact over the behaviour of an individual. In the organizational context, such variables may be in the form of various organizational features like organization structure, various organizational processes like motivation, influence, communication, and control, and the total culture of the organisation. Other situational variables are related to the job that the individual performs and the overall environment in which he performs the job. Both these affect his behaviour.

2. 1.4   IMPLICATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The understanding of individual differences, particularly based on individual variables, is important from managerial point of view. Individual differences mean that management can achieve the desired behaviour from individuals by treating them differently. In fact, it is almost impossible to develop one theory about the nature of man, fit every one into it, and develop an approach to management which will ensure absolute result at all times with all people. Thus, management must analyse how differences in individuals can be used in most appropriate manner. Schein has visualized this approach as such:

"Perhaps the most important implication is that the successful manager must be a good diagnostician and must value a spirit of inquiry. If the attributes and motives of the people under him are so variable, he must have the sensitivity and diagnostic ability to be able to sense and appreciate the differences. Second, rather than regard to the existence of differences as a painful truth to be wished away, he must also learn to value the diagnostic process which reveals differences. Finally, he must have the personal flexibility and the range of skills necessary to vary his own behaviour. If the needs and motives of his subordinates are different, they must be treated differently".

Individual differences have great importance in the organizations because different individuals with different qualities and capabilities are required to perform various functions. If the work is to be the best in quality and quantity, it is essential that each operation is performed by the individuals best qualified to perform it. The understanding of individual differences not only solves the problem of assignment of activities to them but also helps in taking best out of them by motivating and leading them accordingly.

Considering the differences among people at work, Porter and Lawler have visualized the future organization to be highly individualized. They view that organizations in future will accept a wide variety of management structures and technologies so as to accommodate the individual differences because a single organization is likely to offer variety of jobs to suit different individuals.

For example, people with different personality characteristics are suitable for different jobs. Thus, understanding individual differences may provide clue to management to design organization structure, adopt leadership and motivation techniques and develop control systems so as to serve the needs of different individuals adequately.

The study of emotional intelligence is gaining popularity in management literature because of its significant contribution to managerial effectiveness. According to the proponents of emotional intelligence, a person's emotional make-up largely determines his personal and professional success. They believe that emotional intelligence is the most

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important determinant of the extent of personal and professional success in life. They further argue that so many people with high mental intelligence1an whereas those with less intellectual endowment are extremely successful. This success is largely due to high emotional intelligence. Therefore, understanding of emotional intelligence and its application in organizations is essential for all those who want to understand the intricacies of dealing with people.

2.2 LET US SUM UP

In this chapter we learnt about Nature of individual behaviour, factors causing individual differences and its implications.

2.3 LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1. Write a short note on nature of individual differences?

2. What are the factors causing individual differences?

3. What are the implications of individual differences?

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LESSON-3

INTELLIGENCE

CONTENTS

3.1   INTRODUCTION

Intelligence is but one characteristic that people bring with them when they join an organization. Intellectual abilities are those needed to perform mental activities – for thinking, reasoning, and problem solving. People in most societies place a high value on intelligence, and for good reason. Intelligence Quotient (IQ) tests are designed to ascertain one's general intellectual abilities.

Intelligence is the mental capability of person and is determined mostly by the structure of one's brain. Intelligence is vital to a person for understanding the situation of a phenomenon. A person is more likely to be successful in a job which matches his intelligence. In other jobs, perhaps, the person may not be so successful. As against mental intelligence, emotional intelligence is related to managing emotions in every walk of life. It is measured in terms of Emotional Quotient (EQ). EQ emerges from mind's status of a person and not from his brain. Thus, it is a psychological phenomenon. Therefore, IQ and EQ are different phenomena. However, both are not mutually exclusive. A person may be high on both IQ and EQ or low on both.

3.2 DEFINITIONS OF INTELLIGENCE

Different psychologists have explained the construct "intelligence in different ways. Some of the view points are given below:

"A global concept that involves an individual's ability to act purposefully, think rationally, and deal effectively with the environment."   D. Wechsler

"Intelligence is not a single, unitary ability, but rather a composite of several functions. The term denotes that combination of abilities required for survival and advancement within a particular culture."   A. Anastasi

"Intelligence A: the biological substrate of mental ability, the brains' neuro-anatomy and physiology; Intelligence B: the manifestation of intelligence A, and everything that influences its expression in real life behavior; Intelligence C: the level of performance on psychometric tests of cognitive ability."   H. J. Eysenck.

"An intelligence is the ability to solve problems, or to create products, that are valued within one or more cultural settings."   H. Gardner

"Intelligence is a general factor that runs through all types of performance." A. Jensen

"Intelligence is assimilation to the extent that it incorporates all the given data of experience within its framework . There can be no doubt either, that mental life is also accommodation to the environment. Assimilation can never be pure because by incorporating new elements into its earlier schemata the intelligence constantly modifies the latter in order to adjust them to new elements."   J. Piaget

3.3 THEORIES OF INTELLIGENCE

There are wide variations in lay people's definitions of intelligence. Psychologist, too, differ from one another in their definitions of concept. These differences can be understood through their theories. As you read about each theory, ask yourself whether its proponents would be comfortable using IQ as a measure of intelligence.

3.3.1 Psychometric theories of intelligence

Psychometric theories of intelligence originated in much the same philosophical atmosphere that gave rise to IQ tests. Psychometric is the field of psychology that specializes in mental testing in any of its facets, including personality assessment, intelligence evaluation, and aptitude measurement. Thus, psychometric approaches are intimately related to methods of testing. These theories examine the statistical relationships between different measures of ability, such as the 14 subtests of the WAIS-III, and then make inference about the nature of human intelligence on the basis of those relationships. The techniques used most frequently is called factor analysis, a statistical procedure that detects a smaller number of dimensions, clusters, or factors with in a larger set of independent variables. The goal of factor analysis is to identify the basis

psychological dimensions of the concept being investigated. Of course, a statistical procedure only identifies statistical regularities; it is up to psychologists to suggest and defend interpretations of those regularities.

Charles spearman carried out an early and influential application of factor analysis in the domain of intelligence. Spearman discovered that the performance of individuals on each of a variety of intelligence tests was highly correlated. From this pattern he concluded that there is a factor of general intelligence, or 'g', underlying all intelligent performance (Spearman, 1927). Each individual domain also has associated with it specific skills that Spearman called s. for example, a person's performance on tests of vocabulary or arithmetic depends both on his or her general intelligence and on domain-specific abilities.

Raymond Cattell **(1963),** using more advanced factor analytic technique, determined that general intelligence can be broke down into two relatively independent components, which he called crystallized and fluid intelligence. Crystallized intelligence involves the knowledge a person has already acquired and the ability to access that knowledge ; it is measured by tests of vocabulary, arithmetic, and general information. Fluid intelligence is the ability to see complex relationships and solve problems; it is measured by tests of block design and spatial visualization in which the background information needed to solve a problem is included or readily apparent. Crystallized intelligence allows you to cope well with your life's recurring attack novel, abstract problems.

J.P Guilford (1961) used factor analysis to examine the demands of many intelligence – related tasks. His structure of intellect model specifies three features of intellectual tasks: the content, or the of information; the product, or from in which information is represented; and the operation or type of mental activity performed. There are five kinds of content in this model – visual, auditory, symbolic, semantic, and behavioural; six kinds of products – units, classes, relations, systems, transformation, and implications; and five kinds of operations – elevation, convergent production, memory and cognition. Each task performed by the intellect can be indentified according to the particular type of content, products and operations involved. Each content – product – operations combination represents a distinct mental ability.

This theoretical model is analogous to a chemist's periodic table of elements. By means of such a systematic framework, intellectual factors, like chemical elements, may be postulated before they are discovered. In 1961, when Guilford's proposed his model, nearly 40 intellectual abilities had been identified. Researchers have since accounted for over 100, which shows the predictive value of Guilford's conception of intelligence (Guilford, 1985).

Since Guilford, many psychologists have broadened their conceptions of intelligence to include much more than performance on traditional IQ tests. We now examine two types of theories that go beyond IQ.

3.3.2   Sternberg's Triarchic Theory of Intelligence

Robert Sternberg (1985, 1999) also stresses the importance of cognitive processes in problem solving as part of his more general theory of intelligence. Sternberg outlines a

triarchic-three-part-theory. His three types of intelligence, analytical, creative, and practical, all represent different ways of characterizing effective performance.

Analytical intelligence provides the basic information-processing skills that people apply to life's many familiar tasks. This type of intelligence defined by the components, or mental processes that underlie thinking and problem solving. Sternberg identifies three types of components that are central to information processing: (1) knowledge acquisition components, for learning new facts; (2) performance components, for problem-solving strategies and techniques; and (3) metacognitive components, for selecting strategies and monitoring progress toward success.

By breaking down various tasks into their components, researches can pinpoint the processes that differentiate the performance outcomes of individuals with different IQs. For example, researches might discover that the metacognitive components of high-IQ students prompt them to select different strategies to solve a particular type of problem than do their lower-IQ peers. The difference in strategy selection accounts for the highIQ students' greater problem-solving success.

Creative intelligence captures people's ability to deal with two extremes: novel versus very routine problems. Suppose, for example, a group of individuals found themselves stranded after an accident. You would credit with your intelligence the person in the group who could most quickly help the group find its way home. In other circumstances, you would recognise as intelligent the behaviour of someone who was able to perform routine tasks automatically.

Practical intelligence is reflected in the management of day to day affaires. It involves your ability to adapt to new and different contexts. Select appropriate contexts, and effectively shape your environment to suite your needs. Practical intelligence is what people sometimes call street smarts or business sense. Research has shown that people can high practical intelligence without having IQs.

3.3.3 Gardner's Multiple Intelligences

Howard Gardner (1983, 1996) has also proposed a theory that expands the definition of intelligence beyond those skills covered on an IQ test. Gardner identifies numerous intelligence that cover a range of human experiences. The value of any of these abilities differs across human societies, according to what is needed by, useful to, and prized by a given society. Gardner identified eight intelligences.

Intelligence	Core components
Logical mathematical	Sensitivity to, and capacity to discern, logical or numerical patterns; ability to handle long chains of reasoning.
Linguistic	Sensitivity to sounds, rhythms, and meanings of words; sensitivity to different functions of language
Naturalist	Sensitivity to differences among diverse species; abilities to interact subtly with living creatures.
Musical	Abilities to produce and appreciate rhythm, pitch, and timbre; appreciation of the forms of musical expressiveness
Spatial	Capacities to perceive the visual – spatial worked accurately and to perform transformations on one's initials perceptions.
Bodily Kinesthetic	Abilities to control one's body movements and to handle object skillfully
interpersonal	Capacities to discern and respond appropriately to the moods, temperaments, motivations, and desires of other people.
intra personal	Access to one's own feelings and the ability to discriminate among them and draw upon them to guide behaviour; knowledge of one's own strengths, weaknesses, desires, and intelligence.

Assessing these kinds of intelligence demands more than a paper pencil test and simple quantified methods. Gardner's theory of intelligence requires that the individuals be observed and assessed in a verity of life situations as well as in the small slices of life depicted in traditional intelligence tests.

3.4 ASSESSING INTELLIGENCE

The first application of psychology to the problem of industries and organizations was the use3 of intelligence and aptitude tests in selecting employees. May companies use modern versions of such tests in hiring and placement programmes.

The best known and most widely used intelligence tests are not deeply rooted in any particular theory, but they do use subsets, and they yield an overall summary score – two features that are consistent with the factor theories of intelligence. Among the most important of these intelligence tests are the Standford-Binet Intelligence Scale and Three tests developed by David Wechsler for three different age groups.

3.4.1   Standford – Binet Intelligence Test

The test developed by Binet and Simon to identify retarded children in French schools served its purpose well. Out of the several English language conversions, Terman's scale, known as Standford-Binet, become the model for many intelligence tests and has itself been revised several times.

Binet devised his test by age levels. This was because he observed that mentally retarded students seemed to think like non-retarded children at younger ages. Following Binet's lead, other test constructors have also produced age scales. Within these scales, the tasks at each level are those which average children of that age should find moderately difficult. Children are given only the levels in their range. For testing purpose, the highest level at which all items passed by a given child is that child's basal age. Starting with that basal age, the tester adds additional credit for each item the child passes until the child reaches a ceiling age – ie, the lowest level at which all items with in the level are failed. The Standford – Binet was so constructed that a random population of children of a given Chronological Age (CA) obtain an average score, or Mental Score(MA), equal to their CA. An individual's performance score can therefore be expr3essed as a mental age score. The MA/ CA ratio yields the intelligence quotient (IQ).

$$IQ = \dfrac{\dfrac{M}{A} \ X \ 100}{\dfrac{M}{A}}$$

The ratio IQ has some limitations. One problem is that mental age does not increase in a rapid, orderly fashion after the middle teens. The concept of mental age in adults, say, a mental age 21 or 37 is meaningless. A ratio IQ is therefore not very useful with adults. The standford-Binet now uses another kind of IQ, which is described in an upcoming section.

3.4.2 Wechsler Tests

David Wechsler developed a family of tests for people at various age levels. The tests include the Wechsler Adult intelligence Scale, Revised (WAIS-R), The Wechsler Preschool and primary Scale of intelligence (WPPSI, 1967), and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Revised (WISC-R, 1974). These all are individual tests made up of variety of subtests. The subsets are short and therefore not very reliable so that differences must be large to be taken.

The subsets can be grouped in two categories, verbal and performance. This feature is often helpful in testing people with limited verbal skills, foreign backgrounds, or poor education, provided they can understand the instructions.

Verbal subtests	
Information	Factual knowledge about nature, geography, and historical events
Comprehension	Understanding of social conversation, rules, familiar sayings and so on
Memory Span	Simple rote memory for a series
Arithmetic	Mathematical reasoning and computation
Similarities	Selecting relationships among objects and concepts
Vocabulary	Defining words of varying difficulty

performance subtests	
Picture Arrangement	Putting asset of pictures in order so that they tell a coherent story
Picture Completion	Finding incomplete o0r missing parts of pictures that are otherwise complete
Block Design	Arranging colored blocks in to a design that matches one that is pictured in the card
Object Assembly	Putting pieces of a jigsawlike puzzle together correctly
Digit Symbol	Learning to use a coding system in which nonsense symbols represent numbers

Job differ in the demand they place on incumbents to use their intellectual abilities. The more complex a job is in terms of information – processing demands, the more general intelligence and verbal abilities will be necessary to perform the job necessary to perform the job successfully. For jobs in which employee behaviour is highly routine and there are little or no opportunities to exercise discretion, a high IQ is not as important to performing well. However, that does not mean that people with high IQs cannot have an impact on jobs that are traditionally less complex.

3.5   LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about Intelligence, Theories of intelligence and Measurement of intelligence.

3.6   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1.   Define Intelligence?

2.   Write a note on Psychometric theories of Intelligence?

3.   Explain the construct intelligence on the light of Gardner's theory of intelligence

4.   How to measure Intelligence?

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LESSON- 4

PERSONALITY

CONTENTS

4.1   PERSONALITY

Personality factors are extremely important in organizational setting. While perception, learning, motivation, etc., deal with some specific aspects of human behaviour, personality takes the whole man concept because it affects the various psychological processes. James opines that it is better to consider the individual aspects of a person's make-up as bricks and personality as the whole house built of bricks, but held together with cement.

4.1.1   CONCEPT OF PERSONALITY

Though the term personality is frequently used by people, there does not seem to be any consensus about its meaning. It may mean different things to different people. To some, it means a general sum of traits or characteristics of the person; to others, it refers to a unique mode of response to life situations. Thus, there prevails a great deal of controversy over the meaning of personality. In fact, Allport has identified fifty different definitions of the term. He has categorized them into five areas as follows:

1.   Omnibus: These definitions view personality as the sum-total, aggregate, or constellation of properties or qualities.

2.   Integrative and configurational: Under this view of personality, the organization of personal attributes is stressed.

3. Hierarchical: These definitions specify the various levels of integration or organization of personality.

4. Adjustment: This view emphasizes the adjustment (adaptation, survival, and evolution) of the person to the environment.

5. Distinctiveness: The definitions in this category stress uniqueness of each personality.

Drawing from these approaches, he has offered the definition of personality as such.

"Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment".

However, this definition does not give a complete picture of personality, and to get its complete picture, a further probe is necessary.

The term personality has been derived from Latin word *'persona'* which means 'to speak through'. This Latin term denotes the masks which the actors used to wear in ancient Greece and Rome. Thus, personality is used in terms of influencing others through external appearance. However, mere external appearance, though important for personality characteristics, does not make the whole personality. According to Ruch, personality should include:

(i) external appearance and behaviour or social stimulus value;

(ii) inner awareness of self as a permanent organizing force; and

(iii) the particular pattern or organization of measurable traits, both inner and outer.

Taking these aspects together, personality may be defined in terms of organized behaviour as predisposition to react to a given stimulus in a particular manner; this may be in the form of consistent response to environmental stimuli. The unique way of responding to day-to-day life situations is the heart of human behaviour. Accordingly, personality embraces all the unique traits and patterns of adjustment of the individual in his relationship with others and his environment. This implies not only the structure of personality but its dynamic qualities as well. Taking these aspects of personality, Maddi has defined personality as follows:

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

In this text, we shall take personality as the traits and characteristics of an individual because of which he shows consistent pattern of response of environmental stimuli.

4.1.2 PERSONALITY THEORIES

Many personality theorists, not only from the field of psychology but even from other fields dealing with human behaviour also, have carried on researches to find answers to the questions: What is personality? What does personality constitute? How is behaviour governed by personality? The various theorists, however, could not give the answers on which consensus could be reached; rather these have resulted into a number of theories of personality. Just as everyone has his own definition of personality, practically, everyone has his own theory of personality. Thus, grouping the various theories and labeling the various categories becomes a difficult task. Each theorist cannot really be grouped with another, even though he may have operated from similar positions. However, the most logical grouping of personality theories seems to be into psychoanalytic, socio-psychological, trait, and self theories.

A.   Psycho-analytic Theory

Psychoanalytic theory is based on the notion that man is motivated more by unseen forces than he is controlled by conscious and rational thought. Although Sigmund Freud is most closely related with this theory, others, such as Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, Karen Horney, and Eric Fromm, who all broke from Freud, made additional contributions. Clinical techniques were used primarily to develop psychoanalytic theory. Freud noted that his patients' behaviour could not always be consciously explained. This clinical finding led him to conclude that major motivating force in man was unconscious framework. This framework contains three aspects, though interrelated but often conflicting. These are id, ego and super ego. They are so interrelated that they can only be artificially separated for individual study and analysis..

1. The id: The id is the source of psychic energy and seeks immediate gratification for biological or instinctual needs. Freud believed that instinct could be classified under life-instincts and death instincts. Life-instincts are hunger, thirst, and sex; the energy involved in their activity is the libido. The id would proceed unchecked to satisfy motives, particularly the sexual relations and pleasures, were it not for the channeling activity into acceptable ways by the ego. As an individual matures, he learns to control the id. But even then, it remains a driving force throughout life and an important source of thinking and behaving.

2. The Ego: The ego is the conscious and logical part of the human personality and is associated with the reality principle. While id represents the unconscious part, ego is conscious. Thus, ego keeps the id in check through the realities of the external environment through intellect and reason. Out of the functioning of the id and ego, many conflicting situations arise because id wants immediate pleasure, while ego dictates denial or postponement to a more appropriate time and place. In order to resolve the conflict, the ego gets support from the super ego.

3. The Super Ego: The super ego represents social and personal norms and serves as an ethical constraint on behaviour. It can best be described as the conscience. The super ego provides norms to ego to determine what is wrong or right. However, a person is not aware of the working of the super ego, and conscience is developed by absorption of cultural values and norms of society.

The psychoanalytic theory of Freud is based on a theoretical conception, rather than a measurable item for scientific verification. The theory does not give a total picture of behaviour emerging from the personality. That is why this theory is not very relevant from behavioural science point of view. However, this theory gives an important insight into personality structure and the idea of unconscious motivation which can be used by behavioural scientists.

B.   Socio-psychological Theory

Socio-psychological personality theory recognizes the interdependence of the individual and society. The individual strives to meet the needs of the society, while society helps the individual to attain his goal. Out of this interaction, the personality of an individual is determined. Thus, the theory is not exclusively sociological but rather a combination of two. The names associated with this theory are Adler, Horney, Fromm, and Sullivan.

Socio-psychological theory differs from psychoanalytic in two respects. First, social variables, and not the biological instincts, are the important determinants in shaping personality. Second, behavioural motivation is conscious; man knows his needs and wants, and his behaviour is directed to meet these needs.

The theorists accept that socio-psychological factors determine personality; however, there is no general agreement as to the relative importance of social variables. For example, Fromm emphasized the importance of social context, while Sullivan and Homey stressed interpersonal behaviour, and Adler employed different variables. Horney's model suggests that human behaviour results from three predominant interpersonal orientations - compliant, aggressive, and detached. Compliant people are dependent on other people and move toward others. Aggressive people are motivated by the need for power and move against others. Detached people are self-sufficient and move away from others. Socio psychological theory offers, to a very great extent, the answer to the problems of emergence of personality, particularly in terms of the influence of social factors in shaping personality. The managers in the organizations can take clue from this theory in shaping the behaviour of their employees. However, they cannot get a total picture of human behaviour as determined by personality.

C.   Trait Theory

Trait factor theory presents a quantitative approach to the study of personality. This theory postulates that an individual's personality is composed of definite pre dispositional attributes called traits. A trait may be defined as any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another. Thus, traits can be considered as individual variables. There are basically three assumptions of this theory.

1. Traits are common to many individuals and vary in absolute amounts between individuals.

2. Traits are relatively stable and exert fairly universal effects on behaviour regardless of the environmental situation. Thus, a consistent functioning of, personality variables is predictive of a wide variety of behaviours.

3. Traits can be inferred from the measurement of behavioural indicators.

Two most widely trait theories come from the work of Allport and Cattell. Allport bases his theory on the distinction between common traits and personal dispositions. Common traits are used to compare people. He has identified six categories of values: religious, social, economic, political, aesthetic, and theoretical for comparative purpose. Besides the common traits I there are personal dispositions which are completely unique. These are cardinal (most pervasive), central (unique and limited in number) or secondary (peripheral).This uniqueness emphasizes the psychology of the individual that Allport has developed.

Cattell has developed a similar set of traits through the construction of tests and the determination of factors or trait families which may emerge from these psychological measures. However, he has taken a different approach from Allport. He has identified two categories of traits - surface traits and source traits. He determined thirty-five surface traits by finding cluster of traits that are correlated. For example, wise-foolish, affectionate - cold, sociable-seclusive, honest-dishonest, and so on. Such traits lie on the surface of the personality and are largely determined by the underlying source traits. He identified twelve source traits. Examples of such traits are affectothymia. (good nature and trustfulness) *versus* sizothymia (critical and suspicious); ego strength (maturity and realism) *versus* emotionality and neuroticism (immaturity and evasiveness); dominance *versus* submissiveness: sergeancy (cheerfulness and energy) *versus* desurgency (depressed and subdued feelings).

Trait theory gives recognition to the continuity of personality. This theory is based on personality research. In this research, typical study attempts to find a relationship between set of personality variables and assorted behaviour. This contributes personality tests to the behavioural science. However, this theory is very descriptive rather than analytical and is a long way from being comprehensive theory of personality.

D.   Self Theory

The psychoanalytic, socio-psychological, and trait theories of personality represent the more traditional approaches to explaining the complex human personality. Self theory, also termed as organismic or field theory, emphasizes the totality and interrelatedness of all behaviours. This approach treats the organism as a whole to a greater degree than do any of the other theoretical formulations. Though there are many contributors, notably Maslow, Herzberg, Lewin, etc., the most important contribution comes from Carl Rogers. His self theory of personality is very relevant in organizational behaviour. He defines the self concept as organized consistent, conceptual, gestalt composed of perceptions of the "I" or "me" and the perceptions of the relationships of the "I" or "me" to others and to

various aspects of life, together with the values attached to these perceptions. There are four factors in self concept.

1. **Self-image:** The self-image is the way one sees oneself. Every person has certain beliefs about who or what he is; taken together, these beliefs are a person's self-image or identity. Erikson has defined identity as "a life-long development largely unconscious to the' individual and his society". Its roots go back all the way to the first self-recognition: in the baby's earliest exchange of smiles, there is something of a self-realisation coupled with a mutual recognition.

2. **Ideal-self:** The ideal-self denotes the way one would like to be. The ideal-self differs from self-image in the fact that the self image indicates the reality of a person as perceived by him, while ideal-self indicates the ideal position as perceived by him. Thus, there may be a gap between these two characteristics. The ideal-self is important in stimulus selectivity because a person will select those stimuli for processing which fit in with the characteristics of his ideal-self.

3. **Looking glass-self:** The looking glass-self is the perception of a person about how others are perceiving his qualities and, characteristics. This is the perception of others' perception, that is, the way one thinks people perceive about him and not the way people actually see him. The looking glass-self is predominantly a social product which emerges from face-to-face interaction with others from the very beginning of the life. This interaction is directed towards cues about how others see him as an individual. Thus, beliefs about self are in large measure a reflection of others' perception about the person.

4. **Real-self:** The real-self is what one really is. The first three aspects of self-concept are the functions of individual perception and they may be same as real self or different from it. An individual's self-image is confirmed when other persons' responses to him indicate their beliefs about who and what he corresponds with. In the face of feedback from the environment, the person reevaluates himself and readjusts. his self-image to be more consistent with the cues he was receiving. Thus, there is a mutual recognition of his real-self, and the validity of his self-image is confirmed.

A person's self-concept gives him a sense of meaningfulness and consistency. Gellerman observes that "the average individual is not particularly well acquainted with himself, so to speak, but he remains quite faithful to his not-so-accurate image of himself and thereby acquires some consistency". In analyzing organizational behaviour, the self-concept which has a direct influence on his behaviour. This implies that person with a different self-concept needs different types of managerial practices.

### 4.1.3   DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

Personality represents a process of change and it relates to the psychological growth and development of individuals. While it may be possible to detect underlying personality characteristics, these characteristics may be useful only at that point of time and only for a limited number of situations. Therefore, it becomes important to know the factors that

cause a given personality to change or develop. Managers can deal more effectively, then, if they understand how an individual's personality develops. There are various determinants of personality and these have been categorized in different ways. McClelland has categorized these factors into four fundamental theories - traits (acquired propensity to respond), schema (beliefs, frame of reference, major orientation&, ideas, and values), motives (inner drives), and self-schema (observation of one's own behaviour). Similarly, Scott and Mitchell have classified various determinants into heredity, groups, and cultural factors, both physiological and psychological which play important role in human personality. These factors are interrelated and interdependent. However, for the purpose of analysis, these can be classified into four broad categories.

1. Biological factors,

2. Family and social factors,

3. Cultural factors, and

4. Situational factors

Out of the various factors of personality determinants, only biological factors have one-sided impact while other factors have interactive impact as the individual himself can also have some impact on these factors. The impact of these factors on personality may be understood from figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2 : Determinants of Personality
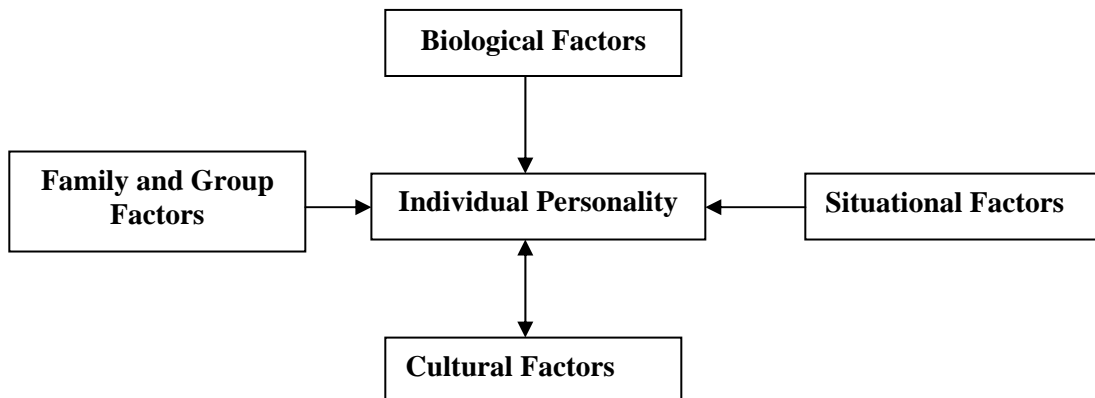
I. Biological Factors

The general characteristics of human biological system influence the way in which human being tends to sense external event data, interpret, and respond to them. The study of the biological contribution to personality can be divided into three major categories - heredity, brain, and physical features.

1. **Heredity:** Heredity is the transmission of the qualities from ancestor to descendant through a mechanism lying primarily in the chromosomes of the germ cells. Heredity predisposes to certain physical, mental and emotional states. It has been established through research on animals that physical and psychological characteristics can be transmitted through heredity. However, such a conclusive proof is not available for human beings, though psychologists and geneticists have drawn the conclusion that heredity plays an important role in personality.

2. **Brain:** The second biological factor is brain which is supposed to play role in shaping personality. Though not conclusive as yet, physiologists and psychologists have studied the structure of human brain and have divided it into two parts - left hemisphere which lies in the right side of the body and right hemisphere which lies in the left side of the body. Depending on the structure of the brain, an individual's personality develops. For example, Trotter has provided the characteristics and dimensions attributed to the left and right hemisphere of the brain as shown in Table 1.3.

TABLE 1. 3: Left and right hemisphere of the brain

Left hemisphere	Right hemisphere
Speech /verbal	Spatial/musical
Logical, mathematical	Holistic
Linear, detailed	Artistic, symbolic
Sequential	Simultaneous
Controlled	Emotional
Intellectual	Intuitive, creative
Dominant	Minor (quiet)
Worldly	Spiritual
Active	Receptive
Analytic	Synthetic, gestalt-oriented
Reading, writing, naming	Facial recognition
Sequential ordering	Simultaneous comprehension
Perception of significant order	Perception of abstract patterns
Complex motor sequences	Recognition of complex figures

3. Physical Features: The third biological factor determining personality formation is physical characteristics and rate of maturation. An individual's external appearance, which is biologically determined, is an important ingredient of personality. In a narrow sense, personality is referred to physical features of a person. However, it is not true if we take a

comprehensive view of the personality. A person's physical features have some influence on his personality because he will influence others and, in turn, will affect his self-concept. Mussen observes that "a child's physical characteristics may be related to his approach to the social environment, to the expectancies of others, and to their reaction to him. These, in turn, may have impact on personality development". Similarly, the rate of physical maturation also affects personality because persons of varying maturity are exposed to different physical and social situations and activities differently.

II. Family and Social Factor

The development of the individual proceeds under the influence of many socializing forces and agencies, from nuclear family to more distant or global groupings. Family and social groups have most significant impact of personality development. These groups have their impact through socialization and identification processes.

Socialisation is a process by which an individual infant acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioural potentialities that are open to him at birth, those behaviour patterns that are customary and acceptable according to the standards of his family and. social groups. Socialisation process starts with initial contact between mother and her new infant. Later on, other members of the family and social groups influence the socialization process.

Identification process occurs when a person tries to identify himself with some person whom he feels ideal in the family. Generally, a child in the family tries to behave like his father or mother. The identification process can be examined from three different perspectives. First, identification can be viewed as the similarity of behaviour (including feelings and attitudes) between child and model. Second, identification can be looked as the child's motives or desires to be like the model. Third, it can be viewed as the process through which the child actually takes on the attributes of the model.

Socialisation and identification process is influenced by home environment, family members, and social groups.

1.   **Home Environment:** Total home environment is a critical factor in personality development. For example, children with markedly institutional upbringing or children in a cold, un-stimulating home have a much greater potential to be emotionally maladjusted than children raised by parents in a warm, loving and stimulating environment. The key variable is not the parents *per* se but rather the type of environment that is generated for the child.

2.   **Family Members:** Patents and other family members have strong influence on the personality development of the child. Parents have more effect on the personality development as compared to other members of the family. The study by Newcomb showed the high correlation between attitudes of parents and children with a further consistency in patterns. The relationship between parents and children was higher than that between the children and their teachers. Besides parents, siblings (brothers and sisters) also contribute to personality.

3.   **Social Groups:** Besides a person's home environment and family members, there are other influences arising from the social placement of the family as the person is exposed to agencies outside the home, particularly the school, friendship, and other work groups. Similarly, socio-economic factors also affect personality development.

III. Cultural Factors

Culture is the underlying determinant of human decision making. It generally determines attitudes towards independence, aggression, competition, and cooperation. Each culture expects and trains its members to behave in the ways that are acceptable to the group. To a marked degree, the child's cultural group defines the range of experiences and situations he is likely to encounter and the values and personality characteristics that will be reinforced and hence learned. Despite the importance of cultural contribution to the personality, a linear relationship cannot be established between personality and a given culture. One problem stems from the existence of numerous subcultures within a given culture. Thus, workers are not influenced by the same culture as managers are.

IV. Situational Factors

Apart from the biological, sociological, and cultural factors, situational factors also determine personality development. The S-O-B-C model of human behaviour considers the situations under which the behaviour is occurring. Milgram's research study suggests that very powerful role the situation may play in human personality. On the basis of his research study, he states that a situation exerts an important pressure on the individual. It exercises constraints or provide push. In certain circumstances, it is not so much the kind of person a man is, as the kind of situation in which he is placed, that determines his actions. For example, a worker whose personality history suggests that he had need for power and achievement, may become frustrated and react apathetically and aggressively if he is put in a bureaucratized work frustrated and react apathetically and aggressively if he is put in a bureaucratized work situation. Thus, he may appear lazy and trouble-maker though his personality history may suggest that he is very hard working and striving to get ahead. Thus, because of changed situation, his personality composition changes. This aspect is very important for organizational behaviour because a manager has control over the organizational situation.

4.1.4   PERSONALITY MEASUREMENT

In order to take the advantage of personality characteristics of organizational members, either existing or prospective, it is desirable to measure their personality. There are many methods for measuring personality, some of the major methods in practice are as follows.

 1. Projective method

 2. Personality inventories

 3. Interview method

 4. Case history method

 5. Observation method

I. Projective Method

There are different projective methods for measuring personality. Projection method was first used by Sigmund Freud. According to him, "projection is a defence system or process in which impulses, wishes, and ideas are externalized because their conscious recognition would be too painful to the ego. However, contemporary psychologists do not agree with this view. According to them, projections as elicited by a projective technique can actually be conscious, acceptable, or even admirable and need not include defensive or anxiety avoidant components. A projective method of personality measurement consists of different procedures that claim to disclose the basic (underlying, hidden) personality structure and motivation of a subject by having him organize, respond to, or deal with materials or stimuli in a free, unlimited way without reference to a preconceived system of correct or incorrect answers. There are a number of projective methods for measuring personality, however, the following two methods are widely used:

1. Rorschach ink blot test

2. Thematic apperception test

Rorschach Ink Blot Test: This test was developed by Herman Rorschach. A similar test has also been developed by Holtzman. Ink bloc test measures the cognitive, conative, and affective aspects of personality structure. Repressed desires, feelings, motives, and ideas of unconscious mind can also be studied by the help of this test. This test contains ten standardized cards in which five cards have black and white blots and five cards have coloured blots. Every person according to his personality structure perceives various things - man, animal, or any other object in these blots. Based on this perception, the personality characteristics of the person concerned are identified. This test is quite useful in diagnosis of personality - related problems, occupation selection, etc. The reliability of this test is very high though some psychologists question the usefulness of this test.

Thematic Apperception Test: Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) was designed by Murray and Morgan. According to them, TAT is based on the fact that an individual confronted with an ambiguous situation and required to make up an imaginative story is likely to project and reveal his personality in this process. There are 31 cards in this test. Out of which, semi-structured pictures are made on 30 -cards while one card is left blank which contains the type of subjects whose personality is to be measured. On the basis of the description of various pictures, the appraiser appraises the personality characteristics of subjects. The test may be administered individually or in group. Its Indian version containing 14 pictures has also, been developed. The reliability coefficient of this test is 0.91. TAT is intended to reveal the needs, conflicts, and traits that underlie the behaviour of individuals.

II. Personality Inventories

Inventory is a term which is normally used to counting of tangible objects like raw materials or finished products. However, when personality inventories are used as measurement techniques, they take both external and internal features of the individuals. While external features can be measured by observations, for measuring internal features, various questionnaires and other techniques are used. Some of the major personality inventories are as follows:

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI): Developed by Hathway Makin1y, MMPI contains 550 items with each item having three alternative answers - true, false, and not known. Scoring is done on the basis of answers provided by the individuals. Based on scores, personality features are ascertained.

Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PFQ): Developed by Cattell, this test measures 16 personality traits which are relatively free to each other. The scores obtained are analysed by using factor analysis and personality traits are determined accordingly. Based on various personality inventories, Indian psychologists have developed their Indian version especially to measure personality traits like adjustment, anxiety, emotional maturity, id power, self enlightenment, self-concept, self-respect, and other aspects.

III.   Interview Method

Interview is a formal, in-depth conversation conducted to evaluate the personality characteristics of persons. There are two types of interview for measuring personality - exhaustive and stress. Exhaustive interview is semi-structured and involves questions' on various dimensions of personality. The basic idea behind this interview is to get maximum possible information about the individual concerned so as to assess his personality completely. Stress interview aims at finding out how the individual behaves in stressful situations. In stress interview, the interviewer creates stressful situation. The situation may be created in a number of ways - by asking questions too frequently, criticizing the individual, interrupting him' frequently, dropping some object on the floor and asking him to pick it up, and so on. The basic idea is to annoy, embarrass, and frustrate the individual deliberately and observing his behaviour under the situation. Based on this, his personality is assessed. Interview is a better method of measuring personality as it provides opportunity for face-to-face interaction between personality assessor and the individual whose personality is being assessed. However, it requires highly skilled person to conduct the interview.

IV. Case History Method

In the case history method, the personality appraiser appraises the personality characteristics of an individual based on the information collected from different sources. These sources include individual's personal letters, diaries, other documents, his family members and relatives, friendship and, work groups, institutions, etc. The information so collected is analysed and the personality of the individual is assessed. This method of personality assessment is used generally by psychiatrists for the treatment of abnormal persons. Though this method is not very scientific and lacks control in information collection, this can be very effective if the psychiatrists concerned are properly trained.

V.   Observation Method

In the observation method of personality assessment, personality characteristics of an individual are assessed by observing his behaviour in different situations. The basic idea behind this method is that the behavioural pattern of any person reflects his personality

and the assessment of this overt behavioural pattern will provide clue about his personality. This method is very effective when the observers are fully trained to relate behavioural pattern with personality. In fact, many personality traits have been established on the basis of observations alone.

4.1.5 PERSONALITY TRAITS AFFECTING BEHAVIOUR

Personality has key influence on work performance. In jobs, particularly with high human relations content, where most of the working day is spent interacting with other people, personality is a major determinant of what will be done and how it will be done. Each man's personality reveals itself in the way he works with his superior, his subordinates, and other people. As a result, when the incumbent on a job changes, everyone has to adjust to a whole series of changes in the way work is accomplished. The result is that the organization functions differently from the way the designers of the structure envisioned, and what organization really is reflects the personality of those who hold key jobs. This affects the individual performance and, consequently, organizational performance. From the very beginning of the development of psychology, psychologists have tried to identify types of personality and personality traits. These efforts have resulted into identification of thousands of personality traits and dimensions that differentiate one person from another. However, much of these dimensions are not really significant in organizational setting. From organizational behaviour point of view, following classification of personality traits is relevant:

1. Big five personality traits
2. Other personality traits.

Big Five Personality Traits

In recent times, researchers have identified five fundamental traits that are specially relevant to organizations. Because these five traits are so important and they are currently receiving so much attention, they are now called the big five personality traits. These five traits are as follows:

1. Agreeableness
2. Conscientiousness
3. Negative emotionality
4. Extroversion
5. Openness

Each of these five personality traits has two extreme points - high and low. In general, experts agree that personality traits closer to the left end of each dimension are more positive in organizational setting, whereas traits closer to the right are less positive. A brief description of these traits is presented below:

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Agreeableness: Agreeableness refers to a person's ability to get along with others. Agreeableness causes some people to be gentle, cooperative, forgiving, understanding, and good-natured in their dealings with others. Though researchers have not yet fully investigated the effects of agreeableness, it seems likely that highly agreeable people are better in developing good working relationships with co-workers, subordinates, superiors, whereas less agreeable persons are not likely to have good working relationships. The same behavioural pattern may extend to relationships with customers, suppliers, and other organizational constituents.

Conscientiousness: Conscientiousness refers to the number of goals on which a person focuses his attention. Persons who focus on relatively few goals at a time are likely to be organized, systematic, careful, thorough, and disciplined; they tend to focus on small number of goals at one time. Persons with less conscientiousness tend to pursue a wider array of goals and, as a result, to be more disorganized, careless, and even irresponsible as well as less thorough and self-disciplined. Researches show that more conscientious persons tend to be higher performers than less conscientious persons in a variety of jobs. This pattern seems to be logical since conscientious persons take their jobs seriously and approach their jobs in a highly responsible fashion.

Negative Emotionality: Emotion means moving of the feelings or agitation of mind. Persons with less negative emotionality are relatively poised, calm, resilient, and secure. Persons with less negative emotionality tend to better handle job stress, pressure, and tension. Their stability also leads them to be. seen as being more reliable than their less-stable counterparts. Persons with more negative emotionality are more excitable, insecure, reactive, and subject to extreme mood swings.

Extroversion: Degree of extroversion reflects a person's comfort level with relationships. There may be persons with either introversion or extroversion features. Introversion is the tendency in individuals which directs them to turn inward and experience and process feelings, thoughts and ideas within themselves. Extroversion refers to the tendency in individuals to turn outward of themselves searching for external stimuli with which they can interact. Introverts are quiet, reflective and intellectual people who prefer to interact with a small intimate circle of friends. They are more likely to be successful when they can work on highly abstract ideas such as research and development in a relatively quiet atmosphere. Extroverts, on the other hand, are sociable, lively gregarious, and seek outward interaction. They are likely to be more successful working in the sales activities, publicity department, public relations unit, and so on where they can interact face to face with others.

Openness: Openness refers to a person's rigidity of beliefs and range of interests. Persons with high level of openness are willing to listen to new ideas and to change their own ideas, beliefs, and attitudes to new information. They also tend to have broad interests and to be curious, imaginative, and creative. On the other hand, persons with low level of openness tend to be less receptive to new ideas and less willing to change their minds; they tend to have fewer and narrower interests and to be less curious and creative. Generally, persons with more openness perform better due their flexibility and the likelihood is that they are better accepted in the organization.

The big five personality traits still continue to attract attention of both researchers and managers. The framework of big five traits has its potential value as .it encompasses an integrated set of traits that appear to be valid predictors of certain behaviours in certain situations. According to Mount et *al.* "managers who can both understand the framework and assess these traits in their employees are in a good position to understand how and why they behave as they do". However, while applying this framework in their organizations, Indian managers should take adequate precaution to ensure that possession of higher degree 'Of these traits, is really in tune with their organizational requirements because these traits have been tested in organizations of the USA. Because of cu1tural difference between India and the USA, it is not necessary that the big five framework is applicable in Indian organizations in totality.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI): Mainly used in the employee hiring process, MBTI measures how people prefer to focus their attention (extroversion versus introversion), collect information (sensing versus intuition), process and evaluate information (thinking versus feeling) and orient themselves to the other world (judging versus perceiving).

I. **Extroversion/ introversion:** It reflects a person's comfort level with relationships. Extroverts are sociable, talkative, assertive and open to establishing new relationships. Introverts are less sociable, less talkative, less assertive and more reluctant to begin relationships.

II. **Sensitivity/ Intuition:** Some people like collecting information. Sensing types use an organised structure to acquire factual and preferably, quantitative details. In contrast, intuitive people collect information non-systematically. They rely more on subjective evidence, as well as on their intuition, and even inspiration. Sensors are capable of synthesising large volumes of data and draw quick conclusions. Needless it is to say, the work of management demands a combination of intuitive and sensing abilities.

III. **Thinking/Feeling:** Thinking types rely on the rational cause-effect logic and scientific method to make decisions. They weigh the evidence objectively and unemotionally. Feeling types instead consider how their choices affect others. They weigh the options against their personal values more than on rational logic.

IV. **Judging/Perceiving:** Some people prefer order and structure in their relationship with their outer world. These judging types enjoy the control of decision-making and want to resolve problems quickly. In contrast, perceiving types are more flexible. They like to adapt spontaneously to events as they unfold and want to keep their options open.

Other Personality Traits

Besides five big traits, there are certain other personality traits which are relevant for organizations. These traits are self-concept and self-esteem, Machiavellianism, locus of control, tolerance for ambiguity, type A and B, work-ethic orientation, and risk propensity.

Self-concept and Self-esteem: Self-concept is the way individuals define themselves as to who they are and derive their sense of identity. Self-esteem denotes the extent to which they consistently regard themselves as capable, successful, important, and worthy individuals. Self-esteem is an important personality factor that determines how managers perceive themselves and their role in the organization. People with high self-esteem tend to take on more challenging assignments and contribute significantly to the organizational effectiveness if the organization rewards them suitably for their contributions.

Machiavellianism: Machiavellianism refers to manipulation of others as a primary way of achieving one's goals. Mach scale measures the extent to which an individual tends to be Machiavellian. People with high score on mach scale, tend to be cool, logical in assessing the system around them, willing to twist and turn facts to influence others, and try to gain control of people, events, and situations by manipulating the system to their advantage.

Locus of Control: Locus of control means whether people believe that they are in control of events, or events control them. Those who have internal locus of control believe that they control and shape the course of events in their lives; those who have external locus of control tend to believe that events occur purely by chance or because of factors beyond their own control. Former category of people seek opportunities for advancement, and rely more on their abilities and judgement at work; while latter category of people remain mostly inactive and allow the events occur on their own.

Tolerance for Ambiguity: Based on personality characteristics, some people can tolerate high level of ambiguity without experiencing undue stress and still function effectively while people who have a low tolerance for ambiguity may be effective in structured work setting but it is almost impossible to operate effectively when things are rapidly changing and much information about the future turn of events is not available. Generally managers have to work in an environment full of uncertainty because of rapid change; therefore, they have to develop high level of tolerance for ambiguity.

Type A and B: Personality has been grouped ,into two categories denoted by alphabets A and B. Type A people always feel a sense of time urgency, are high achievement-oriented, exhibit a competitive drive, and are impatient when their work is slowed down for any reason. Such people are more prone to heart attack. On the other hand, type B people are easygoing, do not have urgency for time, and do not experience the competitive drive.

Work-ethic Orientation: People may have different work-ethic orientation. The extremely work-ethic-oriented people get greatly involved in the job and live up to being described as living, eating, and breathing the job. For such people, work becomes the only consideration of satisfaction and they have very little outside interests. On the other hand, people with low work-ethic orientation try to do the minimum that is necessary to get without being fired on the job. For effective organizations, people with high work-ethic orientation as necessary as compared to extremely high or low work-ethic orientation because the extremely high work-ethic-oriented people will burn their energy too quickly creating lot of health problems, thus, affecting long-term organizational effectiveness

adversely, while people with low work-ethic orientation will not be able to achieve anything meaningful for the organization.

Risk Propensity: Risk propensity is the degree to which a person is willing to take chances and make risky decisions. A person with high risk propensity experiments with new ideas. In an organizational context, he may introduce new ideas, gamble on new products, and lead the organization in new and different directions. However, such a person may jeopardise the continued well-being of the organization if the excessive risky decisions prove to be bad ones. On the other hand, a person with low risk propensity believes in excessive conservatism and tries to maintain status quo. In an organization, such a person resists changes and trying new ideas.

Based on the above discussion, some conclusions can be drawn about the desirable personality traits for effective managers. Apart from the big five personality traits, effective managers need to have high level of self-concept and self-esteem, internal locus of control, high tolerance for ambiguity, orientation to type A, high work-ethic orientation, and moderate risk propensity.

4.1.6 PERSONALITY TRAITS OF INDIAN MANAGERS

Since personality traits are highly correlated with managerial performance, it is desirable to have a glimpse of personality traits of Indian managers. There are several research studies which have tried to find out the personality traits of Indian managers. However, the results of these researches show great variation because of the differences in personality traits that have been studied. Therefore, instead of reviewing each of these studies, some generalizations are being presented which are as follows.

1. Indian managers are somewhat emotional, casual, sensitive, tough, tense, and group dependent.

2. On two personality characteristics - authoritarian (traits like rigidity, lack of tolerance, dominance over weak and submission to powerful, adherence to connections, and traditional values) and Machiavellianism (traits like being cool and detached, manipulative, and indifferent to individual needs), there is equal distribution of managers among high and low.

3. Indian managers have need for achievement and competence though they have lower level of maturity, persistency, and suspicion as compared to American managers.

4. Indian managers show paternalistic type of behaviour such as cooperation, friendliness, sympathy, and nurturance. They believe in assisting others who are less fortunate, showing a great deal of affection towards others, and being able to confide in and discuss personal problems with someone.

Differences in personality traits of Indian managers indicate that universal personality traits might not be suitable for all types of work, because each type of work requires specific set of personality traits. Therefore, understanding of their own personality traits as well as those of their subordinates is necessary for Indian managers to become effective at the workplace.

4.1.7 ORGANISATIONAL APPLICATIONS OF PERSONALITY

Understanding of personality has a number of implications for managing the organizations effectively. These implications are in the area of matching jobs and individuals, designing motivation system, and designing control system.

1. **Matching Jobs and Individuals:** Every job in the organizations requires some specific characteristics of the job performer and one of the basic characteristics is personality of the job performer. An organization can do well if it is able to match the jobs and individuals, that is, the personality of the job performer matches with the requirement of the job. The starting point in matching jobs and individuals is recruitment and selection. It is a known fact that every organization uses some sort of personality test either in written form or through personal interview. The basic idea behind such an exercise is to discover the personality traits of the job seekers so that a match is established between jobs and job seekers. Another area which helps in matching jobs and individuals is training and development. Since people move upward in the organization, the nature of their job changes which requires realignment between the job and the job performer. The new personality traits can be developed, albeit in a limited range, though training. The third dimension of matching jobs and individuals is promotion where personality counts a lot.

2. **Designing Motivation System:** As we shall see later in this text, all people cannot be motivated by offering the same incentives because of their personality differences. Some people may be motivated by offering financial incentives; some people may not react so favorably to such offers. They may attach more importance to non-financial incentives. Thus, a motivation system which takes into account the personality variables of the people in the organization is likely to be more suitable.

3. **Designing Control System:** In order to ensure that people contribute in the organization in desired way, a control system is developed. Such a system may be in the form of tight control leaving no discretion to the people or may provide flexibility. Based on personality variables, different people react differently to a particular type of control system. Thus, the designing of control system must take into account the personality, variables of the people.

4.2 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about personality, theories of personality, factors affecting personality, and measurement of personality. Organizational application of personality is also discussed.

4.3   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1.   Define personality? Write a short note on psycho- analytic theory of personality?

2.   What are the factors influencing personality?

3.   How to measure personality?

4.   What are the organisational applications of Organizational Behaviour.

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LESSON-5

PERCEPTION

CONTENTS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

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

5.2   PERCEPTION

Perception is process through which short-run changes are made in behavior in response to inputs from work environment. The process itself consists of two major actions – i) attention to incoming stimuli and ii) translation of such stimuli into a message that leads to a meaningful behavioral response. Perception is form of behavior and, therefore,

influenced by at least the following factors: i) characteristics of the object or source of incoming stimuli (such as a supervisor issuing work request); ii) the situation or conditions under which the stimuli occur (such as timing of a message) and iii) characteristics of the perceiving person. The last category is extremely important in determining the way incoming stimuli will be interpreted and subsequent response. An individual's motives, previous learning and personality will influence perception. Managers must take such consideration into account in predicting the way their actions and order will be perceived by others.

Five Stages in Perceptual Process:

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

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

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

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

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

5.2.1 FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION :

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

1. Characteristics of Perceiver:

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

Needs and Motives:

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

Self Concept:

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

Attitudes:

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

Interests:

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

Past experiences:

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

Psychological or Emotional State:

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

Expectation:

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

New Experience:

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

Personality Characteristics:

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

2. Characteristics of Target:

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

Organization of Target:

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

Figure and Ground:

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

Proximity:

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

Similarity:

Persons, objects or events that are similar to each other also tend to be grouped together. This organizing mechanism helps us to deal with information in an efficiently way rather than getting bogged down and confused with too many details. For examples, if we

happen to see a group of foreign nationals at an International seminar, Indians are grouped as one group, British as another, Americans as yet another based on the similarity of nationalities.

Closure:

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

3.   Characteristics of the Situation:

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

5.2.2   Person Perception: Making judgment about others

Attribution Theory:

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

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

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

Distinctiveness:

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

Consensus:

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

Consistency:

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

Errors in Attribution:

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

Fundamental Attribution Error:

There is tendency to underestimate the influence of external factors and overestimate the influence of internal factors when making judgment about the behavior of others particularly with reference to the victims of accidents or failures. This is called the fundamental attribution errors. For example, a sales manager is likely to attribute the poor performance of his sales agents to laziness rather than to the new product line introduced by the competitor or current recession prevailing in the society etc.

Self-Serving Bias:

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

5.3   LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about perception and factors which influence perception. Person perception (Making judgement about others) is discussed along with attribution theory of perception.

5.4   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1.   Why perception is a key factor in managerial effectiveness?

2.   Perception is more a cognitive rather than a sensory process. Comment on this statement

3.   Discuss the salient features of the perceptual process model.

4.   What is the attribution theory? What factors do you think might create the fundamental attributions error?

5.   How might perceptual factors be involved when an employee receives a poor performance appraisal?

6.   How do the characteristics of the perceived affect the perceptual process?

7.   Explain the effect of the characteristics of the target on perceptual process.

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LESSON-6

MOTIVATION AND CONTENT THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

CONTENTS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

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

EFFORT

It refers to an individual's intensity in reaching the stated goal. The intensity varies from individual to individual and also depends upon the extent to which individual assigns importance to various goals. If these efforts are channeled in proper direction consistent with organizational goals, the organization will maximize its profit and reach a state of excellence in their field.

NEED

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

different places to find a particular goal, If the goal is attained the organism will satisfy the need and reduce the tension.

GOALS

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

1. Specific

2. Measurable

3. Achievable

4. Relevant

5. Timely or Time Limited

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

6.2   CONTENT THEOREIS OF MOTIVATION

6.2.1   MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

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

- The needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance, ranging from the lowest need to highest need level

- All needs are never fully satisfied

- Once a need is fairly well satisfied, it no longer motivates behavior

- The needs are interdependent and overlapping

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

PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS

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

SAFETY NEEDS

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

LOVE AND BELONGING NEEDS

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

SELF ESTEEM NEEDS

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

SELF-ACTUALIZATION NEEDS

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

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

MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY

General Factors	Need Level	Organizational Specific Factors
1. Growth 2. Achievement 3. Advancement	Self-Actualization	1. Challenging work 2. Creativity 3. Advancement in organization 4. Achievement in Work
1. Recognition 2. Status 3. Self-esteem 4. Self-respect	Ego, Status and Esteem	1. Job Title 2. Merit Pay Increase 3. Peer/Supervisory Recognition

		4. Work Itself
		5. Responsibility
1. Companionship 2. Affection 3. Friendship	Social	1. Quality of Supervision 2. Compatible Work Group 3. Professional Friendship
1. Safety 2. Security 3. Competence 4. Stability	Safety and Security	1 Safe Working Conditions 2. Fringe Benefits 3. General Salary Increases 4. Job Security
1. Air 2. Food 3. Shelter 4. Sex	Physiological	1. Heat and conditioning 2. Base Salary 3. Cafeteria 4. Working Conditions

MASLOW'S FRAMEWORK:

It is based on three fundamental assumptions

1. Individuals are goals oriented whose needs can influence their behavior. Only unsatisfied needs can influence behavior; satisfied needs do not act as motivator

2. A person's needs are arranged in an order of importance, or hierarchy, from the basic (eg. Food and shelter) the complex (eg. Ego and achievement)

3. The person advances to the next level of the hierarchy, or from basic to complex needs, only when the lower need is at least minimally satisfied. That is, the individual worker will first focus on satisfying a need for safe working conditions before motivated behavior is directed toward satisfying a need for achieving the successful accomplishment of a task.

Maslow classified these five needs into two broad categories as higher order needs and lower order needs. The basic needs such as physiological needs, safety needs and love and belonging needs were classified as lower order needs, where as self esteem, self actualization needs were described as higher order needs. The distinction between these two categories was made based on a single premise whether a person assigns much importance to the internal factors or the external factors. If a person gives much importance to the external factors such as salary, security, company policy, fringe benefits etc. the lower order needs are very dominant in him. On the other hand, if a person assigns challenging assignments, self-esteem, recognition, the higher order needs are very dominant in him. Employees, who are working in government organization likely to have fulfilled the basic needs,

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

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

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

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

1. **Aggression:** It is a physical or verbal defensive behavior that can be directed toward a person, object or the organizational. Physical aggression can take the form of such things as stealing or equipment sabotage. Verbal aggression can be the emotional outburst of an employee directed toward the supervisor concerning unsafe working conditions.

2. **Rationalization:** It is defensive behavior that takes the form of such activities as placing the blame on other or having a "take ir or leave it" attitude. An employee may rationalize a small pay increase by attributing it to poor supervision or inadequate resources, when in fact it was the particular individual's unsatisfactory performance that caused the small pay increase.

3. **Compensation:** It concerns the behavior of a person going overboard in one area to make up for problems or need deficiency in another area. A person whose need for interaction with fellow employee's goes unsatisfied during normal working hours may compensate by being extremely active in company related social, recreational or civic activities.

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

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

IMPLICATIONS OF MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY

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

6.2.2   HERZBERG TWO-FACTOR THEORY OF MOTIVATION

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

Herzberg collected data from 200 accountants and engineers asking a simple question such as "Can you describe, in detail, when you feel exceptionally good about your job" Similarly, Can you describe, in detail, when you feel exceptionally bad about your job? Good feelings about the job were reflected in comments concerning the content and experiences of the job (e.g, doing good work or a feeling of accomplishment and challenge), bad feelings about the job were associated with context factors, that is, those surrounding but not direct involving in the work itself (e.g., salary and working condition) This study revealed two distinct types of motivational factors: satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Herzberg resulted in two specific conclusions:

1. There is a set of extrinsic job conditions that, when not present, result in dissatisfaction among employees. If these conditions are present, this does not necessarily motivate employees. These conditions are the dissatisfiers or hygiene factors because they are needed to maintain at least a level of no dissatisfaction. These factors are related to the context of the job and are called dissatisfiers. These include:

a. job security

b. salary

c. working condition

d. status

e. company policies

f. supervision

g. Interpersonal supervision

h. Fringe benefits

2. A set of intrinsic job conditions exist that help to build levels of motivation, which can result in good job performance. If these conditions are not present, they do not result in dissatisfaction. These set of aspects are related to the content of the job and are called satisfiers. These include:

a. Achievement

b. Recognition

c. Work itself

d. Responsibility

e. Advancement

f. Personal growth and development

MOTIVATING FACTORS

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

HYGIENE FACTORS

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

IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERS:

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

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

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

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

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

6.2.3   Mc GREGOR'S THEORY X AND THEORY Y

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

THEORY X

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

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

- Because of human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort towards the achievement of organizational objectives.

- The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

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

- Control measures or strict supervision are properly exercised to get results from them

- Such control can be achieved by the appropriate use of rewards and punishment.

IMPLICATIONS OF X THEORY:

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

THEORY Y

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

- The expenditure of physical and mental effort is as natural as play or rest.

- External control and threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the services of objectives to which they are committed.

- Commitment to objectives is a function of rewards associated with their achievement.

- The average human beings learn, under proper condition, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.

- The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

- Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

IMPLICATIONS OF Y THEORY:

Leaders operating under these assumptions will be more likely to consult the group, encourage members to contribute to decision making and work without strict supervision.

Communication between the group and the leader will be two of the members of the group. The acceptance of the Theory Y approach, with its tenets of participation and concern for worker morale, encouraged managers to begin practicing such activities as i) delegating authority for many decision, ii) enlarging and enriching jobs of workers by making them less repetitive, iii) increasing the variety of activities and responsibilities and iv) improving the free flow of communication within the organization.

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

6.2.4   ERG THEORY:

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

EXISTENCE NEEDS:

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

RELATEDNESS NEEDS:

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

GROWTH NEEDS:

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

ERG THEORY IS BASED UPON THREE MAJOR PROPOSITIONS:

i)   The less each level of need has been satisfied, the more it will be desired (need satisfaction). For example, the less existence needs (pay) have been satisfied on the job, the more they will be desired.

ii)   The more lower level needs have been satisfied, the greater the desire for higher level needs (i.e., desire strength) For example, the more existence needs have been satisfied for the individual worker (pay), the greater the desire for relatedness needs (satisfying interpersonal relationships)

iii) The less the higher level need have been satisfied, the more the lower level needs will be desired (i.e., need frustration) for example, the less growth needs have been satisfied (challenging work), the more relatedness needs will be desired (satisfying interpersonal relationships).

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ALDERFER'S ERG AND MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY:

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

IMPLICATIONS OF ERG THEORY:

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

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

6.2.5   McClelands THREE – NEEDS THEORY

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

NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT:

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

IMPLICATIONS FOR NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT THEORY:

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

NEED FOR POWER:

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

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

McClelland feels that institutional or social power is good for the organization and personal power is detrimental to the overall interests of the organization.

IMPLICATIONS FOR NEED FOR POWER:

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

NEED FOR AFFILIATION:

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

IMPLICATIONS FOR NEED FOR AFFILIATION:

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

6.3   LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about the concept of motivation and content theories of motivation.

6.4   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1. What are the similarities and differences between Maslow's Need hierarchies, Alderfer's ERG theory?

2. Compare and contrast Maslow's Need hierarchy with Herzberg's two factor theory of motivation

3. What does theory X mean and explain its managerial implications.

4. Explain the major contributions of McGregor in motivating employees? Outline the major assumptions of Theory Y and its implications for managers.

5.   What is Need for Achievement and how does it fit with Maslow's and Herzberg's theories.

6.   Explain the McClelland's trio needs and its implications for managers.

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LESSON-7

PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

CONTENTS

7.1   INTRODUCTION

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

7.2   PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

7.2.1   VROOM EXPECTANCY MODEL

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

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

Expectancy I:

Effort→Performance Relationship: Expectancy is the perceived belief concerning the likelihood that a particular behavioral act will be followed by a particular outcome. The degree of belief can vary between 0 (complete lack of a relationship between the act and a given outcome) and 1 (complete certainty that an act will result in a given outcome). That is, the extent to which an individual's belief system links effort-performance relationship, that is, exerting a given amount of effort will lead to corresponding level of performance. For instance, a student has a strong belief that if he puts 10 hours of reading per day, the chances of getting distinction in his examination is very high and at the same time if he believes that just putting only 2 hours of reading per day, the chances of getting a pass mark is very remote. The main emphasis is the differential levels of efforts in work will lead to differential level of outcome.

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

Expectancy II (Instrumentality) Performance →Reward Relationship:

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

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

Valence:

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

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

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

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

i)   The theory was extended by making the distinction between extrinsic outcomes (eg. Pay and Promotion) and intrinsic outcomes (eg. Recognition, Achievement and Personal Development). Extrinsic valence refers to outcomes that come to the individual from others because of his performance; intrinsic valences are associated with the job itself.

ii)   A further distinction was made between two types of expectancies. Expectancy I is concerned with the perceived relationship between effort and performance. Expectancy II, similar to Vroom's concept of instrumentality is concerned with the relationship between first level outcomes (eg. Performance) and second-level outcomes or reward (eg. Pay, recognition, or achievement). These expectancies have come to be known as EI (effort-performance expectancy) and EII (performance-reward expectancy)

iii) It also concerns the broadening to the theory to include the possible effects of other work-related variable on the major variables of expectancy such as: a) the possible impact of personality variables (eg. Self-esteem and Self-confidence) in the formation of expectancy perceptions. B) the effect of past experiences on expectancy development and c) the inclusion of ability and role perception as possible moderating effects on the relationship between motivation and actual performance.

iv)   The expectancy model is also extended to include the variables of work-related satisfaction. Satisfaction is viewed as being a function of actual performance and the real rewards gained from that performance.

Implications of Vroom Expectancy Model:

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

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

7.2.2 PORTER AND LAWLER MODEL

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

Fig. Porter and Lawler Model:

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

(i)   **Valence:** The first factor concerns the extent to which the value of reward (valence) that is likely to be received from their job influences the amount of effort. For instance, if a person is showing more interest towards the reward or expected outcome, the chances of putting more effort in his or her work will be very high. If the expected reward is not attractive enough, he will lower his effort.

(ii)   **Perceived Effort→Reward probability:** The second factor states the influence of perceived effort→.reward probability. If a person feels that the probability of getting reward is very high for given level of effort, he will more likely to put high level of effort in his work.

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

(i)   **Abilities and Traits:** If an individual has requisite abilities, skills and traits to perform the assigned job, he will produce more results than others who do not have such skills to such type of tasks. Traits include endurance, perseverance and goal-directedness which are relevant for doing any tasks. These abilities and traits will moderate the effort→performance relationships.

(ii)   **Role Perception:** If an individual has very clear role perception, that is, very clear job descriptions of what he is supposed to do in his tasks without any ambiguity or confusion, the person will deliver more output. The accuracy of role perception is another variable that moderate the effort→Performance relationship. That is, only those who perceived their role as it is defined by the organization will be able to perform when they put forth the required effort in their job.

Types of rewards: Performance will result in getting various rewards. This can be classified into intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards are those which are derived within oneself by getting the feelings of job satisfaction, self-esteem, sense of competence and realizing ones own potentialities. Extrinsic rewards are those external rewards that are given by others in the work environment such as money, promotion, security, incentives etc. Both these types of rewards will result in satisfaction. Once again, the Reward→ Satisfaction relationships is moderated by the perceived equitable rewards, that is, satisfaction will be experienced only when the person feels fairly and rewarded for his efforts.

Implications of Porter and Lawler Model:

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

i)   Assigning right type of jobs to right types of person, ensuring perfect match between person and job.

ii)   Providing a clear job descriptions and highlighting what a person is expected of in his work (role perception)

iii)   Assigning the proper performance levels such s quantity, waste control number of customer attended etc.

iv)   Ensuring that the rewards given to their employees are very attractive to them.

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

7.3   LET US SUM UP

This chapter was about the process theories of motivation. Two basic models of motivation theory are Vroom's expectancy model and Porter and lawler model. The implication of each model in organisational setting are also discussed

7.4 LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1. What is meant by the concepts: Expectancy, Instrumentality, Valence and Force?

2. Explain Porter and Lawler Model of Motivation and how managers can benefit from understanding the model?

3. How can a manager influence an individual's perception of valence, effort-to-performance, and performance-to-reward expectancies?

4. Discuss the managerial implications of underpaying and over payment from the view point of equity theory.

5. Contrast distributive justice and procedural justice. What implications might they have for designing pay systems in different countries?

6. Explain the Adam's Equity model and its implications for manages.

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LESSON-8

CONTEMPORARY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

CONTENTS

8.1   Introduction

8.2   Contemporary theories of motivation

      8.2.1   Equity theory of motivation

      8.2.2.   Attribution theory

      8.2.3   Other emerging theories

8.3   Lets sum up

8.4   Lesson end activities

8.5   References

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Although it is recognized that work motivation theories are generally categorized into content and process approaches, equity and attribution theories have emerged in recent years and command most of the research attention. An understanding of these two theoretical developments is now necessary to the study of work motivation in organizational behavior

8.2 CONTEMPORARY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

8.2.1 EQUITY THEORY:

Adams proposes equity theory of motivation based on the proposition that every one tend to compare the ratio of his/her input and out come with input-outcome ratio of other person. The comparison process is highly inevitable. The reference person or comparison person will always be in the same group, class, age, category etc. For example, a manager will always compare himself/herself with other fellow manages. A worker will always compare with other worker in the same organization. In the comparison process, if a person feels that his ratio of input-outcome is more or less equal to that of his comparison person's ratio of input-outcome, a state of equity exists. Then he perceives the situation as just and fair. If a person perceives the ratio as unequal, he will experience inequity that will lead to tension and stress.

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

Selection of Reference Person or Comparison Person:

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

1. Self-inside: An employee's experiences in a different position inside his or her present organization.

2. Self-outside: An employee's experiences in a situation or position outside his or her present organization.

3. Other-inside: Another individual or group of individuals inside the employee's organization

4. Other-outside: Another individual or groups of individuals outside the employee's organization.

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

The positive and negative inequities can be denoted as follows:

$$\text{Positive Inequity} \quad \frac{\text{Outcomes for Person}}{\text{Inputs of Person}} \quad > \quad \frac{\text{Outcomes for Other}}{\text{Inputs of Other}}$$

$$\text{Negative Inequity} \quad \frac{\text{Outcomes for Person}}{\text{Inputs of Person}} \quad < \quad \frac{\text{Outcomes for Other}}{\text{Inputs of Other}}$$

Based on equity theory, the employees who perceive inequity in the occupation may have many options to choose to restore balance

1. Changing their input by putting more effort in their job, updating skills, knowledge or talents etc.

2. Changing their outcomes by increasing their output such as producing more volume of output, high quality of output, conserving more resources. Saving more time, minimizing downtime etc.

3. Distorting self perception by rationalizing certain things such as due to sickness the amount of effort put in is very low or acquisition of some degrees or certificates will make a person feel that I am working harder than anyone else.

4.   Distorting perception of the reference person by assuming that the person has more contacts with influential superiors and gets more benefits.

5.   Choosing a different referent person and seeking comfort with that person. For instance, if A used B as her comparison point till now, she might after feeling negative inequity, change her comparison point to C by persuading herself that B is now bound to enjoy special favors since she has married the boss's nephew.

6.   Leaving the field once for all.

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

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

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

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

Implications of Equity Theory:

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

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

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

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

i)   It emphasizes on equitable rewards for employees. When individuals believe that they are not being rewarded in an equitable fashion, certain morale and productivity problems may arise.

ii)   The concerning equity or inequity is not made solely on a personal basis but involves comparison with other workers, both within and outside the organization. In other words, it is not only important how much an employee is being paid, but how much he or she is being paid compared to other employees who have the same or similar jobs.

iii)   Individual reaction to inequity can include changes in inputs and changes in outcomes, with the level or direction depending on whether the inequity was perceived to be underpaying or overpaying.

8.2.2 ATTRIBUTION THEORY

The attributions that the people make have emerged as important explanations of work motivation. Unlike other motivational theories, attribution theory is more a theory of relationship between person perception and interpersonal behaviour than a theory of individual behaviour.

Well known theorist stresses that attribution theory is concerned mainly with the cognitive processes by which an individual interprets behaviour as being caused by certain parts of relevant environment. According to the attribution theory human beings are rational and are motivated to identify and understand the causal structure of their relevant environment. It is this research for attributes that characterizes attribution theory. People will behave differently if they perceive internal attributes than they will if they perceive external attributes. It is this concept of differential aspirations that has very important implications for work motivation.

Locus of control attributions

Employee who perceive internal locus of control feel that they personally can influence their outcomes through their own ability, skill, or effort. Employees who perceive external locus feel that their outcomes are beyond their own control; they fell that external forces control their outcome. This perceived locus of control may have a differential impact on their performance and satisfaction. For example a study found out that those who are internally controlled are more satisfied with their work. Other study found that internally controlled managers are better performers.

In addition organizations are more related to organizational symbolism, which in effect says that in-order to understand organizations, one must recognize its symbolic nature. Much of the organizations are based on attributions rather than physical or observed realities under this view.

Other attributions: one social psychologist came up with another factor *stability* (fixed or variable) to understand his behaviour. Experienced employees must have a stable internal attribution about their abilities but an unstable internal attribution concerning

effort. By the same token, these employees may have a stable external attribution about the task difficulty but an unstable external attribution about the work.

Beside this Kelly suggested such as consensus (do others act this way in a situation?), consistency (does this person act this way in this situation at other time?) and distinctiveness   (does this person act differently in other situations?) will act the type of attribution that they are made.

Attribution errors

Social psychologists have given attention to two potent biases when people make attributions.

Fundamental attribution error: people tend to ignore powerful situational forces when explaining others behaviour. People tend to attribute other's behaviour to personal factors (intelligence, ability, motivation etc.), even when it is very clear that the situation or circumstances caused the person to behave the way he or she did.

Self serving bias: people tend to present themselves favourably. People readily accept the credit when told they have succeeded (attributing success to their abilities and effort), yet often attribute failure to situational factors as bad luck or the problems inherent "impossibility".

The role of self efficacy in attributions

 If individuals have high self efficacy, they will tend to make positive internal attributions about their success and attribute setbacks as situational or as a fluke, or to think, "I need a new approach".

These various dimensions of attribution theory recognize the complexity of human behaviour, and this realization must be part of a theory that attempts to explain and understand organizational behaviour.

8.2.3 OTHER EMERGING THEORIES

In addition to the micro – oriented expectancy, equity and attribution motivation theories coming out cognitive psychology, there are other, more broad – based theories beginning to emerge in organizational behaviour. Representatives of these recent theories are control theory and agency.

One version of control theory, like the other theories discussed so far, is essentially a cognitive phenomenon relating to the degree that the individuals perceive they are in control of their lives, or are in control of their jobs. Recent studies have shown that those who believe that have such personal control tolerate unpleasant events and experience less stress on the job than those who do not perceive such control. There is also some evidence that perceived control will affect the job satisfaction and absenteeism.

Another version of control theory, which also has implication for organizational behaviour, relates to more traditional management function of control. Tradition guidelines for effective management have included controlling both the inputs and outputs

of organizations, but recent research has also analysed strategically controlling human resources as well.

Similar to control theory's being taken from the traditional management literature, agency theory comes from the financial economic literature. An agency relationship involving one or more individuals (the principal) engaging another person or persons (the agent) to perform some service on their behalf. The key to agency theory is the assumption that the interests of principals and agents diverge or may be in conflict with one another. The implication for organizational behaviour involve how the principals(owner, broad members, or top management) can limit divergence from their interests or objectives by establishing appropriate rewards or incentives for the agent(sub ordinate, middle management, or operating employees).

8.3 LETS SUM UP

In this chapter we learnt about contemporary theories of motivation which include Equity theory, Attribution theory and some emerging theories like Agency theory and control theory.

8.4 LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1. Explain the Equity theory of Motivation?

2. What is the Attribution theory of motivation?

3. Write a short note on emerging theories of motivation?

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LESSON-9

FINANCIAL AND NON-FINANCIAL MOTIVATION

CONTENTS

9.1   INTRODUCTION

Rewards may be monetary or non-monetary, sometimes referred to as monetary and non-monetary motivation, or more commonly, financial and non-financial motivation. In monetary motivation, money or any other object whose value can be expressed in monetary form is used to motivate employees, for example, giving additional pay raise for good performance, paying money for good suggestions made by employees etc. In non-monetary motivation, objects that are used for motivating employees are not measurable in monetary form, for example, praising an employee whose performance is excellent, involving employees in decision-making process.

9.2   FINANCIAL MOTIVATION

The role of money as a motivator suggests that money will not act as a motivator in all situations and for all individuals in the same situation. In spite of this fact, in today's context, money has become one of the most important factors for work motivation throughout the world. Following are the types of financial motivation:

a.   Productivity-linked Incentives:

These incentives are given to workers at shop-floor level whose outputs can be measured quantitatively. With some modifications, such incentives can be applied to sales personnel where incentives are provided on the volume of sales. In the individual output-linked incentives, there may be varying linkages between output and incentives. These are as follows:

i.   Earnings varying in proportion to output

ii.   Earnings varying proportionately less than output

iii.   Earnings varying proportionately more than output

iv.   Earnings varying differently at different levels of output

b.   Performance-based Pay:

Performance- based pay is applicable to managerial positions and those other positions whose contributions cannot be measured quantitatively on day-to-day basis. In annual pay increase, two systems are adopted: either there is uniform pay increase for all employees falling in a pay grade or pay increase may be based on the performance of employees. Where uniform pay increase system is applied, it becomes a routine matter and does not provide motivation. As against this, performance-based pay increase offers direct motivation to an employee because he can associate his efforts with rewards.

c.   Profit Sharing:

Profit sharing is the distribution of a portion of an organisation's profit among employees at the end of the financial year. The basic idea behind profit sharing is that the organisation's profit is earned through the cooperative approach of all organisational members and therefore, employees should share that just like shareholders get dividend for their investment in capital.

d.   Co-partnership:

In co-partnership, employees participate in the equity capital of a company. The shares may be allotted to them either on cash payment basis or in lieu of various incentives payable in cash. Under co-partnership, employees become shareholders of a company and may exercise control over it as other shareholders do. Thus, employees are able to participate in both, sharing of the profit and participation in management through their representatives.

e.   Stock Option:

Stock option scheme has entered Indian corporate sector in its present form in 1990s when it was introduced by information technology major, Infosys technologies Limited. Stock option is a major source of compensation to managerial personnel. Under the stock option scheme, employees are given shares of a company in such a way that they enjoy long-term benefits due to appreciation in share prices. However, there are variations in how these shares are given to employees. Generally, there are two types of schemes - Employee Stock Option Scheme (ESOS) / Employee Stock Ownership Plans (ESOP) and Employee Stock Purchase Scheme (ESPS).

f.   Retirement Benefits:

Provident Fund Scheme: Under the provisions of Employee's Provident Fund and Miscellaneous Provisions Act, 1952, the employer and the employee make equal contributions towards the employee's PF account, which gets accumulated and payable at the time of retirement of the employee along with interest.

g.   Pension Scheme:

Pension represents the payment of a fixed amount to a retired employee or surviving dependents every month provided the employee has fulfilled certain specific conditions of employment. One of the major conditions is the minimum number of years of service which an employee should put to become eligible for pension.

h.   Gratuity:

The payment of gratuity is regulated by the Payment of Gratuity Act, 1972. Under this Act, gratuity is payable to all employees after the termination of their services by way of their retirement or resignation provided they have completed five years of continuous services. The gratuity is payable at the rate of 15 days' wages/salaries for each year of completed service subject to a maximum of Rs.3.5 Lakhs.

9.3   NON-FINANCIAL MOTIVATION

Organisations, in addition to the financial incentives, provide non-financial incentives to motivate people in the organisation. The emphasis of non-financial incentives is to provide psychological and emotional satisfaction. The nonfinancial incentives can be grouped into two parts: individual and collective.

a.   Individual Incentives:

Status: Status is the ranking of people in the society. In the organisational context, status means the ranking of position, rights and duties in the formal organisation structure. The status system is an instrument of motivation because it is extremely important for most of the people. The status system should be closely related to the abilities and aspirations of people in the organisation.

Promotion: It is defined as a movement to a position in which responsibilities are presumably prestige are increased. Promotion satisfies the needs of human beings in the organisation. Since the promotion depends upon capabilities and good performance, people will try for that if the avenues for promotion exist.

Responsibility: Most of the people prefer challenging and responsible jobs rather than monotonous and routine type jobs. If the job is responsible, it satisfies people's natural and inherent characteristics and they put more efforts for completing the job.

Making job pleasant and interesting: The work can be made enjoyable and pleasant if it is so designed that it allows the employees to satisfy their natural instincts. This creates interest in the work and employees take it as natural as play. Job enlargement-a method of making job more complicated and varied makes the job more pleasant and interesting.

Recognition of work: Most people have a need for. a high evaluation of themselves. They feel that what they do should be recognised by others concerned. Recognition means acknowledgement with a show of appreciation. When such appreciation is given to the work performed by employees, they feel motivated to perform work at similar or higher level.

Job security: Employees want that their job is secure. They want certain, stability about future income and work so that they do not feel worried on these aspects and they can work with greater zeal.

b.   Collective Incentives:

Social Importance of work: People generally prefer a work which is socially acceptable. If the society gives importance and praise to the work, people like to perform it. Sometimes, people prefer a job of high social importance even though, the financial compensation would be less.

Team Spirit: The management should encourage team spirit, that is, to work in cooperation and coordination. Teamwork is a coordinated action by a cooperative small group in regular contact wherein members contribute responsibly and enthusiastically toward task achievement. If there is team spirit among the employees, they will try to put in maximum efforts to achieve the objectives.

Informal Groups: When people work together, they develop some sort of affiliation among themselves. These relationships are not officially prescribe, but created on the basis of certain factors, both personality factors of the employees and other social factors. The creation of these Informal groups provides social satisfaction to employees at workplace. People feel a sense of belongingness and security.

Participation: Participation is the mental and emotional involvement of people in group situations that encourages them to contribute to group goals and share responsibility for them. In the organisational setting, when employees are given opportunity to participate in decision making, they derive satisfaction because of the feeling that they are important for the organisation.

9.4   MOTIVATIONAL PATTERN IN INDIAN ORGANISATIONS

Various research studies have been conducted in Indian context to find out what motivates people for better performance. These researches are concerned mostly to find out applicability or non-applicability of various theories in Indian environment. This is so because motivation is a complex problem as shown by various theories and is determined by both individual and organizational factors. As such, it is not necessary that many of the theories developed in economically advanced countries may apply to Indian situations

because ours is basically a developing country and situational variables may be quite different as compared to advanced countries.

When we take human beings in organizations for analyzing motivational pattern, we identify two groups of individuals - managers and workers.. While there are some common problems in terms of their need fulfillment and satisfaction associated with them as human beings, workers tend to .Identify themselves distinctly. This is so because management enjoys certain authority in the organization to make and implement the decisions, while workers are devoid of such authority. Management actions, to a very great extent, affect the interest and need satisfaction of the workers. Further, family and social background, level of education and competence, aspiration and growth avenues in the organization create distinction between the expectations of managers and workers while working in the organization. Some of the studies have focused their attention on motivation of managers while others have analysed motivation of workers.

The results of the various studies on the motivational pattern of managers and workers are quite different and even contrasting. This situation may be because of the differences in: (i) research design used for the studies, (ii) organizational characteristics from where the samples have been drawn, and (iii) perhaps the timing of various studies. Therefore, definite conclusions cannot be drawn regarding the adoption of motivational strategy based on the results of these studies. Notwithstanding, some broad conclusions may emerge and trends can be located in regard to relative importance of various job factors. These can be summarized as follows:

1. Financial benefits, job security, and promotion are not motivating factors for management groups whereas these can be motivators for the workers.

2. Recognition of work emerges as one of the most important factors for motivating people - both managers and workers. This fact, however, must be seen in the context of the first conclusion, that is, what is the outcome of the recognition of good work.

3. Factors contributing, to dissatisfaction are the lack of explicit' company policy and administration, lack of technically competent and sympathetic supervision, and lack of opportunity for growth.

4. Top level managers value achievement and self-actualisation while middle level managers value advancement, type of work, and feeling of worthwhile accomplishment. These factors are, however, not so important for workers.

Now the question is: will it be possible to design a motivation policy for an organization based on the results of these studies? The answer may be in affirmative but certain precautions have to be kept in mind, such as the organizational correlates - nature, size, age and location: and groups of people involved - top management, middle management, lower management and workers. Thus, if two groups of variables - organizational and individual- can be combined properly, a suitable motivation policy may emerge. When both these are combined and motivational pattern is analysed, the results may be more significant and applicable in a particular situation. Naturally, homogeneity in motivational

pattern cannot be expected for all the people and for all the organizations. Various conclusions emerging from the results of the different studies may be only guiding factors. Three paints should, however, be given adequate consideration while designing motivation policy based on these results:

1. The human motivation is not inherent or stable rather it is flexible and may be changed or modified by situational variables.

2. The amount of an incentive that is offered to individual for satisfying his motives should be adequate. This is important because sometimes the presence of a motivating factor fails to produce any effective result, particularly when its amount is too small.

3. Since human beings differ in their ability and approach, they cannot be motivated to an equal extent. Some people, if motivated beyond certain extent, may feel frustration and the outcome may be negative.

9.5   LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about Financial and Non- financial incentives. Under Non financial incentives, individual incentives and collective incentives are discussed. Motivational style on Indian organisations are also highlighted at the end of the chapter.

9.6   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1. What are the different financial incentives used in the organizations?

2. Name various Non-financial incentives used in organizations?

3. Throw a light on motivational practices in Indian organisations?

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UNIT-III

LESSON-10

CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

CONTENTS

10.1   INTRODUCTION

People join organisations primarily in order to earn a living. But are they ready to work in any situation? Is everyone satisfied _with whatever work he/she is doing? What is making a person be satisfied with his work?

Answers for all these questions have to be found out in order to know and understand exactly what makes people more productive arid happy and satisfied in their jobs. This knowledge can be a strong foundation for establishing a pleasant as well as highly productive organisation.

Unless there is a sense of belongingness in the employees, they may not feel totally committed to the organisation. Managers should strive towards bringing about such a work environment which would make the employees more attached to their organisations and thus extract the best performance out of them, which ultimately would prove to be beneficial both to the organisation and the employees.

The ongoing discussions will help in understanding the various factors which contribute towards job satisfaction of employees and the ways to build morale among employees.

10.2   JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction refers to the general attitude of employees towards their jobs. When the attitude of an employee towards his or her job is positive, there exists job satisfaction. Dissatisfaction exists when the attitude is negative.
Job satisfaction is a collection of attitudes about specific factors of the job. Employees can be satisfied with some elements of the job while simultaneously dissatisfied with others. Different types of satisfaction will lead to different intentions and behaviour. Job satisfaction is important for management as it has impact on turnover, productivity, absenteeism arid other job related aspects.

10.2.1 FACTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Organisational Factors:

There are five major organisational factors which contribute to an employee's attitude towards his or her job: pay, opportunities for promotion, the nature of work, policies of the organisation and working conditions.

a.   **Wages:-** Wages play a significant role in influencing job-satisfaction. This is because of two reasons. First, money is an important instrument in fulfilling one's needs, and two, employees often see pay as a reflection of management's concern for them. Employees want a pay system which is simple, .fair and in line with their expectations. When pay is seen as fair, based on job demands, individual skill level and community pay standards, satisfaction is likely to result.

b.   **Promotions:** Promotional opportunities affect job-satisfaction considerably. The desire for promotion is generally strong among employees as it involves change in job content, pay, responsibility, independence, status and the like.

c.   **Nature of work:** Most employees crave intellectual challenges on jobs. They tend to prefer being given opportunities to use their skills and abilities and being offered a variety of tasks, freedom and feedback on how well they are doing. These characteristics make jobs mentally challenging. Jobs that have too little challenge create boredom. But too much challenge creates frustration and a feeling of failure. Under conditions of moderate challenge, employees experience pleasure and satisfaction.

d.   **Organisational Policies and Procedures:** Organisational policies include the basis for effecting promotions (seniority versus merit), transfer of people, foreign assignments, lay-off and retrenchment, appraisal and reward systems, motivational methods, skill based versus job based pay and the like.

e.   Working Conditions: Working conditions that are compatible with an employee's physical comfort and that facilitate doing a good job contribute to job satisfaction. Temperature, humidity, ventilation, lighting and noise, hours of work, cleanliness of the work place, and adequate tools and equipment are the features which affect job-satisfaction.

Group Factors:

a.   Size: It is true to say that larger the size of the group, lower the level of satisfaction. As size increases, opportunities for participation and social interaction decrease, so also the ability of members to identify with the group's performance. More members mean dissension, conflict, and groups within groups. All these do not contribute positively for satisfaction of members.

b.   Supervision: Perceived quality of supervision is another determinant of job satisfaction. Satisfaction tends to be high when people believe that their supervisors are more competent, have their best interests in mind and treat them with dignity and respect. Communication is another aspect of supervision. Satisfaction of members tends to be high when they are able to communicate easily with their supervisor.

Individual Factors:

a.   Personality: Several personality variables have been linked to job satisfaction. Among these are self-esteem, Type-A behaviour pattern and the ability to withstand job stress. Stronger an individual is on these traits, more satisfied he or she tends to be on his or her job.

b.   Status: Status tends to influence one's job satisfaction. Generally speaking, the higher one's position in an organisational hierarchy, the more satisfied the individual tends to be. A dissatisfied employee may not stay at one place to reach higher positions in organisational hierarchy.

c.   Interests: Job satisfaction is related to the extent to which people perform jobs congruent with their interests. Those who perform the jobs which they are interested in are likely to be more satisfied in their jobs.

d.   General Life Satisfaction: Job satisfaction has been found to be related to one's general life satisfaction. The more the people are satisfied with aspects of their lives unrelated to their jobs, the more they also tend to be satisfied with their jobs. For example, an individual experiencing happy family life tends to be satisfied in his or her job at workplace also.

10.2.2 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

Two-Factor Theory:

Herzberg and his associates discovered, through their extensive research, that the factors that contributed to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were different. In particular, dissatisfaction was associated with conditions surrounding the jobs (e.g. working conditions, pay, security, quality of supervision, interpersonal relations) rather than the work itself. Because these factors prevent negative reactions, the researchers referred to them as hygiene (or maintenance) factors. By contrast, satisfaction was associated with factors associated with work itself or to outcomes directly derived from it such as the nature of job, achievements, advancement and recognition. Because such factors were associated with high levels of job satisfaction, Herzberg called them motivators. Herzberg's distinction between motivators and hygiene factors is referred to as the two-factor theory of job satisfaction.

Locke's Value Theory:

This theory states that job satisfaction is the relationship between job outcomes realised as compared to those desired. In other words, satisfaction is high when an employee receives outcomes which he or she values high. Satisfaction is less when the outcomes received are valued less by the employee. Locke's approach focuses on any outcomes that people value, regardless of what they are and not necessarily lower order needs. The key to satisfaction, according to the theory, is the discrepancy between those aspects of the job one has and those one wants; the greater the discrepancy, lesser the satisfaction.

10.2.3 MEASURING JOB SATISFACTION

We've previously defined job satisfaction as a collection of feelings that an individual holds toward his or her job. This definition is clearly a very broad one. Yet this is inherent in the concept. Remember, a person's job is more than just the obvious activities of shuffling papers, writing programming code, waiting on customers, or driving a truck. Jobs require interaction with co-workers and bosses, following organizational rules and policies, meeting performance standards living with working conditions that are often less than ideal, and the like. This means that an employee's assessment of how satisfied or dissatisfied he or she is with his or her job is a complex summation of a number of discrete job elements. How, then, do we measure the concept?

The two most widely used approaches are a single global rating and a summation score made up of a number of job facets. The single global rating method is nothing more "than asking individuals to respond" to one question, such as "All things considered, how satisfied are you with your job?" Respondents then reply by circling a number from one to five that corresponds to answers from "highly satisfied" to "highly dissatisfied". The other approach - a summation of job facets - is more sophisticated. It identifies key elements in a job and asks for the employee's feelings about each. Typical factors that would be included are the nature of the work, supervision, present pay, promotion opportunities, and relations with co-workers. These factors are rated on a standardized scale and then added up to create an overall job satisfaction score.

Is one of the foregoing approaches superior to the other? Intuitively, it would seem that summing up responses to a number of job factors would achieve a more accurate evaluation of job satisfaction. The research, however, doesn't support this intuition. This is one of those rare instances in which simplicity seems to work as well as complexity. Comparisons of one-question global ratings with the more lengthy summation-of-job-factors method indicate that the former is essentially as valid 'as the latter. The best explanation for this outcome is that the concept of job satisfaction is inherently so broad that the single question captures its essence.

10.2.4 HOW SATISFIED ARE PEOPLE IN THEIR JOBS?

Are most people satisfied with their jobs? The answer seems to be a qualified "yes" in the United States and in most developed countries. Independent studies, conducted among U.S. workers over the past 30 years, generally indicate that the majority of workers are satisfied with their jobs. Although the percentage range is pretty wide - from the low 50s to the high 70s - more people report that they're satisfied than not. Moreover, these results are generally applicable to other developed countries. For instance, comparable studies among workers in Canada, Mexico, and Europe indicate more positive than negative results.

In spite of the generally positive results, recent trends are not encouraging. The evidence indicates a marked decline in job satisfaction since the early 1990s. A Conference Board study found that 58.6 per cent of Americans were sa4sfied with their jobs in 1995. By 2002, that percentage was down to 50.4. The sharpest decline in satisfaction has occurred among workers in the 35-to-44 age group. In 1995, 61 per cent of these workers said they were satisfied. By 2002, it had dropped to only 47 per cent.

What factors might explain this recent drop in job satisfaction? Experts suggest it might be due to employers' efforts at trying to increase productivity through heavier employee workloads and tighter deadlines. Another contributing factor may be a feeling, increasingly reported by workers, that they have less control over their work.

10.2.5 THE EFFECT OF PERFORMANCE JOB SATISFACTION ON EMPLOYEE

Managers' interest in job satisfaction tends to centre on its effect on employee performance. Researchers have recognized this interest, so we find a large number of studies that have been designed to assess the impact of job satisfaction on employee productivity, absenteeism, turnover, and citizenship behaviours. Let's look at the current state of our knowledge.

Satisfaction and Productivity: As the "Myth or Science?" box concludes, happy workers aren't necessarily productive workers. At the individual level, the evidence suggests the reverse to be more accurate - that productivity is likely to lead to satisfaction.

Interestingly, if we move from the individual level to that of the organization, there is renewed support for the original satisfaction - performance relationship. When satisfaction and productivity data are gathered for the organization as a whole, rather than at the

individual level, we find that organizations with more satisfied employees tend to be more effective than organizations with fewer satisfied employees. It may well be that the reason we haven't gotten strong support for the satisfaction-causes-productivity thesis is that studies have focused on individuals rather than on the organization and that individual-level measures of productivity don't take into consideration all the interactions and complexities in the work process. So although we might not be able to say that a happy worker is more productive, it might be true that happy organizations are more productive.

Selection and Absenteeism. We find a consistent negative relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism, but the correlation is moderate - usually less than +0.40 and probably closer to +0.20. Although it certainly makes sense that dissatisfied employees are more likely to miss work, other factors have an impact on the relationship and reduce the correlation coefficient. Organizations that provide liberal sick leave benefits are encouraging all their employees - including those who are highly satisfied - to take days off. Assuming that you have a reasonable number of varied interests, you can find work satisfying and yet still take off work to enjoy a three-day weekend or tan yourself on a warm summer day if those days come free with no penalties.

An excellent illustration of how satisfaction leads directly to attendance, when there is a minimum impact from other factors, is a study done at Sears, Roebuck. Satisfaction data were available on employees at Sears's *two* headquarters in Chicago and New York. In addition, it is important to note that Sears's policy was not to permit employees to be absent from work for avoidable reasons without penalty. The occurrence of a freak Apri12 snowstorm in Chicago created the opportunity to compare employee attendance at the Chicago office with attendance in New York, where the weather was quite nice. The interesting dimension in this study is that the snowstorm gave the Chicago employees a built-in excuse not to come to work. The storm crippled the city's transportation, and individuals knew they could miss work this day with no penalty. This natural experiment permitted the comparison of attendance records for satisfied and di50satisfied employees at two locations - one where you were expected to be at work (with normal pressures for attendance) and the other where you were free to choose with no penalty involved. If satisfaction leads to attendance, when there is an absence of outside factors, the more satisfied employees should have come to work in Chicago, while dissatisfied employees should have stayed home. The study found that on this particular April 2, absenteeism rates in New York were just as high for satisfied groups of workers as for dissatisfied groups. But in Chicago, the workers with high satisfaction scores had much higher attendance than did those with lower satisfaction levels. These findings are exactly what we would have expected if satisfaction is negatively correlated with absenteeism.

Satisfaction and Turnover. Satisfaction is also negatively related to turnover, but the correlation is stronger than what we found for absenteeism. Yet, again, other factors such as labour-market conditions, expectations about alternative job opportunities, and length of tenure with the organization are important constraints on the actual decision to leave one's current job.

Evidence indicates that an important moderator of the satisfaction - turnover relationship is the employee's level of performance. Specifically, level of satisfaction is less important in predicting turnover for superior performers. Why? The organization typically makes considerable efforts to keep these people. They get pay raises, praise, recognition, increased promotional opportunities, and so forth. Just the opposite tends to apply to poor performers. Few attempts are made by the organization to retain them. There may even be subtle pressures to encourage them to quit. We would expect, therefore, that job satisfaction is more important in influencing poor performers to stay than superior performers. Regardless of level of satisfaction, the latter are more likely to remain with the organization because the receipt of recognition, praise, and other rewards gives them more reasons for staying.

10.2.6 JOB SATISFACTION AND OCB

It seems logical to assume that job satisfaction should be a major determinant of an employee's' organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Satisfied employees would seem more likely to talk positively about the organization, help others, and go beyond the normal expectations in their job. Moreover, satisfied employees might be more prone to go beyond the call of duty because they want to reciprocate their positive experiences. Consistent with this tl1inking, early discussions of OCB assumed that it was closely linked with satisfaction. More recent evidence, however, suggests that satisfaction influences OCB, but through perceptions of fairness.

There is a modest overall relationship between job satisfaction and OBC. But satisfaction is unrelated to OCB when fairness is controlled for. What does this mean? Basically, job satisfaction' comes down to conceptions of fair outcomes, treatment, and procedures. If you don't feel as though your supervisor, the organization's procedures, or pay policies are fair, your job satisfaction is likely to suffer significantly. However, when you perceive organizational processes and outcomes to be fair, trust is developed. And when you trust your employer, you're more willing to voluntarily engage in behaviours that go beyond your formal job requirements.

10.2.7 JOB SATISFACTION AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

Employees in service jobs often interact with customers. Because the management of service organizations should be concerned with pleasing those customers, it is reasonable to ask: Is employee satisfaction related to positive customer outcomes? For frontline employees who have regular contact with customers, the answer is "Yes". The evidence indicates that satisfied employees increase customer satisfaction and loyalty. Why? In service organizations, customer retention and defection are highly dependent on how frontline employees deal with customers. Satisfied employees are more likely to be friendly, upbeat, and responsive - which customers appreciate. And because satisfied employees are less prone to turnover, customers are more likely to encounter familiar faces and receive experienced service. These qualities build customer satisfaction and loyalty. In addition, the relationship seems to apply in reverse: Dissatisfied customers can increase an employee's job dissatisfaction. Employees who have regular contact I with

customers report that rude, thoughtless, or unreasonably demanding customers adversely affect the employees' job satisfaction.

A number of companies are acting on this evidence. Service-oriented businesses such as FedEx, Southwest Airlines, Four Seasons Hotels, American Express, and Office Depot obsess about pleasing their customers. Toward that end, they also focus on building employee satisfaction - recognizing that employee satisfaction will go a long way toward contributing to their goal of having happy customers. These firms seek to hire upbeat and friendly employees, they train employees in the importance of customer service, they reward customer service, they provide positive employee work climates, and they regularly track employee satisfaction through attitude surveys.

10.2.8 EMPLOYEE DISSATISFACTION

What happens when employees are dissatisfied with their jobs? They can express this d1ssatisfaction in a number of ways. For example, rather than quit, employees can complain, be insubordinate, steal organizational property, or shirk a part of their work responsibilities. There are four responses that differ from one another along two dimensions: constructive/destructive and active/passive. They are defined as follows:

Exit: Behaviour directed toward leaving the, organization, including looking for a new position as well as resigning.

Voice: Actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions, including suggesting improvements, discussing problems with superiors, and some forms of union activity. '

Loyalty: Passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve, including speaking up for the organization in the face of external criticism and trusting the organization and its management to "do the right thing".

Neglect: 'Passively allowing conditions to worsen, including chronic absenteeism or lateness, reduced effort, and increased error rate.

Exit and neglect behaviours encompass our performance variables productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. But this model expands employee response to include voice and loyalty - constructive behaviours that allow individuals to tolerate unpleasant situations or to revive satisfactory working conditions. It helps us to understand situations, such as those sometimes 10und among unionized workers, for whom low job satisfaction is coupled with low turnover. Union members often express dissatisfaction through the grievance procedure or through formal contract negotiations. These voice mechanisms allow union members to continue in their job while convincing themselves that they are acting to improve the situation.

10.2.9 MANAGEMENT OF JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction has behavioural implications, particularly on such aspects as absenteeism, turnover, and unionisation. A clear understanding of the causes and consequence of job satisfaction can help managers better diagnose and solve employee problems. In particular, manager must be clear that:

(i) Employee dissatisfaction is frequently caused by what is perceived to be low pay and boring work.

(ii) Employee dissatisfaction is largely influenced by their feeling of inequity

(iii) Individual satisfaction or dissatisfaction is more important, than overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction of employees.

(iv) Job satisfaction has an impact on employee turnover, absenteeism and unionisation, and

(v) If designed and administered effectively, satisfaction surveys can prove to be invaluable help to assess the degree of satisfaction of employees.

10.3   LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about Job satisfaction, factors affecting Job satisfaction and theories of Satisfaction. Various ways to measure to measure Job satisfaction is discussed. Role of satisfaction on performance and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour are analysed.

10.4   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1. What is Job Satisfaction? What effect does job satisfaction have on employee performance?

2. What are the factors affecting Job satisfaction?

3. Write a short note on theories of Job satisfaction?

4. What are the different methods to manage Job satisfaction?

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LESSON-11

CONCEPT OF JOB DESIGN

CONTENTS

11.1 JOB DESIGN

The process of assigning tasks to a job, including interdependency of those tasks with other jobs, is called Job Design. A job is a set of tasks assigned to and performed by one person. Some jobs have very few tasks, each requiring limited skill or effort. Other jobs include a very complex set of tasks and can be accomplished by only a few highly trained professionals.

Job design has a critical impact on organisation and employee objectives. From the organisation's perspective, the way tasks and responsibilities are grouped can affect productivity and costs. Jobs that are not satisfying or are too demanding are difficult to fill. Boring jobs may experience higher turnover. For an employee, motivation and job satisfaction are affected by the match between ob factor (content, qualifications and rewards) and personal needs. A thoughtful job design, therefore, can help both the organisation and its employees achieve their objectives.

Poorly designed job, on the other hand, may lead to lower productivity, employee turnover, absenteeism, complaints, sabotage, unionisation, resignations and other problems.

It was Herzberg who conceived job design as an important instrument to motivate employees.

11.2   JOB DESIGN APPROACHES

11.2.1 Job Rotation

Job rotation refers to moving employees from job to job to add variety and reduce boredom by allowing them to perform a variety of tasks. When an activity is no longer challenging, the employee would be rotated to another job, at the same level, that has similar skill requirements. It reduces boredom and disinterest through diversifying the employee's activities. Employees with a wider range of skills give management more flexibility in scheduling work, adapting to changes and filling vacancies. Job rotation also has drawbacks, Training costs are increased, and work is disrupted as rotated employees take time to adjust to a new set-up. It can demotivate intelligent and ambitious trainees who seek specific responsibilities in their chosen speciality.

11.2.2 Job Engineering:

Job engineers focus on the tasks to be performed, methods to be used, and workflows among employees, layout of the workplace, performance standards and interdependencies among people and machines. Experts often examine these job design factors by means of time and motion studies, determining the time required to do each task and the movements needed to perform it efficiently. Specialisation of labour is the benefit of job engineering.

11.2.3 Job Enlargement:

Job enlargement refers to the expansion of the number of different tasks performed by an employee in a single job. For example, an auto mechanic switches from only changing oil to changing oil, greasing and changing transmission fluid. Job enlargement attempts to add somewhat similar tasks to the job so that it will have more variety and be more interesting.

An enlarged job can motivate an individual for five reasons:

a.   **Task variety:** Highly fragmented jobs requiring a limited number of unchanging responses tend to be extremely monotonous. Increasing the number of tasks to be performed can reduce the level of boredom.

b.   **Meaningful work modules:** frequently, jobs are enlarged so that one worker completes a whole unit of work, or a major portion of it. This tends to increase satisfaction by allowing workers to appreciate their contribution to the entire project or product.

c.   **Ability utilisation:** Workers derive greater satisfaction from jobs that utilise their physical and mental skills and abilities better. Enlarged jobs tend to fulfill this condition. However, management must be careful not to enlarge jobs too much, because jobs that require more skills and ability than the worker possesses lead to frustration and present obstacles to task accomplishment. Enlarged jobs with optimal levels of complexity, on the other hand, create tasks that are challenging but attainable.

d.   Worker-paced control: Job enlarged schemes often move a worker from a machine-paced production line to a job in which the worker paces himself or herself. Workers feel less fatigued and likely to enjoy their work more if they can vary the rhythm and work at their own pace.

e.   Performance feedback: Workers performing narrow jobs with short performance cycles repeat the same set of motion endlessly, without meaningful end point. As a result, it is difficult to count the number of finished performance cycles. Even if they are counted, the feedback tends to be meaningless. Enlarged jobs allow for more meaningful feedback, and can be particularly motivating if it is tied to evaluation and organisational rewards.

11.2.4 Job Enrichment:

First coined by Herzberg in his famous research with motivators and maintenance factors, job enrichment has become a popular concept. It means adding a few more motivators to a job to make it more rewarding. To be specific, a job is enriched when the nature of the job is exciting, challenging, and creative or gives the jobholder more decision-making, planning and controlling powers.

According to Herzberg an enriched job has eight characteristics. They are:

a.   Direct Feedback: Employees should be able to get immediate knowledge of the results they are achieving. The evaluation of performance can be built in to the job or provided by a supervisor.

b.   Client Relationship: An employee serves a client or customer directly has an enriched job. The client can be outside the firm or inside.

c.   New Learning: An enriched job allows its incumbent to feel that he is growing mentally. An assistant who clips relevant newspaper articles for his boss is, therefore, doing an enriched job.

d.   Scheduling Own Work: Freedom to schedule one's own work contributes to enrichment. Deciding when to tackle which assignment is an example of self-scheduling. Employees who perform creative work have more opportunity to schedule their assignments than do employees performing routine jobs.

e.   Unique Experience: An enriched job has some unique qualities or features, such a quality controller visiting a supplier's place.

f.   Control over Resources: One approach to job enrichment is for each employee to have control over his or her resource and expenses.

g.   Direct Communication Authority: An enriched job allows the worker to communicate directly with people' who use his or her output, such as a quality as a quality assurance manager handling a customer's complaints about quality.

h. Personal Accountability: An enriched job holds the incumbent responsible for the results. He or she receives praise for good work and blame for poor work.

The other benefits of job enrichment are job satisfaction, growth opportunities, scope for self-realisation to employees, better employee performance, and less absenteeism, turnover and grievances to organisations, and full use of human resources and more effective organisations to the society.

11.2.5 Socio-technical Systems:

This approach focuses on organisations as made up of people with various competencies (the social system) who use tools, machines and techniques (the technical system) to create goods or services valued by customers and other stakeholders. The goal of technical model is to find the best possible match between the technology available, the people involved and the needs of an organisation.

11.2.6 Ergonomics:

Ergonomics focuses on minimizing the physical demands and risks of work. This approach helps ensure that job demands are consistent with people's physical capabilities to perform them with least risk. It involves the design of aids (ranging from hand tools to computer software to instruments) used to perform tasks. Where jobs are well designed (through ergonomics), workers report less physical effort and fatigue, fewer aches and pains, and hence fewer health complaints. The likelihood of accidents is reduced, and employees have more favourable attitudes towards their work and experience job satisfaction. But on cost side, equipment investments are high and training requirements tend to Increase.

Ergonomics has become more relevant now because employees stay in the workforce longer and jobs are altered to meet their changing physical needs. Its relevance is also felt more now because of the need to accommodate individuals with physical disabilities (e.g., hearing impaired, loss of mobility in the limbs).

11.3 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about Job Design. Different Job Design methods used in organizations are also discussed.

11.4   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1.   What is job Simplification?

2.   What is job Enrichment?

3.   What is Job Enlargement?

4.   What Rotation?

11.5   REFERENCES

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LESSON-12

MORALE AND ITS IMPLICATIONS ON PRODUCTIVITY

CONTENTS

12.1   MORALE

In every organisation, people are working within a subtle environment of attitudes. Each employee has attitudes that range over the entire spectrum of human behaviour. All managers have a constant concern for the morale of the group which they lead.

Morale is described as the feelings of an employee or manager toward his work; it is thus, a matter of work satisfaction. Guion describes morale from the point of view of an individual worker, and defines it as the degree to which an individual's needs are satisfied and the degree to which the individual desires satisfaction from his total job situation.

In contrast to this individual approach, most researchers are impressed with social or group significance of morale. They emphasise social reaction and concentrate on attitudes towards group values rather than towards individual values. They place less emphasis on working conditions and more feelings of cohesiveness, group interest and identification' with the mission of the group, and optimism about the success of the whole. Thus, the concepts of job satisfaction and motivation both pertain to the individual and morale to the group. McFarland observes that:

"Morale is basically a group phenomenon. It is a concept that describes the level of favourable or unfavourable attitudes of the employees collectively to all aspects of their work- the job, the company, their tasks, working conditions, fellow workers, superiors, and so on. Attitudes express what the individuals think and feel about their jobs. The emphasis is on how employees feel, denoting the strong emotional elements associated with attitudes".

12.1.1 IMPORTANCE OF MORALE

Morale is a vital ingredient of organisational success because it reflects the attitudes and sentiments of organisational members towards the organisation, its objectives and policies. These attitudes and sentiments largely affect productivity and the satisfaction of individuals. Morale is the total satisfaction a person derives from his job, his work group, his boss, his organisation and his environment.

High morale exists when employees' attitude is favourable towards their fellow workers-favourable to the total situation of the group and to the attainment of its objectives. Low morale exists when attitude inhibits the willingness and ability of the group to attain company objective. Thus, morale of employees should be high to achieve the organisational objectives efficiently and effectively. A high morale reduces absenteeism, labour turnover, wastes and disharmony.

12.1.2 MORALE AND PRODUCTIVITY

In general, there is a belief that morale and productivity go hand in hand and higher is the morale, higher is the productivity and vice versa. However, this is not true in all cases and morale and productivity may not go together. Generally, there is some positive correlation between morale and productivity but they are not absolutely related, that is, an increase of five percent morale does not guarantee a proportional increase in productivity. It is quite possible to increase morale with either favourable or unfavourable shifts in productivity.

In fact, morale reflects attitude of employees and there are a number of variables between employees' attitude and productivity. An attitude in the individual tends to interpret, understand or define a situation or relationship with others. Attitudes are the individual's likes or dislikes directed towards persons, things or situations or combinations of all these. Since all expressed attitudes are not to be put into practice, it is expected that morale will not be exactly related to productivity. A more accurate statement about high morale is that it indicates a predisposition to be more productive if leadership is effective along with proper production facilities and individual's ability. These factors are depicted in the following figure.

There may be four possible combinations of morale and productivity, namely;

High morale and high productivity

Low morale and low productivity

High morale and low productivity, and

Low morale and high productivity

High productivity goes with high morale when the workers are highly motivated, the supervision is considerate of workers and the workers are highly trained. This is an ideal state and makes the best possible use of human resources.

However, morale and productivity are not absolutely related. They may not increase in the same proportion. An exactly reverse situation could be that of low morale and low productivity.

High morale is associated with low productivity when the employees *are* merely happy and they are not properly motivated to do their work. Other reasons of low productivity may be inefficient supervision, faulty materials and technology and low degree of skills. Also, high morale in group context sometimes means restriction of output in accordance with informal group norms. By conforming to group norms, members derive satisfaction through fulfillment of social needs for belongingness and affiliation. In such cases, high morale and low productivity move together.

High productivity is associated with low morale when management uses strict supervision and punishments against low productivity. It is possible to rationalise and systematise production technology in such a way that high productivity could be achieved independent *of* the mental and psychological attitudes and dispositions of the human element. This implies that employees with low morale could still be a party to high productivity. But high productivity with low morale cannot be sustained for long since will to work is a very important factor. Will to work moulds worker's attitude towards the job, supervision, and organisation and its policies.

Thus the relationship between morale and Individual Factors productivity is very complex. It will differ from organisation to organisation and from time to time.

Figure 3.1: Satisfaction-Productivity model
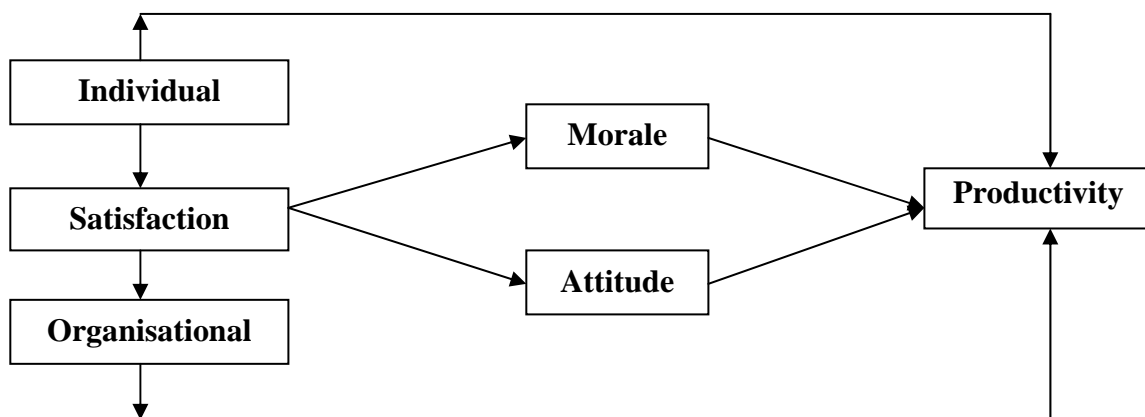
This shows that productivity is a function of four factors - organisational factors, individual factors, attitudes and morale. Attitudes and morale, in turn, are determined by the satisfaction of individuals which is again affected by organisational and individual factors. Thus, productivity is a function of several variables; of course, morale may be one of the important ones. Though it is possible to achieve high productivity with low morale, this position cannot continue for long, because in the long run, eP1ployee will show their resistance, dissatisfaction and restriction which eventually lead to low productivity.

Various research studies also support the view that morale and productivity are not perfectly related, though there is a positive correlation between these two.
They show that:

i.   There is little evidence that employee morale has any relationship to performance on the job.

ii.   There are enough data to justify the morale as a factor in improving the workers' output although the relationship between morale and productivity is not absolute and the correlations obtained in many studies are low, though positive.

iii. The median correlation between morale and performance in various studies was found to be very low. .

Thus, on the basis of such reviews, it can be concluded that for higher productivity, high morale is necessary. However, it is said sometimes that high productivity is as much a cause for high morale as it is the result of high morale.

12.1.3 MEASUREMENT OF MORALE

Morale can be measured by collecting morale information. Such information may be collected through morale, opinion, or attitude survey.

1.   Morale Survey:
Collecting information about morale through morale survey is quite common for researchers and organisations engaged in building morale. Morale information is collected through the use of questionnaires.

2.   Indices of Morale:
Besides collecting information especially for measuring morale, management can use certain indicators for measuring morale. Such morale indicators are available in the organisation itself. Since morale is an intervening variable, its impact is reflected in several factors concerning employees. However, such factors may not necessarily be the result of morale alone but they give some indications about morale. Some of the morale indicators are as follows:

i.   Employee turnover

ii.   Productivity

iii. Absenteeism and tardiness

iv.   Fatigue and monotony

v.   Grievances

vi.   Need for discipline

vii. Waste and scrap

viii. Quality record

3. Other sources of information:

There may be various other sources of getting information which can be directly relevant for morale measurement. Since an organisation collects information for various purposes and often information collected for one purpose may be used for other purposes also, various information sources can be integrated to have comprehensive view of morale. A basic advantage of such sources is that information is readily available and one has only to pick the relevant - information. The various such sources may be as follows:

   i.   Reports of counselling

  ii.   Exit interviews

 iii.   Accident reports

 iv.   Training records

  v.   Medical reports

 vi.   Suggestion systems

vii.   Complaint box systems

12.1.4 USE OF MORALE INFORMATION

Morale information is quite useful in taking decisions concerning people in the organisation. Since organisational climate influences people to behave in a particular way and morale is one of the basic ingredients of the organisational climate, it can be used directly to modify 9r introduce many managerial practices which are more conducive to people in the organisation. In particular, morale information can be used for the following purposes:

1.   Understanding the level of morale:

Morale information is the best indicator of the state of morale in an organisation. If it indicates low level of morale, it is time to take immediate action for reviewing various managerial actions.

2. Ensuring communication:

Another use of morale information may be to ensure organisational communication, particularly upward communication. This can be done in two ways. First, the process of collection of morale information is such that it requires upward communication from people at lower level. Through this process, the people can convey their actual feelings which perhaps they may not convey. Second, management can take special action to ensure the free flow of communication on the basis of such information.

3. Creating better feelings in employees:

Collection of morale information provides opportunity for employees to interact with' management. This helps in creating better feelings among them in three ways. First, they may feel their importance by such interaction, thereby they are better motivated. Second, they may feel that management is taking real interest in them. Third, they may express many of their feelings which they may not do otherwise. This happens so if morale survey conducted by outside consultants. By expressing such feeling, they are relieved of many of their tensions.

4. Assessing training needs:

Morale information can be used to assess the training needs of groups of people as a whole or of individual employees. Since morale information covers various aspects of employees' functioning, it can disclose where a particular employee lacks and the gap can be filled by necessary training.

5. Creating morale consciousness:

Morale building as system of managing can be better appreciated by managers if they are aware about it. Morale survey brings such awareness. If anything is done on systematic basis in the organisation, it has its' positive effect on managers by creating awareness. For example, cost reduction as method may bring cost-consciousness in managers. Similar is the case with morale information collection.

12.2   LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about morale and importance of morale. Relationship between morale and productivity is discussed along with methods to measure morale.

12.3   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1.   How to measure morale?
2.   How to use morale information?
3.   What is the relationship between morale and productivity?

12.4   REFERENCES

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LESSON-13

ATTITUDES

CONTENTS

13.1   INTRODUCTION

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

13.2   ATTITUDES

Attitudes can be defined as an individual's feelings about or inclinations towards other persons, objects, events, or activities. Attitudes encompass such affective feelings as likes and dislikes, and satisfactions and dissatisfactions. Our needs, past experiences, self-concept, and personality shape the beliefs, feelings, and opinion we hold towards the perceived world. Once we have formed our likes and dislikes, we generally cling on to them and find it difficult to change our attitudes, unless we make a conscious and determined effort to do so. An interesting phenomenon is that our values shape our

attitudes. Traditionally, behavioral scientists have divided attitudes into two major groups: i) those that are cognitive (for example, beliefs or expectations about cause-effect relationships between events) and ii) those that are evaluative (for example, liking or disliking for event). An example of a cognitive attitude would be an employee's belief that superior job performance would be rewarded by praise from a superior. An example of an evaluative attitude would be the degree to which he or she would like or value such praise.

13.2.1 Components of Attitudes

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

a.   Cognitive Component

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

b.   Affective Component

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

c.   Behavioral Components

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

13.2.2 Sources of Attitudes

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

a.   Family Members

Parents or siblings influence strongly to form favorable or unfavorable attitudes towards various objects. The child rearing practices, the types of reinforcement received from parents or siblings will help mould certain attitudes such as strong preference towards

color, religious faith, choices of food habits etc which would be stable and long lasting over a period of time.

b.   Reference Group

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

c.   Peer Group influence

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

d.   Socialization and Learning process

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

12.2.3 Types of Attitudes

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

a.   Job Satisfaction

The term job satisfaction refers to an individual's general attitudes towards their job. The likingness or dislikingness differ from individual to individual with respect to job contextual factors or job content factors. Some people give much importance to job contextual factors like salary, security, supervision, supportive colleagues, company policy, working conditions, perquisites, promotions, equitable rewards etc. Whereas others may show much interest in   job content factors such as advancement, challenging assignments, career progress, appreciation and recognition, work itself.

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

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

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

b. Job Involvement

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

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

c. Organizational Commitment

It is refers to the extent to which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in the organization. The person shows much of association and loyalty to their organization. Organizational commitment has gained a great deal of interest in recent years because of the changing nature of the workplace. People, who feel a perfect congruence between his values, beliefs, attitudes, and the organizational policies, practices, programs and its overall work culture, are likely to have more commitment than those who have incongruence. In order to elicit a high level of commitment from the employees, a due care must be taken at every stages right from the recruitment to retirement. Administering suitable screening tests such as aptitude tests, personality tests, interest's tests etc will help significantly placing a right person to do a right type of job.

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

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

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

12.2.4 Attitudes and Consistency

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

12.2.5 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

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

It is very difficult process to avoid dissonance completely. But one can minimize the occurrences of such dissonance by carefully choosing the choices or changing the attitudes suitably. One of the most interesting examples of this cognitive dissonance is as follows: Mr Ramesh,   who has been brought up with high moral values and cultivated to do right things and uphold strong human values, has joined a pharmaceutical firm as sales representative promoting and selling drugs meant for expectant mothers. Based on this understanding and knowledge of pharmaceutical field, he noticed that a particular drug is likely to have more side effects and it is harmful to the expectant mother. His boss is forcing him to push the product more aggressively among the doctors and hospitals. Due to this, he is undergoing a high level of cognitive dissonance due to discrepancy between his attitudes (belief that the drug is harmful to the expectant mother) and behavior (promoting and selling the drug). What will he do? Clearly, Ramesh is experiencing a high degree of cognitive dissonance. Because of the importance of the elements in this example, one cannot expect Ramesh to ignore the inconsistency. There are several paths that he can follow to deal with her dilemma.

i)   He can change his behavior (stop promoting and selling drug) and quitting the job.

ii)   He can reduce dissonance by concluding that the dissonance behavior is not so important after all (I have to make a living, and in my role as a sales representative, I have to promote the drug and make my organization to maker profit).

iii)   He can change her attitude (There is nothing wrong in this drug, and giving rationalization that all drugs have some amount of side effects).

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

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

Self-Perception Theory

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

Attitudes Surveys

It is eliciting responses from employees through questionnaires about how they feel about their jobs, work groups, supervisors, and the organization. Typically attitude surveys present the employee with a set of statements or questions. Ideally, the items will be tailor-made to obtain the specific information that management desires. An attitude score is achieved by summing up responses to the individual questionnaire items. These scores can be then being averaged for work groups, department, divisions or the organizations as whole.

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

13.3   LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about Attitude and components of attitude. Various sources of attitude and types of attitude is also discussed along with attitude consistency and cognitive dissonance theory.

13.4   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1.   What is cognitive dissonance and how is it related to attitudes?

2.   What are the components of attitudes? How attitudes can be measured?

3.   What are the functions of attitudes?

4.   How attitudes are formed? Can attitudes be changed?

5.   Explain self – perception theory and its application in work life?

13.5   REFERENCES

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UNIT-IV

LESSON-14

GROUPS IN ORGANISATIONS

CONTENTS

14.1   GROUP DYNAMICS

Group is defined as two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives. Dynamics means force. Group dynamics encompasses the dynamics of interaction pattern within the group, the subtle and not-so-subtle pressures exerted by group members, the manner of arriving at decisions, how work gets done and members' needs are met. Group dynamics represent the forces operating in groups, which has an impact on how members work together.

A group may be defined as the aggregation of small number of persons who work for common goals, develop a shared attitude and are aware that they are part of a group and perceive themselves as such. Groups develop their own unique characteristics and each group has its own "personality", reflected in the way its members operate in it. Understanding group dynamics will enable managers to competently manage groups effectively leading to organisational effectiveness.

14.1.1 FEATURES OF GROUPS

Two or more persons:

To form a group, there should be at least two persons, because a single individual cannot interact. However, there cannot be any specific limit on the maximum number of persons

in a group but the size of the group will be determined by rules and regulations of the organisation in this context, or meaningful interaction among the members in the case of informal groups.

Collective Identity:
Members of the group must be aware about their membership of the group. Each member of the group must believe that he is a member of is a participant in, some specific group. It is the awareness of each other that most clearly differentiates a group from a random aggregation of individuals.

Interaction:

Members of the group interact among themselves. Interaction means that each member shares his ideas with others through communication and this communication can take place face-to-face, in writing, over the telephone, across a computer network, or in any other manner which allows communication among group members. However, it is not necessary for all members of the group to interact simultaneously, but each member must interact at least occasionally with one or more members of the group.

Shared Goal Interest:

Members of the group should subscribe to the attainment of some common objectives. However, it is not necessary that each member subscribes to or agrees with all the objectives of the group. If a group has a variety of objectives or interests, each member of the group must share at least one of the group's concerns. The shared goal interest binds the group members together.

14.1.2 TYPES OF GROUPS

Groups may be classified into different types. The basis of differentiation may be purpose, extent of structuring, process of formation and size of the group membership. Each type has different features and different effects on its participants.

Primary Groups: A primary group is characterised by intimate, face-to-face association and cooperation. The membership of such a group is small and is based on intimate relationship. Examples of such groups may be families or neighbourhood groups.

Secondary Groups: A secondary group is more formal, general and remote. The members of the secondary group may not have any interest in the problems and pleasures of others. The continuous interaction, intimacy, face-to-face interaction, cooperation and association of primary; groups may not be found in secondary groups.

Formal Groups: These refer to those groups defined by the organisation's structure, with designated work assignments establishing tasks. In these groups, the behaviours that one should engage in are stimulated by and directed toward organisational goals. The six members making up an airline flight crew are an example of a formal group.

Informal groups: these are alliances that are neither formally structured nor organizationally determined. These groups are natural formations in the work environment that appear in response to the need for social contact. Three employees from different departments who regularly eat lunch together are an example of an informal group.

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

Command Groups: Command groups are determined by the organisation chart. It is composed of the individuals who report directly to a given manager. An elementary school principal and her 18 teachers form a command group.

Task Groups: These groups are also organisationally determined, represent those working together to complete a job task. However, a task group's boundaries are not limited to its immediate hierarchical superior. It can cross command relationships. It is comprised of the employees who work together to complete a particular task or project.

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. Such groups are" called interest groups. Employees who join together to have their vacation schedules altered is an example for this type of groups.

Friendship Groups: Groups often develop because the individual members have one or more common characteristics. These groups are known as Friendship groups.

Membership Groups: A membership group is one to which an individual really belongs. An individual may be member of several groups at the same time.

Reference Groups: The attractiveness of the reference group makes the norms of that group more attractive to the individual who aspires to it and its norms will therefore, become more influential in determining behaviour. The reference groups have more relevance to organisational behaviour.

There is no single reason why individuals join groups, because most people belong to ~ number of groups. From this it is obvious that different groups provide different benefits to their members.

14.1.3 WHY DO PEOPLE JOIN GROUPS?

Following are the 'most popular reasons people have for joining groups.

Security: By joining a group, individuals can reduce the insecurity of "standing alone". People feel stronger, have fewer self-doubts and are more resistant to threats when they are part of a group.

Status: Inclusion in a group that is viewed as important by others provides recognition and status for its members.

Self-esteem: Groups can provide people with feelings of self-worth. That is, in addition to' conveying status to those outside the group, membership can also give increased feelings of worth to the group members themselves.

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

Power: What cannot be achieved individually often becomes possible through group action. There is power in numbers. More the number more is the power.

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

14.1.4 GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Groups generally pass through a standardised sequence in their evolution. This sequence is known as the five-stage model of group development.

Stages of Group Development

Forming:

At the first stage, group members get introduced to each other if they have not interacted earlier. They share personal information, start to accept others and begin to turn their attention towards the group tasks. At this stage interaction among group members is often cautious especially when they are new to one another.

Storming:
After the forming stage, which is mostly related to perceiving and assessing each other, members start interaction among themselves in the form of competing for status, jockeying for relative control and arguing for appropriate strategies to be adopted for achieving group's goals. .Due to individual differences, different members may experience varying degree of tension and anxiety out of this interaction pattern.
'
Norming:

After storming stage, group members start settling. The group begins to moving in a cooperative fashion, and a tentative balance among competing forces is struck. At this stage, group norms emerge to guide individual behaviour which form the basis for cooperative feelings and behaviour among members.

Performing :

When group members interact among themselves on the basis of norms that have emerged in the group, they learn to handle complex problems that come before the group. Functional roles are performed and exchanged as needed and tasks are accomplished efficiently.

Adjourning:

Adjourning is the end phase of group development stages. Sooner or later, each group has to be adjourned, even the most successful groups as they have completed their mission: The adjournment stage takes place in the case of those groups which are created for some special purposes like task force, committee. etc. Other types of groups like a department in an organisation run on the basis of some permanency though there may be changes in group members. After the adjournment of the group, intense social relationship among members comes to an end.

Figure : Stages of Group Development

14.1.5 INTEGRATION OF INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP

When a group is constituted, there is a need for integrating the individual with the group. Integration of individual and group implies that he perceives group goals as his personal goals, thereby he feels inspired to follow group norms and to contribute maximum to achieve these goals. Need for integrating individual and group arises because each individual sees his heed satisfaction dependent on his personal contribution and not on the contribution of the group of which he is a member.

Methods of integrating Individual and Group
To some extent, integration of individual and group is a natural phenomenon because being a group member, he contributes something (his effort for group performance) and in return, he gets inducement (economic and non-economic rewards). However, this natural phenomenon does not work effectively in the case of a work group as individual members tend to emphasise on their personal performance at the cost of group performance. Therefore, some methods should be adopted by the organisation to integrate individual and group: These methods are socialisation, training and rewards.

Socialisation:

Socialisation is the process through which an individual is developed as a functioning member of the group according to its standards, conforming to its modes and adjusting himself to the group situations. If this socialisation takes place effectively, there is

integration of individual and group. Recognising the importance of socialisation, many organisations hold socialisation programmes in a formal way, especially for new employees.

Training:

To integrate individual and group, suitable training can be provided to all group members. Besides the technical training that is helpful in work performance, group members are provided training to enable them to experience the satisfaction that the group may provide. Further, training is also provided to improve their problem solving, communication, negotiation and conflict management skills so that they become effective members of the group. All these may result into group effectiveness which becomes the source of satisfaction to the group members.

Rewards:

In general, rewards are presented for desirable behaviour and punishments are provided for undesirable behaviour. These rewards may be provided on individual basis or group basis. For integrating individual and group, rewards should be provided on group basis. In order to make group reward effective, it should be used to encourage cooperative efforts rather than competitive efforts. For example, behaviours that should be rewarded include training new members, sharing information with group members, helping to resolve group conflicts and developing new skills that the group needs but in which it is deficient.

14.1.6 GROUP BEHAVIOUR

In groups, it happens that some groups perform well and generate synergy, whereas some groups do not- perform well and result into social loafing. This happens because there are several factors, both within groups and outside these, which affect group performance.

Figure 4.2: Group behaviour model
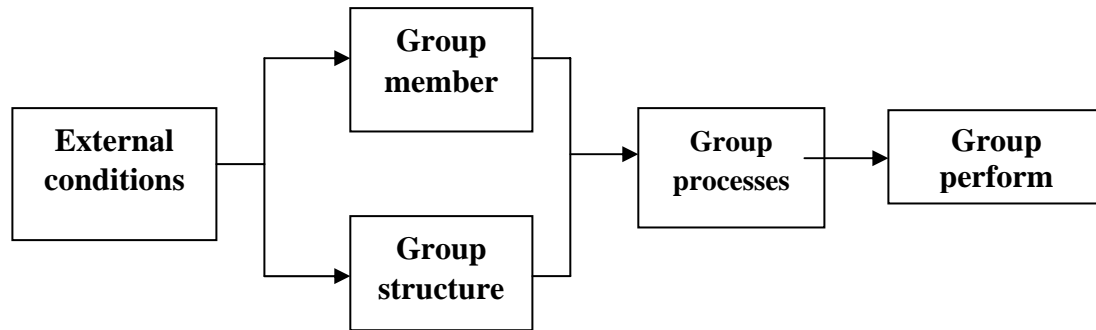
External conditions:

A group is not an independent identity, but is created by an organisation to perform certain specified work. Thus, a group has to work within the framework provided by the organisation. Organisational factors that impose conditions for group working are organisation's strategy, its resources, rules and regulations, authority structure, performance evaluation and reward systems, physical work setting and culture. To the extent these are positive, group performance will be positive. In a negative scenario, group performance will be negative.

Group member resources:

A group's potential performance depends, to a great extent, on the resources that its individual members bring to the group. These resources may be classified into two groups: (i) knowledge, skills and abilities, and (ii) personality characteristics. If the knowledge, skills and abilities of group members match with group requirements, group performance is likely to, be better. Besides these, members' personality characteristics are also relevant to group performance. It has been found that personality traits, such as sociability, openness, initiative and flexibility contribute positively to group performance while authoritarianism, dominance and unconventionality tend to result into poor group performance.

Group structure:

A group is not an unorganised mob of few individuals but a conscious and purposive creation. Therefore, the group must have structure just like an organisation has structure. In a simple term, structure is the pattern in which various parts or components of an object are interrelated or interconnected in the case of a physical object, such a pattern is visible but in the case of a social object like work group, this is not visible. Therefore, the structure of a work group has to be deduced from its various components and how they work. These are group composition, group size, roles, leadership, group norms, group cohesiveness and status. All these affect group performance.

a. Group composition:

The composition of a group plays an important role in determining group performance. Group composition is most often defined in terms of homogeneity or heterogeneity of the group members. A group is homogeneous if the members are similar in one or several ways that are critical to the work of the group, such as age, work experience, education, technical specialty etc. Whether homogeneous or heterogeneous group should be created, depends on the type of task the group is expected to perform. In certain types of tasks, homogeneous groups are more appropriate while in other types of tasks, heterogeneous groups are more appropriate. Homogeneous groups are suitable for simple, sequential tasks which require cooperation. Heterogeneous groups are suitable for complex, collective tasks which require creativity.

b. Group size:

Group size can have an important effect on group performance. While a larger group has advantage over a smaller group in terms of idea generation and availability of resources, it may produce inhibition for interaction and communication among group members. A sm81ler group may be effective in terms of interaction and communication among group members but lacks ability to handle complex tasks. Therefore, group size should be determined by taking into consideration the factors such as nature of tasks to be performed, maturity of group members and ability of group leader to manage communication, conflict and group activities.

c. Role:

A role is the pattern of behaviours expected of a person occupying a particular position in a social unit. Since a person may be part of several social units like family, friendship group, organisation etc., he may occupy several positions at the same time. Even in an organisation, working as an employee, a person may hold many positions. In every such form of position, behaviours expected from him may be different. Thus, there are certain actual behavi}urs and they create role identity. There are two elements that define Role Identity*:* role perception and role expectations.

Role perception:

An individual is expected to behave according to his own perception in the group or organization. The person forms this perception on the basis of certain stimuli like job description, clues provided in training programmes, role narration by peers etc. However, this perception mayor may not be correct. In order to correct this perception, analysis of role expectations is required.

Role expectations:

Role expectations are defined as how others believe one should behave in a given situation. Combining both role perception and role expectations, the actual role for an individual is determined.

d. Leadership:

A group leader plays an important role in the functioning of the group, He may take the group to a new height by channelising the group members' resources through effective use of his leadership or may bring the group to low level through ineffective use of his leadership. Role *of* leadership in managing an organisation has become so important that it has attracted the attention of both management academicians and practitioners.

e. Group Norms:

Norms are rules of behaviour or proper ways of action which are accepted as legitimate by group members. The kinds of behaviour that are expected from group members are specified by these norms. Group members form and conform norms. According to Hackman, group norms have five characteristics:

Norms summarise and simplify group influence processes. They summarise and highlight those things that the group feels important to control.

Norms apply only to behaviours and not to private thoughts and feelings. It will be sufficient if there is behavioural compliance from the members. Private acceptance of norms is not necessary.

Norms are generally developed only for behaviours which are considered as important by most group members. Norms usually develop gradually.

Not all norms apply to everyone in the group in the same manner. High status members enjoy more freedom to deviate from the norms.

Group norms perform two functions:

First, norms help the group to accomplish its goals. Second, norms
help the group to maintain itself as a group.

Common Types of Norms:

a. Performance Norms: 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, appropriate levels of tardiness etc. These norms are extremely powerful in affecting an individual employee's performance - they are capable of significantly modifying a performance prediction that was based solely on the employee's ability and level of personal motivation.

b. Appearance Norms: This includes things like appropriate dress, loyalty to the work group or organisation, when to look busy, and when it is acceptable to relax. 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. Similarly, presenting the appearance of loyalty is important, especially among professional employees and those in the executive ranks.

c. Social arrangement Norms: These norms come from informal work groups and primarily regulate social interactions within the group. With whom group members eat lunch, friendships on and off the job, social games and the like are influenced by these norms.

d. Allocation of resources Norms: These norms can originate in the group or in the organisation and cover things like pay, assignment of difficult jobs and allocation of new tools and equipments.

Enforcing Group Norms

Group norms may vary from a very simple rule to very complex set of prescriptions and prohibitions. Therefore, it is not always possible to enforce norms quite easily. Group leaders can devise certain actions for the adherence to group norms, particularly those norms which are critical to the group. These actions may be of the following types.

(i)   Education: Adherence to group norms can be increased through educating the group members about how the group norms contribute to the achievement of group goals. They may be educated and persuaded to give up their gains in favour of the group gains. Increasing each member's involvement in the group's activities also helps in adherence to group norms.

(ii) Surveillance: Surveillance of adherence to group norms provides clue to measure the degree to which group members adhere to norms. Such a clue helps managers to devise suitable actions for ensuring conformity to norms. If the deviation to norms cannot be detected directly, some other means can be developed to measure this.

(iii) Warning: Those members who do not follow the group norms can be warned of the consequences of non-adherence to group norms. Such a warning may induce the deviant members to reappraise their profit or loss from adherence or non-adherence to group norms.

(iv) Sanctions: This is the stage of taking actions against the members who do not adhere to the group norms. However, sanctions have some negative consequences. Therefore, they should be used quite judiciously. Sanctions should be used only if means of persuading do not bring out any change in their behaviour.

f. Group Cohesiveness

Groups differ in their cohesiveness, that is, the degree to which members are attracted to each other are motivated to stay in the group. For instance, some work groups are cohesive because the members have spent a great deal of time together, or the group's small size facilitates high interaction, or the group has experienced external threats that have brought members close together. Cohesiveness is important because it has been found to be related to the group's productivity. Thus, Cohesiveness, which means the degree of attachment of the members to their groups, usually has the following features:

a.   The members share the group goals and norms and have common interests and backgrounds.

b.   The number of members is small.

c.   The members interact among themselves quite frequently and interpersonal communication is very effective.

d.   Group loyalty among the members is high because the group enjoys high status.

e.   The members stand united against any perceived external threats to the group.

f.   The members keep themselves glued to the group as they feel that their needs would be satisfied by the group.

g.   The group has a history of past success.

Factors affecting Group Cohesiveness:

There are various factors which determine the degree of group cohesiveness. Such factors are as follows:

Degree of dependency on the group: The more dependent a person is on a group for some result or effect, the greater will be the group's attractiveness, and consequently greater is its cohesiveness. It has been suggested that the greater the number of individual needs a group can or does satisfy, the greater is its attractiveness and its cohesiveness.

Size: Other t4ings being equal, size has an inverse relationship with group cohesiveness. This is so because group cohesiveness increases through interaction among group members. Thus, larger a group becomes, the lesser opportunity exists for interaction among the members.

Homogeneity and stable membership: Groups whose members have different interests and backgrounds are often less effective in promoting their interests. Similarly, stable relationships among members enhance group cohesiveness. This is so because the relationships have to persist over a period of time to permit people to know one another to develop common understanding of shared goals and values..

Location of the group: Location of the group affects group cohesion in two ways. First, if the group members are located close to each other, they interact themselves frequently and freely. Therefore, group cohesion would be high. Second, if the group is isolated from other groups, cohesion is high. Where the line dividing one group and other groups does not exist, cohesion is not easy to achieve because a chain of interactions develops among members of various groups.

Group status: A group with high status and success stories is more attractive to its members. Therefore, they show solidarity among themselves and group cohesion tends to be high. As against this, a group which is denounced by all tends to have less cohesion.

Group leadership: The qualities of the group leader determine the extent to which the group members bind themselves with the group. If the leader is dynamic and energetic, he motivates the group members to work with interest for the attainment of common goals. He tries to build and maintain high group loyalty among members.

Outside pressure: Members of a group tend to herd together to face challenges from outside pressures. When there are pressures from outside, group members tend to minimize their personal differences in order to fight the common enemy. However, it may also happen that the group is unable to bear the excessive pressures and group cohesiveness cannot be achieved to withstand such pressures.

Competition: The type of competition affects group cohesiveness. Two classes of competition have different types of effects on group cohesion. These are intra-group competition, that is, competition among the group members, and intergroup competition, that is, competition as a whole between two or more groups. Competition among members of the group is usually destructive to group cohesiveness. As against this, intergroup competition' brings cohesiveness in the groups.

Group Cohesion and Productivity

Group cohesiveness, along with group norms for productivity, affects productivity. This relationship was established by Hawthorne experiments. During the experiments, it was found that the workers tended to set their own norms of production for the group as a

whole, and because of group cohesiveness, they used to stick to those norms. Group cohesiveness and productivity show two types of characteristics.

a. The productivity of members of a cohesive group tends to be more uniform. This is so because high group 'cohesiveness promotes high control over the level of production of the individual members and this reduces variation among those members.

b. In the group with low cohesiveness, productivity tends to show wide variation among members reflecting that the group has lower social control over its members.

There may be a perception that highly cohesive group produces better results. However, this relationship is much more complex than what it appears to be, because the relationship is moderated by the degree to which the group's attitudes align with its own goals or those of the organization of which it is a part. Thus, the relationship of cohesiveness and productivity of the group depends on the alignment of the group's attitudes towards the organizational goals. This relationship is depicted in the following figure:

	High Cohesiveness	Low Cohesiveness
High Performance norms	High Productivity	Moderate Productivity
Low Performance norms	Low Productivity	Moderate to Low Productivity

Thus, it is clear that for high productivity, both group cohesiveness and performance norms should be high. If the performance norms are low, the group's productivity will be low in spite of high group cohesiveness. Even in the case of high performance norms, less cohesive group may produce more as compared to highly cohesive group because of lower impact of group on its individual members.

The above relationship between group cohesiveness, group norms and productivity has important implications for management. If management simply focuses its attention to have better cohesive groups, it may not be able to achieve high productivity unless it focuses its attention on group norms and their alignment with organizational goals.

g. Status

It is a socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others. Even the smallest group will develop roles, rights and rituals to differentiate its members. Status is an important factor in understanding human behaviour because it is a significant motivator and has major consequences when individuals perceive a disparity between what they believe their status to be and what others perceive it to be.

According to status characteristics theory, differences in status characteristics create status hierarchies within groups. Moreover, status tends to be derived from one of three sources: the power a person exercises over others, a person's ability to contribute to a group's goals, and an individual's personal characteristics.

Groups generally agree within themselves on status criteria and, hence, there is usually high concurrence in group rankings of individuals. However, individuals can find themselves can find themselves in a conflict situation when they move between groups whose status criteria are different or when they join groups whose members have 'heterogeneous backgrounds.

Functions of Status System:

The establishing of a status system is one of the very first steps in creating an organization. Barnard has identified three functions of status system in an organization. They are

Communication: Status is the primary means by which the communication system in an organization is established. A communication system to be effective must be designed in such a way that communications are authentic, authoritative and intelligible.

Incentives: Status system functions as an important part of the system of incentives. It is important because maintenance and improvement of status are among the essential incentives to cooperation. Besides material and other forms of incentives, status system provides high motivation for the individuals in the organization.

Responsibility: The status system is a strong developer of the sense of responsibility and therefore, of stability and reliability. While people strive hard to achieve status, they struggle harder to keep from losing it. Consequently, people striving for status needs are driven to discharge their tasks with greater responsibility.
Status Symbols
Status symbols are the various indicators on the basis of which a person of higher status is distinguished from a lower status person. Thus, status symbols area set of externally visible markings that systematically rank individuals and groups in relation to each other. There can be several types of status symbols:

Insignia: Places or people having different status can be distinguished on the basis of insignia marks of identification differentiating things or people of different status. For example, various hotels are classified on the basis of stars and a minister's car will bear a flag as a symbol.

Titles and designations: People are motivated by status symbols. For example, Professor, Reader or Lecturer designates various status symbols.

Pay and Perquisites:
Every organization designs some salary structure and people are placed in various grades. A person placed in higher grade has higher status. Sometimes, special perquisites; also known as perks, are given to maintain high status. Example, personal allowances.

Physical facilities:

Status of people can be distinguished on the basis of various facilities provided to them at workplace. It is quite common to provide rooms of different sizes, tables of different sizes, furniture of different types or even name plates of different sizes and designs, exclusive parking places to distinguish among different status.

Group Processes

In every group, there are different processes that are used in getting things done. A process can be defined as a systematic method of handling activities. Within a work group, processes that have important implications for group performance are communication, leader behaviour, power dynamics, conflicts and cooperation and group decision making.

Social Facilitation Effect

Social facilitation effect refers to the tendency for performance to improve or decline in response to the presence of others. The research on social facilitation effect suggests that performance- of simple, routine tasks tends to be speeded up and made more accurate by presence of others. When the work is more complex, requiring closer attention, the presence of others is likely to have a negative effect on performance. Due to the operation of social facilitation effect of group factors, two types of features may appear in groups. They are as follows:

Synergy in group:

Groups are created basically to take advantage of synergistic effect. "Synergy is the process of putting two or more elements together to achieve a sum total greater than the sum total of individual elements separately. This effect can be described as 2 + 2= 5 effect"

Social Loafing:

Social loafing is the tendency for individuals to expend less effort when working collectively than when working individually.

14.2   LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have learnt about group and group dynamics. Group has common features like two or more persons, collective identity, interaction etc. types of groups are also discussed along with the reasons for joining group. Stages of group development also explained in this lesson.

14.3 LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1. What are the stages of group development?

2. What are the types of group norms?

3. What are the different types of group?

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LESSON-15

EXPERIMENT ON HUMAN RELATIONS

CONTENTS

15.1   Introduction

15.2   Hawthorne Experiments

15.3   Let us sum up

15.4   Lesson end activities

15.5   Reference

15.1   INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters we had discussed Individuals, individual differences and the behaviour of individuals. We had come to understand that no two individuals are similar and that everybody behaves in a different manner in a given situation.

Organisation is where more than one person works. Hence, we know that people have to work and interact with many people in the organisational setup. An individual's personal goal is complemented by organisational goals. When this happens, groups are formed in the organisations. Previously, people were under the impression that money will motivate people to work. When researches were conducted, this concept was under contradiction. Researchers came to understand that some other factors were influencing the behaviour and performance of the individuals.

Hawthorne Experiments were conducted to find out what factors were influencing the behaviour of individuals. A detailed discussion follows to explain the outcome of these experiments.

Based upon these experiments and various other studies conducted, many concepts were identified about the behaviour of individuals, behaviour of individuals in groups, the influence of group members on the behaviour and performance of individuals and many truths about interpersonal relationships.

When these details are well understood, it becomes very easy to analyse the behaviour of individuals when they are alone and when they are in groups. This knowledge will help in effective management.

15.2   HAWTHORNE EXPERIMENTS

The findings of earlier writers, particularly of scientific management, which focused attention on the mechanical and physiological variables of organisational functioning, were tested in the field to increase the efficiency of the organisations. Surprisingly, positive aspects of these variables could not evoke positive response in work behaviour, and researchers tried to investigate the reasons for human behaviour at work. They discovered that the real cause of human behaviour was something more than mere physiological variables. Such findings generated a new phenomenon about the human behaviour and focused attention on the human beings in the organisations. This approach is known as 'human relations approach of management'.

The Hawthorne plant of the General Electric Company, Chicago, was manufacturing telephone system bell. It employed about 30,000 employees at the time of experiments. Although in respect of material benefits to the workers, this was the most progressive company with pension and sickness benefits and many recreational facilities, th.ere was great deal of dissatisfaction among the workers and productivity was not up to the mark. After the utter failure of an investigation conducted by efficiency experts, in 1924, the company asked for the assistance from the National Academy of Sciences to investigate the problems of low productivity.

In order to investigate the real causes behind this phenomenon, a team was constituted led by Elton Mayo (psychologist), Whitehead and Roethlisberger (sociologists) and company representative, William Dickson. The researchers originally set out to study the relationship between productivity and physical working conditions. They conducted various researches in four phases with each phase attempting to answer the questions raised at the previous phase. The four phases were as follows:

1.   Experiments to determine the effects of changes in illumination on productivity, Illumination experiments, 1924-27;

2.   Experiments to determine the effects, of changes in hours and other working

conditions on productivity, Relay Assembly Test Room experiments, 1927-28;

3.   Conducting plant'-wide interviews to determine worker attitudes and sentiments,

Mass Interviewing programme, 1928,-30; and

4.   Determination and analysis of social organisation at work, Bank Wiring Observation Room experiments, 1931:32.

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. The hypothesis was that with higher illumination, productivity would increase. In the first series of experiments, a group of workers was chosen and placed in two separate groups.

One group was exposed to varying intensities of illumination. Since this group was subjected to experimental changes, it was termed as Experimental group. Another group, called Control group, continues to work under constant intensities of illumination. The researchers found that as they increased the illumination in the experimental group, both groups increased production. When the intensity of illumination was decreased, the production continued to increase in both the groups. The production in the experimental group decreased only when the illumination was decreased to the level of moonlight. The decrease was due to light falling much below the normal level. Thus, it was concluded that illumination did not have any effect on productivity but something else was interfering with the productivity. At that time, it was concluded that human factor was important in determining productivity, but the aspect that was affecting, could not be identified. Therefore, another phase of experiments was undertaken.

Relay Assembly Test Room Experiments

Relay assembly test room experiments were designed to determine the effect of changes in various job conditions on group productivity as the illumination experiments could not establish relationship between intensity of illumination I and production. For this purpose, the researchers set up a .relay assembly test, room and two girls were chosen. These girls were asked to choose four more girls as co-workers. The work related to the assembly of telephone relays. Each relay consisted of a number of parts which girls assembled into finished products. Output depended on the speed and continuity with which girls worked. The experiments started with introducing numerous changes in sequence with duration of each change ranging from four to twelve weeks. An observer was associated with girls to supervise their work. Before each change was introduced, the girls were consulted. They were given opportunity to express their viewpoints and concerns to the supervisor. In some cases, they were allowed to take decisions on concerning them. Following were the changes and resultant outcome.

1. The incentive system was changed so that each girl's extra pay was based on the other five rather than output of larger group, say, 100 workers or so. The productivity increases as compared to before.

2. Two five- minute rests – one in the morning session and other in evening session – were introduced which were increased to ten minutes. Then productivity increased.

3. The rest period was reduced to five minutes, but frequency was increased. The productivity decreased slightly and the girls complained that frequent rest intervals affected the rhythm of the work.

4. The number of rest was reduced to two of ten minutes each, but in the morning, coffee or soup was served along with sandwich and in the evening, snack was provided. The productivity increased.

5. Changes in working hours and working day were introduced, such as cutting an hour off at the end the day and eliminating Saturday work. The girls were allowed to leave at 4.30 p.m. instead of usual 5.00 p.m. and later at 4.00 p.m. productivity.

Mass interviewing programme :

During the course of experiments, about 20,000 interviews were conducted between 1928 and 1930 to determine employees' attitudes towards company, supervision, insurance plans, promotion and wages. The interview programme gave valuable insights about the human behavior in the company. Some of the major findings of the progamme were as follows:

1.   A complaint is not necessarily an objective rectal of facts; it is a symptom of personal disturbance, the cause of which may be deep seated.

2.   Objects, persons and events are carriers of social meaning. They become related to employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction only as the employee comes to view them from his personal situation.

3.   The personal situation of the worker is a configuration, composed of a personal preference involving sentiments, desires and interests of the person and social reference constituting the person's social past and his present interpersonal relations.

4.   The position or status of a worker in the company is a reference from which the worker assigns meaning values to the events, objects and features of his environment such as hours of work, wages etc.

5.   The social organization of the company represents a system of values from which the derives satisfaction and dissatisfaction according to the perception of his social status and the expected social rewards.

6.   The social demands of the worker are influences by social experience in groups both inside and outside the work plant.

Bank wiring observation room Experiments

These experiments were carried on between November 1931 and May 1932 with a view to analyse the functioning of small group and its impact on individual behavior. A group of fourteen male workers was employed in the bank wiring room: nine wiremen, three solder men and two inspectors. The work involved attaching wire to switches for certain equipment used in telephone exchange. Hourly wage rate to switches for certain equipment used in telephone exchange. Hourly wage rate for the personnel was based on average output of each worker, while bonus was to be determined on the basis of average group output. The hypothesis was that in order to earn more, workers would produce more and in order to take advantage s of group bonus, they would help each other to produce more. However, this hypothesis did not hold valid. Workers decided the target for themselves which was lower than the company's target, for example, group's target for a day was connecting 6,600 terminals against 7,300 terminals set by the company. The workers gave following reasons for the restricted output:

Fear of unemployment: the basic reasoning of workers was that if there would be more production per head, some of the workers would be put out of employment.

Fear of raising the standards: Most workers were convinced that once they had reached the standard rate of production, management would raise the standard or production reasoning that it must be easy to attain. .

Protection of slower workers: The workers were friendly on the job as well as off the job. They appreciated the fact that they had family responsibility that required them to remain in the job. Since slower workers were likely to be retrenched, the faster workers protected them by not overproducing.

Satisfaction on the part of management: According to workers, management seemed to accept the lower production rate as no one was being fired or even reprimanded for restricted output.

The workers in the group set certain norms of behaviour including personal conduct. The workers whose behaviour was in conformity with both output norm and social norm' were most preferred. This study suggested that informal relationships are an important factor in determining the human behaviour. During the course of experiments, workers were counselled for good human relations in the company's plant. The counselling was in regard to personal adjustment, supervision; employee relations and management-employee relations. The supervisors tended to understand and accept the problems of workers, and management tried to sense their feelings which were helpful in formulating the action for resolving management-employee conflicts.

Implications of Hawthorne Experiments

Hawthorne experiments have opened a new chapter in management by suggesting management through good human relations. Human relations involve motivating people in organisation in, order to develop teamwork which effectively fulfils their needs and achieves organisational goals. Hawthorne experiments have tried to unearth those factors which are important for motivating people at workplace. The major findings of the experiments are as follows:

Social factors in output:

An organisation is basically influenced by social factors. In fact, Elton Mayo, one of the researchers engaged in Hawthorne experiments, has described an organisation as "a social system, a system of cliques, informal status system, rituals, and a mixture of logical, non-logical behaviour" Thus, an organisation is not merely a formal structure of functions in which production' is determined by the official prescription but the characteristics determine the output and efficiency in the organisation. Economic rewards and productivity do not necessarily go together. Many non-economic rewards and sanctions affect the behaviour of workers and modify the impact of economic rewards. While motivating workers, these factors should be taken into consideration.

Group influence:

Workers being social beings, they create groups which may be different from their official group. ,In fact, groups are formed to overcome the shortcomings of formal relationships. The group determines the norm of behaviour of members. If a person resists a particular norm of group behaviour, he tries to change the group norm because any deviation from the group norm will make him unacceptable to the group. Thus, management cannot deal with workers as individuals but as members of work group subject to the influence of the group.

Conflict:

The informal relations of workers create groups, and there may be conflict between organisation and groups so created. The conflict may be because of incompatible objectives of the two. However, groups may help to achieve organisational objectives by overcoming the restraining aspect of the formal relations which produce hindrance in productivity. Conflict may also arise because of maladjustment of workers and organisation. As the individual moves through the time and space within the organisation, there constantly arises the need for adjustment of the individual to the total structure. In the absence of such adjustment, either individual progresses upward at a rapid pace or the organisation structure itself may change over the time while the individual remains standstill. In either event, the change takes place in the position of the individual with respect to organisation structure, hence adjustment is required.

Leadership:

Leadership is important for directing group behaviour, and this is one of the most important aspects of managerial functions. However, leadership cannot come only from a formally-appointed superior as held by earlier thinkers. There may be informal leader as shown by bank wiring experiments. In some areas, informal leader is more important in directing group behaviour because of his identity with group objective. However, a superior is more acceptable as a leader if his style is in accordance with human relations approach, that is, the superior should identify himself with the workers.

Supervision:

Supervisory climate is an important aspect in determining efficiency and output. Friendly to the workers, attentive, genuinely concerned supervision affects the productivity favourably. For example, in the bank wiring room experiments, an entirely different supervisory climate - more friendly to the workers and less use of authority in issuing orders - existed, which helped in productivity, while in regular departments, supervisors were concerned with maintaining order and control which produced inhibiting atmosphere and resulted into lower productivity.

Communication:

The experiments show that communication is an important aspect of organisation. Through communication, workers can be explained the rationality of a particular action, participation of workers can be sought in decision making concerning the matter of their importance, problems faced by them' can be identified, and attempts can be made to remove these. A better understanding between management and workers can be developed by identifying their attitudes, opinions and methods of working and taking suitable actions on these.

Following are the criticisms made against the Hawthorne experiments:

1. The Hawthorne researchers did not give sufficient attention to the attitudes that people bring with them to the workplace. They did not recognise such forces as class consciousness, the role of unions and other extra-plant forces on attitudes of workers.

2. The Hawthorne plant was a typical plant because it was a thoroughly unpleasant place to work. Therefore, the results could not be valid for others.

3. The Hawthorne studies look upon the worker as a means to an end, and not an end in himself. They assume acceptance of management's goals and look on the worker as someone to be manipulated by management.

In spite of these shortcomings, Hawthorne experiments will be known for discovering the importance of human factor in managing an organisation. The experiments have encouraged many researchers to study the human problems in management.

15.3   LET US SUM UP

In this unit we learnt about Howthorne experiments and its relevance in Organisational behaviour.

15.4   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1. What were the experiments conducted under the Hawthorne Experiments?

2. What are the implication of Hawthorne Experiments?

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LESSON-16

CONFLICTS

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16.1   Conflict

16.2   Sociometry

16.3   Let us sum up

16.4   Lesson end activities

16.5   References

16.1 CONFLICT

Definition of Conflict

Conflict can be defined as a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affects, something that the first party cares about.

The Traditional View

The early approach to conflict assumed that all conflict was bad. Conflict was viewed negatively, and it was used synonymously with such terms as violence, destruction and irrationality to reinforce its negative connotation. Conflict, by definition, was harmful and was to be avoided. This view prevailed about group behaviour in the 1930s and 1940s. Conflict was seen as a dysfunctional outcome resulting from poor communication, a lack of openness and trust between people and the failure of managers to be responsive to the needs and aspirations of their employees.

The Human Relations View

The human relations position argued that conflict was a natural occurrence in all groups and organisations. Since conflict was inevitable, the human relations school advocated acceptance of conflict. Conflicts arise because of individual differences in terms of values, goals and perceptions. The conflicts produce negative consequences, therefore, these should be resolved amicably. This view dominated conflict theory from the late 1940s through mid-1970s.

16.1.1 NA TUREOF CONFLICT

The Interactionist View

This view is based on the belief that conflict is not only a positive *force* in a group but is also necessary for a group to perform effectively. The interactionist view encourages conflict on the ground that a harmonious, peaceful and cooperative group is prone to become static ad non-responsive to the needs for change and innovation. It is the task of the group leader to allow conflicts to happen to keep the group viable, self-critical and creative. Conflict could be either substantive or emotional in nature. Substantive conflict involves fundamental differences over goals and how they are accomplished. Disagreement over resources allocation, policies and procedures, task assignments, rewards and the like are substantive in nature. Emotional conflict, on the other hand, arises from feelings of resentment, fear, anger, anxiety about one's own position and the like, as may be experienced in superior-subordinate relationships, interpersonal interactions with co-workers, groups, other departments, etc.

Positive or functional aspects of conflict:

Conflicts provide opportunities to individuals and groups to think again and take more concrete view of the situation.

These lead to innovation as conflicting situations always present threat to the working. In order to overcome this threat, the individuals and groups have to find out new ways of working.

Conflicts bring cohesiveness in group. This happens more in the case of intergroup conflicts.

Conflicts provide challenging work environment as these develop high degree of competition.

As conflicts develop among various individuals and groups, these indicate the shortcomings in the existing system of organisational functioning and management attention can be drawn for overcoming such shortcomings.

Conflicts may be used as a device to overcome many frustrations and tensions. People may express their frustration and tension by means of conflicts. Thus, they are relieved from utter mental tension.

Negative or dysfunctional aspects of conflict:

Conflict as a cost:

Sometimes individuals raise some degree of conflict and competition among themselves and their subordinates for better management of organisational affairs. The manager may, sometimes, also create dissent and competition deliberately among his subordinates in order to ensure that he will be brought as an arbiter at a critical time. However, this may become cost on the part of organisation if the conflictual relationship blocks the realisation of organisational or group objectives.

Conflict as a source of disequilibrium :

Conflict affects the equilibrium of the organisation. The equilibrium of the organisation can be understood in terms of contribution- inducement relationship. Disequilibrium is not desirable for the long run because this may cause widespread inefficiency in the organisation. There are other factors responsible for creating organizational disequilibrium. Thus, dysfunctional consequences of a conflict may lead to:

High tension among employees

Discontent along employees

Mistrust

Goal displacement, and

Resignation of employees

16.1.2 TYPES OF CONFLICTS

Individual Level Conflict

The analysis of conflicts may start at the individual level itself. Since an organisation is composed of various individuals, many conflicts develop at individual level. The individual level conflicts may be analysed in two ways:

Intrapersonal conflict

Intrapersonal conflict arises when tension is experienced within the individual. Within every individual, there are usually a number of competing goals and roles. An individual experiences two types of conflict in himself. They are as follows:

Goal Conflict:

A common source of conflict for an individual in an organisation which has both positive and negative features is the existence of two or more competing goals. Goal conflict occurs when two or more goals block each other. There can be three alternatives of goal conflict;

Approach - Approach Conflict

In this situation, the individual is caught between trying to decide upon one or another of two attractive goals, which are mutually exclusive. Approach-Approach conflict hardly seems to be a conflict as others because, whichever the choice the individual makes, he will attain a positively-valued outcome. The problem comes in when the valences or desirability are roughly equal. This type of conflict has probably least impact on organisational behaviour. The individual seeks more favourable information about the choice he is likely to make.

Approach - Avoidance Conflict:

In this situation, the individual has both positive and negative feelings about trying a goal

because the goal possesses both attractive and repulsive characteristics. This may arouse great deal of conflict in the person and may cause the person anxiety. This happens because the positive aspects of a given goal are stronger and more salient at a distance than the negative aspects. As the person gets nearer to the goal, the negative aspects become more pronounced, and at some point, the person may hesitate or fail to progress any further. The result is a great deal of internal conflict and stress. This type of goal conflict is very relevant for organisational behaviour.

Avoidance - Avoidance Conflict:

This is the situation where the individual must choose between two mutually exclusive goals, each of which possesses unattractive qualities. Unless other alternatives are available, such a conflict has a tendency to stay unresolved. This is so because closer one gets to choice, the more the negative aspects of the choice create a tendency to avoid the choice. If the individual makes a decision towards one of the avoidance-avoidance choices, the closer he gets to implement that decision, the more likely he is to be repelled by the negative characteristics of the choice, retreating towards the other decision. Ultimately, he can be seen to bounce back and forth, from dilemma to dilemma. Such a situation is stressful and anxiety-arousing because of the perceived inability to escape either of two painful options. Generally, a third alternative is available to the individual in the organisational setting. He may leave the organisation.

Understanding of goal conflict is important from the point of view of integrating individual and organisational goals as far as possible. The general approach of the management should be to resolve goal conflicts by building compatibility, not conflict, between personal and organisation goals.

Role Conflict:

An individual performs a number of roles. Although all the roles which he brings into the organisation are relevant to his behaviour, in the study of organisational behaviour, however, his organisational role is the most important. When expectations of role are materially different or opposite from the behaviour anticipated by the individual in that role, he tends to be in role conflict because there is no way to meet one expectation without rejecting the other.

Factors in role conflict
Role ambiguity:

When role expectations are inadequately defined or substantially unknown, role ambiguity exists. If the expectations associated with a role are unclear or ambiguously defined, the individual will experience difficulty in enacting the role.

Organisational position:

Organisational positions also determine the role conflict and ambiguity. This is so particularly when a person has to perform a variety of organisational roles assigned to him by the organisation.

Personal characteristics:
Personality dimensions like emotional sensitivity, introversion-extroversion, flexibility-rigidity and need for career achievement can be causes for role conflict.

Interpersonal Conflict:
In an organisation setting, there may be several forms of interpersonal conflicts, such as hierarchical conflict between various levels of management, functional conflict between occupational specialists, professional vs. professional conflict, and so on. These conflicts may be interpreted in two forms: vertical conflict and horizontal conflict.

Vertical conflict:

Vertical relationship, which is mostly in the form of superior-subordinate relationship, results in vertical conflicts which usually arise because superior attempts to control the behaviour of his subordinates and subordinates resist such control.

Horizontal conflict:

Horizontal conflict at interpersonal level is among the persons at the same hierarchical level in the same function or in different functions. Within each functional group, there may be many individuals and these individuals interact among themselves. Such interactions may be contacts for the purpose of giving, taking and soliciting advice, counsel, information and skilled assistance on difficult problems. These interactions may be cooperative or conflicting depending on the nature of persons involved in interaction and situational variables.

Causes of Interpersonal Conflict:

There are two major reasons for interpersonal conflicts in organisations: personal and situational. Personal causes include ego states, value systems and socio-cultural factors. Situational variables may be differences in interest and role ambiguity.

Group Level Conflicts :
Conflict may occur at group level. A group constitutes two or more persons who interact in such a way that each person influences and is influenced by others. Groups exist in every organisation and they affect the behaviour of their members. They not only affect the behaviour of their members, rather, they have impact on other groups and the organisation as a whole. In this level of conflicts, there are two types of conflicts:

Intragroup Conflict:

Conflicts between the members of the same group are known as intra-group conflicts. The disagreement may be over ethics, the way power should be exercised or moral considerations of assumptions, justice, and fairness and so on.

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Intergroup Conflict:

Intergroup conflict arises out of the interaction of various groups. The factors which create intergroup conflict are goal incompatibility, resource sharing, task relations, uncertainty absorption and attitudinal set.

Organisation Level Conflicts :

Conflict at organisation level may be intra-organisational and inter organisational. All the above mentioned types of conflict take place within the organisational setting. These are known as intra-organisational conflicts. In inter organisational conflicts, the organisation under study may become a party to the conflict with another organisation pursuing same goals or with a govemment agency. These conflicts involve competition among firms in the same industry, operating in the same market, between suppliers and manufacturers, or between a company and a government regulatory agency. Union-management conflicts are more intra-organisational in nature.

16.1.3 DYNAMICS OF CONFLICT

Conflict gives rise to a series of behaviour and responses between or among parties. Pondy (1967) developed a process model of conflict, which is very helpful in understanding how it starts ahd what stages it goes through. There e five stages termed as 'conflict episode', which are as follows:

Latent Conflict is the stage when certain factors existing in the situation could become potential conflict inducing forces. For example, if the resources (men, materials, money) of an organisation are limited and the various departments in the system press their demands for them, then these' situational factors set the stage for the next conflict. This is the latent conflict stage.   .

Perceived Conflict is the stage when one party perceives the other as likely to frustrate his or her goals. For example, the production manager might overhear the sales manager say that without more salespersons the targeted sales figures for the year would not be met. The production manager then perceives the likelihood of a conflict developing between the sales manager and himself, since e also needs to recruit some machinists and foremen and feels hiring of more salespersons would leave less money to hire the personnel for his department on account of the firm's limited resources. At this stage,' the production manager perceives the possibility of a potential conflict developing between the two departments. This is the second stage in the conflict episode.

Felt Conflict is the third stage when the conflict is not only perceived but actually felt and cognised. In the case just described above, when the vice-president schedules a Joint meeting of the department heads to discuss resource allocations, the production manager literally 'feels' the impact of the impending confrontation at the ensuing meeting. Both parties, anticipating some powerful exchange of words, would probably' even rehearse their statements in their state of anxiety.

Manifest Conflict is the" stage when the two parties engage in behaviour that evokes responses from each other. Both the parties may reveal their intentions and exhibit their behaviour in the form of arguments.

Conflict Resolution, the next stage, offers different methods for resolving conflicts.

Conflict Aftermath relates to the situation where, after the conflict is resolved in some way, there is still a hangover of residual tension in the parties, which among other things, provides the foundation for latent conflict for the next episode. If the conflict is resolved to the satisfaction of both parties, all is well. If one or both parties feel aggrieved, the residual tensions would become potent forces in the next cycle of the conflict episode, which could be triggered even by some trivial incident.   ..   .

By understanding the dynamics of conflict, the manner would be able to assess at what stage a particular conflict episode is in, and apply-"the appropriate mode so as to judiciously 'manage' the conflict.

16.1.4 CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Some major actions in conflict resolution take place in the following ways:

Problem Solving :

The problem solving technique is considered to be the most positive technique available for conflict resolution because it emphasises the attaining of the common interests of both conflicting parties. In mutual problem solving process, the conflicting parties must come together with the responsibilities of solving the mutual problem that faces rather than merely finding a way to accommodate their different perspectives. Questions of who is right or wrong are generally avoided, but sharing and communicating are required in order to find areas of common interest. This process causes the doubts and misunderstandings that underlie the conflict become more obvious to the parties so that they may more effectively deal with them. Problem solving technique can be applied effectively where conflict is based on misunderstanding of the parties concerned. However, this technique is not effective when conflicts stem from value systems that differ and that are the major sources of conflicts.

Avoidance :

Another method of overcoming conflict is its avoidance, that is, parties to the conflict may either withdraw from the conflict or conceal the incompatibility. Withdrawal may be observed when one party leaves the field of conflict so that other party may win by being in - sole possession of the goal in dispute. Alternatively, the goal may be redefined through mutual Withdrawal from the field and the redefinition of other and non-overlapping goal priorities. Concealing the incompatibility is another form of conflict resolution when it is not possible for any party to withdraw from the conflict. In such a case, the conflict may be eliminated by withholding the information from the parties in conflict because of goal incompatibilities. However, these are the methods for avoiding conflicts rather than solving the actual conflicts.

Smoothing :

Smoothing can be defined as the process of playing down differences that exist between individuals or groups while emphasising common interests. Differences are suppressed and similarities are accentuated in smoothing process. Finding and emphasising similarities between conflicting parties, while suppressing differences, can eventually lead the parties to realise that they are not far apart as was first believed. With shared viewpoints an issue, the ability to work together towards a commonly held goal must be facilitated. This again, however, is not a long-term solution for the conflicts.

Compromise :

Compromise is a well-accepted technique for resolving conflict, yielding neither a definite loser nor a distinct winner. Included here are external or third-part interventions, plus internal compromise between conflicting parties through both total-group and representative negotiation and voting. Such a compromise may be achieved either through the intervention of third party, the process is commonly known as mediation, or without the intervention of the external parties, the method known as bargaining. In both such cases, the conflicting parties arrive at some compromise which is mostly mutual give-and-take situation. Compromise may be effectively used when the goal object may be divided up in some way among the competing parties. In cases where this is not possible, one group may yield to the other something of value in exchange for a concession of value. Both parties then give something up. In a compromise situation, the outcome depends primarily on the relative strength of the parties. In situations in which one of the parties is much stronger than the other, little actual compromising may occur, and one side dictates the other. This is quite effective method of conflict resolution between management and workers.

Confrontation :

This strategy may result into win-lose situation. The parties concerned may settle their score by applying their strength against each other. Confrontation may be used for organisation development and increasing organizational effectiveness. What type of conflict resolution actions would be taken depends on a variety of factors like nature of the conflict, nature of the parties involved in the conflict and behavioural strategies adopted in conflict resolution.

Figure 4.4: Outcomes of conflict resolution

Win
Party A's outcomes
Lose

Win - Win	Win - Lose
Lose – Win	Lose - Lose

Win   Lose
Party B's outcomes

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Out of the four possible outcomes of conflict resolution, win-win situation is ideal as both the parties feel satisfied. In lose-lose outcome, both the parties feel cheated. In other two alternatives, only one party wins at the cost of the other and the conflict becomes a zero-sum game. Such a situation may generate more conflicts in future.

Negotiation :

"Negotiation is a process in which two or more parties exchange goods or services and attempt to agree on the exchange rate for them"

Negotiation basically involves bargaining. The literal meaning of negotiation is bargaining for the purpose of mutual agreement. It may seem that negotiation is an attempt to settle differences among parties; it is not necessary that the differences are actually settled. For example, many times, negotiations between management and workers do not bring desired outcomes, and the issues on which they have differences are settled by other mechanisms. In negotiations, two types of bargaining may be involved: distributive and integrative.

Distributive Bargaining:

Distributive Bargaining operates under zero-sum conditions, that is, any gain to one party is at the expense of the other party. Normally, in a distributive bargaining, various economic issues are involved, such as wages/salaries, bonus and other financial matters. While bargaining with each other, each party as a target point that defines what it would like to achieve. Each party also has a resistance point which marks the lowest outcome that is acceptable - the point below which the parties would break off negotiation rather than accepting a less favourable settlement. The area between these two points makes up each one's aspiration range. While engaged in negotiation, each party's tactics is to get its opponent to agree to one's target point or to get as close to it as possible. Depending on the relative bargaining power of each party, settlement is arrived at between target and resistance points.

Integrative Bargaining:

In contrast to distributive bargaining, integrative bargaining operates under the assumption that there exist one or more settlements that can create a win-win situation. In terms of organisational behaviour, integrative bargaining is preferable to distributive bargaining because the former builds long-term relationships and facilitates working together in the future. It bonds negotiators and allows them to leave the negotiating table with a feeling that they have achieved a victory. In integrative bargaining, an attempt is made to understand the viewpoint of each party empathetically. With the result, many issues which are perceived to be contentious and are not likely to be resolved amicably do not appear to be so. However, integrative bargaining becomes effective when some conditions exist. These are: parties must have sensitivity to each other's needs, have ability to trust others and maintain flexibility.

16.2   SOCIOMETRY

The word 'sociometry' comes from the Latin "socius", meaning social and the Latin "metrum" meaning measure. As these roots imply, sociometry is a way of measuring the degree of relatedness among people. Measurement of relatedness can be useful not only in the assessment of behaviour within groups, but also for interventions to bring about positive change and for determining the extent of change. For a work group, sociometry can be a powerful tool for reducing conflict and improving communication because it allows the group to see itself objectively and to analyse its own dynamics. It is also a powerful tool for assessing dynamics and development in groups devoted to therapy or training.

A useful working definition of scoiometry is that it is a methodology for tracking the energy vectors of interpersonal relationships in a group. It shows the patterns of how individuals associate with each other when acting as a group toward a specified end or goal.

Sociometry is based on the fact that people make choices in interpersonal relationships. Whenever people gather, they make choices - where to sit or stand; choices about who is perceived as friendly and who not, who is central to the group, who is rejected, who is isolated.

Sociometry was first employed in 1934 by Moreno and his students studying the social organisation among the students in Public School 181, Brooklyn. Later it was employed at the New York State Training School for Girls. In the first case, the results were used in the placement of students. In the latter case, they were used in the selection of roommates, work partners, and housemothers.

How can compatible individuals be placed in teams? The answer for sociometry is simple: Ask the workers involved. The form of the question varies somewhat with the group and the uses to be made of the answers. A typical question is "Whom would you like to have working next to you?". The question is asked of those who are potential workers of the team...

The answers are pictured on the following diagram, called a Sociogram.

Figure: 4.5: Sociogram of ten employees
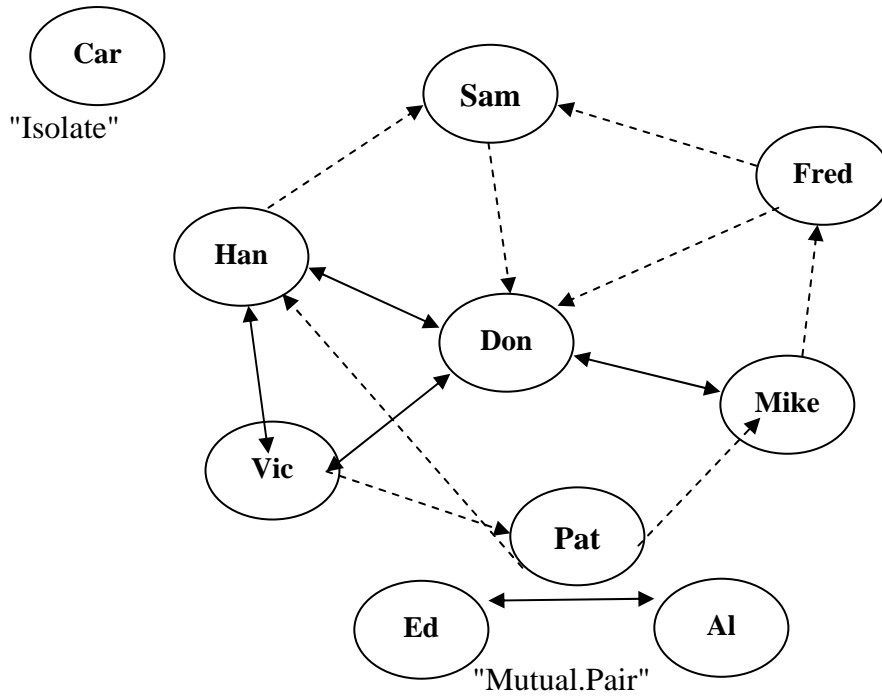
Each individual is represented by an oval. An arrow is drawn from the individual to the person (or persons) with whom he would like to work. Arrows show the direction of choices: a dotted line, 'a choice in one direction; a solid line, a mutual choice. Carl is an *isolate,* because he chooses no one and no one chooses him. Don, with more choices than anyone else, is the *functional leader,* or "star", Hank, Don, and Vic comprise a *clique* because they chose each other. Ed and AI also illustrate clique. Since there are no choices between them and the other eight men, there are really two groups in this unit of ten men and one outcast.

16.3 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson we learnt about concept and Nature of conflict. Resolution of conflict is also discussed along with types of conflict. Sociometry and elements of Sociometry explained in detail.

16.4   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1.   What are the types of conflicts?

2.   How can conflicts be resolved?

3.   Write a note on Sociometry?

16.5   REFERENCES

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UNIT-V

LESSON-17

COMMUNICATION

CONTENTS

17.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication is the sharing of ideas, knowledge, feelings and perceptions. Within the workplace, communication takes place for a number of direct and indirect reasons. Primarily it is necessary for passing information between people studying or working in the same organization and between the organization and other. Competent communicators know and understand the elements and rules of communication. Their ability to communicate is reflected in the quality and range of their communication skills. Communication, written, spoken or even nonverbal, is also used by leaders and managers for evaluating performance, directing or instructing staff and motivating others. People who are working as part of a team or department with an effective communicator are generally more confident and competent because they understand what they are doing and what is required of them. They are able to work together in a purposeful, supportive and flexible manner.

17.2 COMMUNICATION PROCESS

The process models of communication contain seven main elements such as i) sender, ii) message, iii) receiver, iv) feedback, v) channel, vi) context or setting and vii) noise or interference. As communication occurs, sender and receiver interact by encoding/sending

and decoding/receiving messages. Encoding means putting the message into words or diagram or nonverbal signals so that it can be transmitted. The receiver hears, reads or looks in order to decode or interpret the message.

Sender:

Communication begins with sender, the individual who reacts to situations from a unique vantage point, interpreting ideas and filtering experiences through their own perception. Sender conceives his ides based on the accumulated attitudes, experiences, skills and cultural conditioning.

Message:

The message is the idea of feeling transmitted from the sender to the receiver to achieve understanding. It makes a connection between the sender and the receiver and may be made up of signs, words and movement. The tone of voice, inflection, the rate of speech, facial expression, touching and body movement may be misinterpreted by the receiver, or poorly constructed message may lead to misunderstanding. The message the sender meant to send is not always the message received.

Receiver:

The receiver decodes or interprets the message to achieve understanding. In doing this, the receiver also acts as an individual from a unique vantage point, interpreting the idea according to a particular personal perception of the message. This perception is also the result of the receiver's unique background of experiences, beliefs and concerns. Interpretation of the same message may vary between people. This is because individual perception is influenced by experience, attitudes, and beliefs and a range of acquired skills or expectations. For example, one person may perceive the color blue as cool, peaceful and confronting while another may perceive blue as old fashioned and formal. The particular or specific meaning is influenced by past experience. Even the context or setting of the communication affects perception.

Feedback:

Feedback is an essential part f successful interpersonal communication. It is the receiver's response to the sender's message, telling the sender how their message is being received and helping the receiver confirm whether their perception of the message is correct. It can be intentional or unintentional. Feedback:

- Provides continuity in the communication

- Indicates effective understanding or misunderstanding of the message

- Stimulates further communication and discussion.

Channel:

A communication channel is the means of techniques used to signal or convey a message – for example, a conversation, letter, telephone call, e-mail or television program. Sometimes these channels are internal to the organization; other channels are outside the

organization and are thus external channels. An appropriate channel suits the communication purpose, the need of the sender, the message and the needs of the receiver. Different lines or channels of communication are used inside an organization. Horizontal channels operate between colleagues at the same level within the organization's structures, while vertical channels move communication up and down between different levels in the organization.

Context:

Context is the situation or setting within which communication takes place or the circumstances that surround a particular piece of communication. There are three dimensions in the context – physical, social-psychological and the temporal. The physical environment contains the tangible or concrete items in the environment. The roles, norms and mores of the society make up the social-psychological dimension. The temporal dimension describes the time in history as well as the position of the communication in the sequence of events.

Context plan an important part in how a message is encoded and decoded. The same message can have a completely different meaning depending on the situation, since emotions and reactions to ideas and events vary in different situations. For example, the context at an international peacekeeping conference will have different physical, social-psychological and temporal dimensions from the context of a formal meeting in a company office. The communication process will use different language, relationships and authority to achieve the different communication purpose in each context or situation.

Noise:

The message received is not necessarily the same as the message sent. Something other than the intended message is received because noise or interference interrupts the intended message. Noise or interference that interrupts the message or communication flow between sender and receiver can lead to misunderstanding or to confused or ambiguous communication.

17.3   FUNCTIONS OF COMMUNICATION

There are four major functions of communication. They are: Emotive, Motivation, Information and Control

Emotive:

Through communication, employees can express their frustrations and satisfactions to each other and to management. In addition, communication provides a mechanism for individuals to compare attitude and resolve ambiguous about their jobs, their roles and areas of conflict between groups and individuals. If an employee is dissatisfied with his pay, he will often communicate with others informally, to determine whether the feelings are justified or not.

Motivation:
A second major function of communication is to motivate, direct, control and evaluate the performance of organizational members. Leadership is an influence process by which supervisors attempt to control the behaviour and performance of subordinates. Communication is the major vehicle of such control available to leaders. Hence, leadership activities, such as issuing orders, rewarding behavior and performance, reviewing and evaluating performance, making job and task assignments, and training and developing subordinates all involve communication.

Information:
Communication serves a vital information function for decision-making. It is based on technological orientation and facilitates information processing activities and ways to improve the accuracy with which communication channels carry information going into individual, group and organizational decisions.

Control:
Organizations are attempting to control the activities of individuals through the design and use of formal communication channels. Most types of programs or standard operating procedures have a large communication component to them. Hence, formal communication channels represent a major structural means of control within organizations.

17.4 BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Semantic Problems:
The use of inappropriate language, symbols, and words may affect the understanding capacity of the receiver. The sender must ensure that the proper words and language are chosen to communicate the intended message so that there is no room for misinterpretation or confusion as the receiver decodes the message exactly as it was encoded. Many words commonly used in communication carry quite different meanings for different people. Two general kinds' of semantic problems present barriers to communication. i) Some words and phrases are so general or abstract that they invite varying interpretation. ii) Semantic problem arise when different groups develop their own technical language. For example, some one says that I require 10 PCs to solve this problem. A soft engineer may think 10 personal computers; A police inspector may think 10 Police Constables. People may interpret the same words or letter in differently.

Status Effects:
Status effect also hinder communication in as much as people occupying higher positions in the organization have a tendency to tell a lot to the subordinates but not to listen. When people do not listen, they do not understand each other and thus effective communication is blocked. Thus, the superior-subordinate status comes in the way of effective communication taking place.

Physical Distraction:

When people communicate with each other, noise may also enter in the form of various types of distraction. Distractions may occur because of situational factors such as constant telephone interruptions, people walking in and out of the room, or loud noises in the background. Apart from these physical noises, certain peculiar mannerism of the speaker may also be distracting to the listener and hide effective listening.

Information Overload:

This refers to too much volume of information which is beyond the level of a person to comprehend. Communication may be ineffective when too much information is transmitted at one time or when complex information is presented within a short time frame. The problem is compounded if the individual also has limited attention span and poor memory retention. Managers are literally drowned in communication and unable to attend to them fully. This includes variety of information received from different mode such as e-mail, memos, official letters, reports, instructions, circular, telephone, meetings etc. is required to attend

Time Pressures:

Time is always short, and this fact often leads to distortion in communication. A major temptation when pressed for time is to short-circuit formal communication channels. Because of time pressures, many messages are hastily and inadequately communicated by managers, leaving the listener with much ambiguity and confusion as to what has been said and what action should be taken. Since managers have to deal with a large number of people on an ongoing basis within limited periods of time, giving incomplete information and verbally transmitted short, telegraphic message seems inevitable.

Cultural Differences:

Words, colors and symbols have different meanings in different cultures and sometimes even between sub-cultures within a national boundary.

Trust Level:

When there is lack of sufficient trust between the communicating parties, selective listening takes place, resulting in ineffective communication. Complete information is seldom exchanged under such circumstances and the withholding of information by one or both parties will further aggravate the trust issue and impersonal problems. Evaluating tendencies develop selective listening increases further and messages get distorted.

Selective Perception:

People have a tendency to listen to only part of a message and "block out" other information for a varity of reasons. One of the most important of aspect is a need to avoid or reduce cognitive dissonance. Thus, people have a tendency to ignore new information that conflicts with or denies already established beliefs, values, and expectations. Selective perception occurs when the receiver values the context of the communication including the role, identity, values, mood and motives of the sender. Perceptual Distortion

Self-Concept:

An individual's motives and personality strongly influence the decoding or symbolic interpretation process. An employee who has a highly felt need for advancement in an organization and whose personality tend be to quite optimistic might read a smile and casual comment from a supervisor as an indication that he is being groomed for promotion. A person with low need for advancement and a pessimistic disposition may read nothing more than a casual comment unrelated to anything else into the supervisor's comment.

Absence of Two-way Communication:

If communication is only one way – from top to bottom or from superior to subordinate – without any feedback, would hinder communication from taking place in an effective manner. For instance, the receiver might decode the message in a way that was not intended. Neither the receiver nor the sender will then realize that the message was misinterpreted until it becomes too late to rectify the situations. For example, An examination question is one way communication which could easily get misinterpreted by some students since attempts by students to seek clarifications in the examination hall is usually discouraged.

17.5   OVERCOMING BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

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

Active listening:

It implies that the receiver of information engages in the following patterns of behavior. a) stop talking since it is impossible to talk and listen at the same time, b) remove the distracting elements as much as possible c) is patient and lets the other person say whatever needs to be said, d) appreciate the emotion behind the speaker's words and is empathic, e) is attentive, f) creates a positive listening environment f) uses feedback mechanisms to check understanding g) withholds judgment h) asks questions, i) reacts to the message and not he person. Active listening takes a lot of energy and be perfected by conscious and constant practice.

Follow up and Feedback:

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

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

Timing:
 A manager may ignore a memo or request simply because other problems are pressing in at the same time. Two kinds of actions can be taken by management to ensure the accurate reception of communication through timing. i) they may want to standardize the timing of specific messages, ii) many organizations establish "retreats" or time away from normal job pressures to transmit material, ideas and instructions to employees. This action insures the undivided attention of the receivers.

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

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

Exception principle and need to know:
 In order to deal effectively with the information overload problem many organizations try to establish certain principles for actually limiting the extent of communications. Many firms implement an "exception principle" in communication channels**.** This principle orders that only communications regarding exceptional derivations, from orders, plans, and policies be communicated upward on a routine basis. Hence, upper levels of management will receive only that information which truly demands their attention.
A closely related principle involves downward communication. Here, managers should be selective and transmit information on a "need to know" basis. In this way, lower level personnel receive only communication that is immediately critical to carrying out their tasks. The success of these two principles depends on the type of organization within which jobs are carried out. They will be most effective in highly structured organizations where tasks are relatively simple and routine. In less formal organization, in which work is

rather complex and not highly structured, communication needs to be as open and unrestricted as possible.

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

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

a) give specific and not general or vague feedback

b) give feedback immediately or soon after the event has taken place rather than long after the event has occurred

c) give feedback on aspects that the receiver can rectify rather than on aspects over which the individual has no control

d) Be descriptive than evaluative

e) Give feedback on a few critical issues where improvement is most urgently expected rather than on a wide range of problem areas

f) Examine your own motivation in giving the feedback

g) Be sure that the receiver is ready to receive feedback

h) Be non-threatening and disregard you superior status while offering feedback.

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

17.6   DIRECTIONS OF COMMUNICATION

There are three broad patterns of communication:

Downward communication:
It refers to the flow of communication from supervisor to the subordinate. To improve downward communication, managers can present job instructions clearly to subordinates, explain why things need to be done in a particular way so that people who perform the

jobs understand better. For example, clear staff regulations, rules, handbooks, procedures manual etc are the good examples of downward communication.

Upward communication:
It refers to the flow is from the subordinate to the superiors. To improve upward communication, screen upward messages so that the more relevant aspects of the information are received by top management, provide the climate in which members can communicate both positive and negative messages, detect biases when they occur, reduce status difference and wherever possible, require quantified data to be submitted rather than provide subjective information for decision making. For example, instituting suggestion scheme, union leader voicing their demands to management, etc

Lateral Communication:
It takes place between or among members who are at the same level in the organization. For example, two supervisors of the same department or different department are discussing work matters with each other. To improve lateral communication, it is desirable to establish openness and trust among members of various department, develop reward systems that facilitate inter-departmental cooperation, learn that what the other departments are doing by getting involved in interdepartmental meetings and, if possible design the organization structure in such a way so that greater opportunities of interdepartmental contact exist.
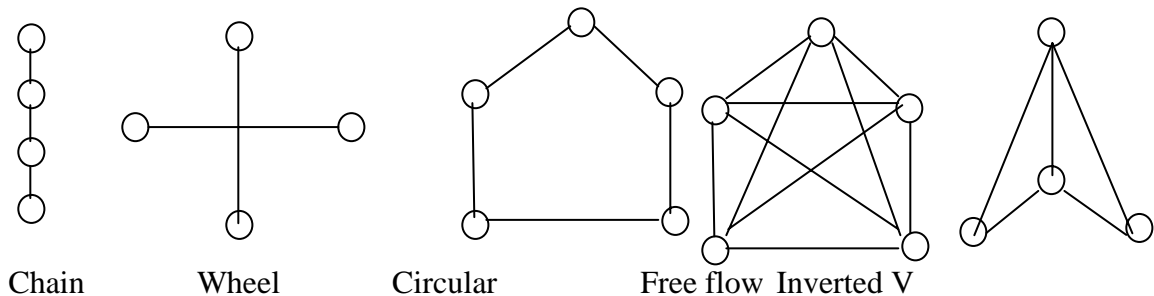
17.7 COMMUNICATION NETWORK

In the organizational context, a network is a structured fabric of the organization, made up of systems of lines, or channels which are interconnected. Communication networks, then, are these network channels or lines used to pass information serially from one person to another. We can safely say that organizational communication is really a flow of information through the network of interrelated human roles. Since within an organization, human beings are interrelated both formally and informally, communication takes place to maintain these interrelationships. Thus organizational communication network is made up of two types of channels which are interrelated and interdependent, viz., formal and informal.

The existence of these channels is necessary for organizational communication to take place. Further, these channels are necessary for organizational communication to take place. Further, these channels also determine to a very significant extent the smoothness, rapidity, and correctness with which the messages flowing through it, messages may get delayed or blocked. If the channel is too long or circuitous, again the same thing may happen. Besides, the existence of a number of filtering points in the channel may also affect the accuracy of the messages flowing through it: some things may get added or taken away from the original message at each of these points.

Before we proceed to take up the details of formal and informal channels, let us have a look at differences between formal and informal communication. A message coming through the formal channel is known as formal communication and that coming through informal channel is known as informal communication.

Formal network:

Formal network are typically vertical, follow the authority chain and are limited to task-related communications. There are five formal network structures in communication. There are chain, wheel, circular, free flow and inverted V channels. The chain structure rigidly follows the formal chain of command. The wheel relies on the leader to act as the central conduit for the entire group's communication. The all-channel network permits all group members to actively communicate with each other.

Chain   Wheel   Circular   Free flow Inverted V

Informal network:

Grapevine is an organizations informal communication network. The grapevine has three main characteristics. i) It is not controlled by management. ii) it is perceived by most employees as being more believable and reliable than formal communication issued by top management. iii) it is largely used to serve the self interests of those people within it and it is one of the quickest means of communication.
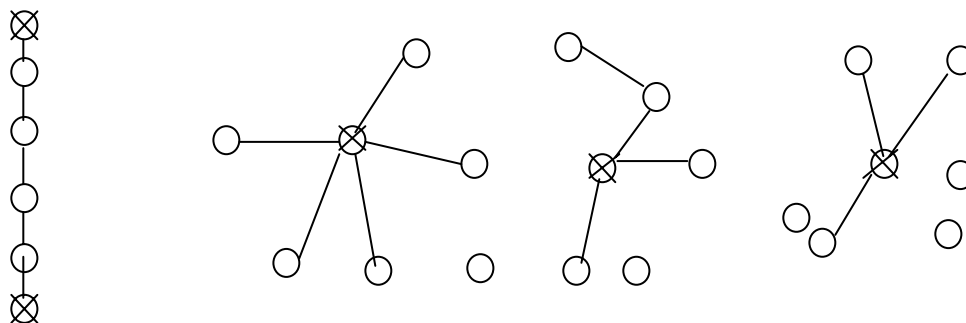
It is frequently assumed that rumors start because they make an interesting gossip. Rumors have at least four purposes. i) to structure and reduce anxiety, ii) to make sense of limited or fragmented information, iii) to serve as a vehicle to organize group members and possibly outsiders, into coalitions and iv) to signal a sender's status or power.

17.8   LETS SUM UP

In this lesson we learnt about communication and the process of communication. Functions of communication are also discussed. Special emphasis on communication network is also given.

17.9   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1. Differentiate formal network from informal network of communication process.

2. Explain the directions of communication process with suitable examples

3. Describe the types of communication barriers exist within the organization and the suitable methods to overcome such barriers.

4. Outline the various steps in the communication process.

5. What are the major functions of communication?

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LESSON-18

ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION

CONTENTS

18.1   Introduction

18.2   Organizational development

18.3   OD interventions

18.4   Let us sum up
18.5   Lesson end activities
18.6   Reference.

18.1 INTRODUCTION

Organization Development refers to all on-going developmental efforts which are oriented towards making the organization and its members effective. Organization Development connotes the continuous planned efforts that are made to enhance the structural, processual and people aspects of the system. Such systematic efforts ensure the organization's survival and growth by enhancing the quality of work life and the quality of life of the employees in general. In a sense, OD makes the difference between being and becoming. Being aspect reflects a static state of things as they currently are and the becoming aspect denotes a developmental aspect of constantly experiencing a state of growing, developing and reaching new heights. Organizations develop and grow and so do individuals, groups, and society itself. Thus, OD signifies a planned growth and developmental strategy for organization, making use of behavioral science, organization theory, comparative management, and other fields of scientific knowledge. Currently more behavioral science knowledge and techniques are used as intervention mechanisms, that is, techniques to bring about the desired changes

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18.2   ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The OD paradigm values human and organizational growth, collaborative and participative process and a spirit of enquiry. The change agent may be directive in OD; however, there is a strong emphasis on collaboration. Concepts such as power, authority, control, conflict and coercion are held in relatively low esteem among OD change agents. The following are some of the key values in most OD efforts:

- Respect for people: Individuals are perceived as being responsible, conscientious and caring. They should be treated with dignity and respect

- Trust and support: The effective and healthy organizations is characterized by trust, authenticity, openness and supportive climate

- Power equalization: Effective organizations de-emphasize hierarchical authority and control.

- Confrontation: Problems should not be swept under the carpet. They should be openly confronted

- Participation: The more the people who will be affected by a change are involved in the decisions surrounding that change, the more they will be committed to implementing those decisions.

18.3 POTENTIAL AREAS FOR OD INTERVENTIONS

OD efforts are useful wherever problems and tensions exist. Areas where OD interventions help encompasses the people side of the organization, the technical and job related aspects and the structural aspects. Certain OD techniques are also available to obtain information about how effective the organization is perceived to be by significant others and how its effectiveness can be increased. All these areas are interrelated. OD interventions can be at the i) individual or intra-personal level, ii) dyadic level, iii) group level, iv) family level.

Some of the OD interventions to address "people concern" are sensitivity training, transactional analysis, process consultation and third party peace making, team building, individual counseling, life and career planning, role clarification. Areas for interventions in the technical and job related aspects include the examination of workflow interdependencies, job evaluation job redesigning. OD intervention aimed at socio-technical systems cover flexible work hour's for better productivity, offering job sharing, job evaluation and role analysis techniques..

18.3.1 INDIVIDUAL INTERVENTION ACTIVITIES

There are numerous individually oriented interventions techniques and activities available to managers. Among them are life and career planning programs, various training activities and sensitivity training.

Sensitivity or laboratory Training

Sensitivity training or T-groups is unstructured small group interaction form which participants learn about their personal styles, how they communicate and how they are perceived by others. This information is obtained from the feedback that group members offer. A group is initially formed and left to them to interact with each other as they sit in a circle. The primary objectives of T-group training are as follows:

- To increase understanding, insight and self-awareness about one's behavior and its impact on others.

- To increase understanding and sensitivity about the behavior of others

- To improve understanding and awareness of group and inter-group processes

- To improve diagnostic skills in interpersonal and inter-group situations

- To increase ability to transform learning into action

- To improve an individual's ability to analyze his or her own interpersonal behavior.

There are three types of sensitivity groups such as stranger, cousin and family. The stranger's group would include members who do not know each other. The cousin group consists of members of the same organization who do not work together. The family group includes member who belong to the same work unit. These groups meet with a trainer. The trainer may structure the content and discuss or may decide to follow an informal or nonstructural format, allowing the group to proceed as they desire. It stresses 'the process rather than the content of training and focuses upon emotional rather conceptual training. The group meets away from the job and engages in an intense exchange of ideas, opinion, beliefs and philosophy.

The group members then become open and talk about themselves and get feedback on how others perceive them. As the group members meet more often, they become more comfortable in opening themselves up and in giving and receiving feedback. The T-group leader or trainer simply facilitate the agenda less group sessions when the group gets struck or stays away from the main goal of learning about themselves. Different individual react differently to the T-group or sensitivity training sessions. People, who are more open to feedback, learn more about themselves in several of the lab sessions and acquire increased self-awareness. They become more attentive to the feelings of others and more sensitive to cues form others.

Life and Career Planning
According to Super, there are five identifiable life stages that a person moves through in his life:

i)   Growth (from conception to 15 years),

ii)   Exploration (115 to 25 years

iii)   Establishment (25 to 40 years)

iv)   Maintenance (45 to retirement form a job)

v)   Decline

The organizational career involves primarily the establishment and maintenance stage. It is during these stages that individuals utilize their sills and abilities to perform certain job related tasks. Organization can develop life and career planning programs to develop individual's skills and abilities. The employees will be asked to do certain life and career

planning exercises such as preparing life inventory of important events. Writing about themselves, etc. Such activities encourage individual to plan their careers more carefully. It appears that some type of life and career planning is congruent with the notion that clear and challenging career goals can motivate an individual.

18.3.2 GROUP AND TEAM INTERVENTION ACTIVITIES:

In order to consistently accomplish organization and individual goals, it is necessary for people to work together. Probably the single most important interventions approach that is concerned with the effective function in groups is team-building activities. Other intervention such as survey feedback, process consultation etc are aimed at improving the team effectiveness.

Team Building:

Team building as an OD intervention strategy is aimed at improving intra and inter-group effectiveness. The team building activities may revolve around enhancing between interaction modes, sharing resources more effectively, forming temporary task forces, and acquiring skills for accomplishing the task as a team or teams of interacting members. The intra-group as well as inter-group efforts focus on such aspects as problems solving, role clarification, goal setting, improving boss-subordinates relationships, conflict resolutions, managing group process and understating the organizational culture. Extensive clarifications take place in role expectations, goals to be accomplished and resources sharing among members of a team or between them.

The consultant role in team building includes interviewing the group members in advance before working with them as a group, creating the environment to make it a constructive and psychologically safe place for members to interact and to help the group to examine its norms. Team building is both a time-consuming and exhausting interventions technique, but very useful if skillfully managed. Team building can be applied within groups or at the inter-group level where activities are interdependent. The objective is to improve coordinative efforts of members, which will result in an increase in the team's performance. Team building can also address itself to clarifying each member's role on each team. Each role can be identified and clarified. Previous ambiguities can be brought to the surface. For some individuals, it may offer one of the few opportunities they have had to think through thoroughly what their jobs is all about and what specific tasks types are expected to carry out if the team is to optimize its effectiveness.

Survey Feedback:

Survey feedback research involves the process of systematically collecting data about a group or the organization primarily through self-report questionnaire. Occasionally, interviews and records of the unit being studied are used. The collected data are analyzed and feed back to the group for analysis, interpretation and corrective action if needed. The entire process has two major components: the attitude survey and small discussion workshops. Three significant steps are involved in survey feedback.

i) Members holding primary position in the organization plan what data need to be collected

ii) Data are collected from all the members of the organization

iii) Data are analyzed and feed back to the top executives and down the hierarchy in team.

These feedback sessions are done by a consultant who serves as a resource person and prepares the superior to share the data with his immediate subordinates. The group members are asked to interpret the data, what constructive changes seem necessary, and how they should be brought about. Based on these discussions with each group, the commonly recurring them are dealt with through the help of a reconstituted group of members.

The survey feedback is a good diagnostic tool which can be used for several types of intervention such as team building. The survey technique provides useful data about the system. The feedback technique helps the organization to work with the data in a manner which helps the system. The survey feedback is an effective intervention strategy since people realize that they are working with data that they themselves have provided.

Process Consultation:

The purpose of process consultation is for an outside consultant to assist a client, usually a manager to perceive, understand and act upon process events with which they must deal. These might include workflow, informal relationships among unit members and formal communication channels. For instance, it is certainly important to specify the channels of communication in an organization system so that people know whether they can communicate only through hierarchical levels or whether they can pass on information horizontally. However, having laid down the structure, the manager cannot always expect that the expected behaviors and results will automatically follow. Attentions have to be paid to the process by which communication takes place. Are people friendly with each other in communication or do they take adversative positions? How do they understand each other? etc.

Process consultation requires a combination of skills in establishing helping relationships, knowing what kinds of process to look for an organizations and intervening in ways to improve organizational process. The essence of processes consultation is that a skilled consultant works with the mangers, individual and groups in the system to develop their process skills – that is, diagnose, understand, and resolve process-related problem. This involves sensitizing the individual about issues such as how people get along with each other, how conflicts are resolved, styles of interactions among departments and so on. The members of the organization are made aware of organization process that enhance and obstruct their effectiveness. They also then learn how to bring about necessary changes so that the organization becomes a more effective system.

Process consultation is similar to sensitivity training in its assumption that organizational effectiveness can be improved by dealing with interpersonal problems and its emphasizes on involvement. But process consultant is more task-directed than sensitivity training.

Third-Party Peacemaking:
Third-party peacemaking focuses on interventions by a third party to resolve conflict situations. The fundamental aspect of third-party peacemaking is for the consultant (third party) to make the two disagreeing parties to confront or face up to the fact that a conflict does not exist and that it is impairing the effectiveness of both. The consultant facilitates the significant issues involved in the conflict to surface by using the right intervention strategies.

By wisely choosing the place, selecting the proper environment, using effective interventions strategies, and setting an appropriate agenda for the meeting, the third party can help the parties in conflict to own up to their problems and find solutions. In case there is a dispute over for scarce resources sharing, the consultant will concentrate on the parties engaging in problem solving through rational bargaining behaviors If the conflicting situation is based on emotional issues, the consultant might have to work hard at restructuring the perceptions and facilitate understanding between the parties involved.

18.3.3 ORGANIZATIONAL INTERVENTION ACTIVITIES:

These are organizational change and development intervention that can have an organization-wide impact. Two of the most popular and widely used interventions are management by objectives (goal setting) and the managerial grid. Both these interventions have a common sense appeal to manage and are generally considered worthwhile endeavors for improving behavior and performance.

Management by Objectives.

Peter Druker defines MBO is process whereby the superior and subordinate manager of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibilities, interest of the results expected of him and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contributions of each of its members.

The following are the series of interrelated and interdependent steps of MBO Process.

Step I: Diagnosis for MBO Readiness: A through analysis of its people, the history of change, jobs, technology, mission, plan and strategy of the company will be carried out in advance to make the organization in a readiness state

Step II: Preparation for MBO: Initiative has to be taken to involve all the members to participate in this exercise through active interaction. Certain facilities such as proper communication system, formal training and development, establishing action plans, developing criteria for assessing effectiveness have to be created.

Step III: Objective Setting: Special attention has to be paid to clarify the objectives of individuals, departments, division and organization. The superiors and subordinates must participate and jointly set the goals and objectives and prioritizes those objectives based on the importance and weight ages

Step IV: Intermediate Review: This review will facilitate to modify the original objectives considering the limitations or getting feedback on the process.

Step V: Final Review and Analysis of Results: An intensive analysis is taken up to review its results and initiate the next complete cycle of objective setting

Step VI: Achieving Results: The accomplishment of better planning, control, and organization through motivated involvement, based on achieved results instead of personality and popularity.

There are four key principles of MBO:

i)   MBO requires the involvement of superiors and subordinates. The subordinates may be involved in a dyadic relationship, one superior-one subordinate, or in group arrangements of one superior and more than one subordinate.

ii)   MBO relies heavily on feedback, with needs to focus on results and should be as closely connected to behavior and performance as possible

iii)   The crucial first step in any MBO program should be a thorough diagnosis of here job, the participants and the needs of the organization.

iv)   The superior must be competent in counseling the subordinate on the achieved results and the expected or agreed to results for the next cycle.

Benefits of MBO:

The following are some of the benefits of MBO program:

i)   Increased short and long range planning,

ii)   A procedure for monitoring work progress and results

iii)   Improved commitment to the organization because of increased motivation, loyalty and participation of employees

iv)   Improved communication between superiors and subordinates

v)   An improved organizational climate in general that encourages improvements in performance.

Managerial Grid:

The managerial grid model proposes two assumptions about managerial behavior (i) concern for production specifies a manager's concern for accomplishing productive task, such as quality, quantity and efficiency of output, and (2) concern for people designates a manager's interest and concern for the personal worth of subordinates, the equity of the reward and evaluation systems, and the nurturing of social relationships. In the managerial

grid framework, the manager who shows a high concern for both production and people is the most effective manager in an organizational setting. Blake and Mouton display the relationship between the production and people concerns on a 9 by 9 grid, which enables them to plot eighty one possible combinations of managerial concern.

The managerial style of an executive can be assessed by a questionnaire which measures the concern for production and people. By scoring the questionnaire responses, it is assumed that where a manger fits in the eighty one cell grid can be determined. But the emphasis is given on five major dimensions:

i) **Impoverished Management (1, 1)** – This style displays little concern for either production or people. Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

ii) **Task Management (9, 1)** –This emphasizes completing jobs within time, quality and budgetary constraints. Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

iii) **Middle-of-the-road Management (5, 5)** – The manager attempts show at least a moderate amount of concern for both production and people. Adequate organization performance is possible thorough balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

iv) **Country Club Management (1, 9)** –Manager gives much attention to people while production tasks are overshadowed. Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a friendly organizational atmosphere and work tempo.

v) **Team Management (9, 9)** – The manager using this style attempts to help subordinates satisfy self-actualization, autonomy and esteem needs; develops an atmosphere of trust and supportiveness and emphasis task accomplishment. Work accomplished from committed people, interdependence through a common stake in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

18.4   LET US SUM UP

In this lesson learnt about the concept of organizational development along with different Organisational development programme like individual level, group level and organisational interventions.

18.5   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1.   Why the managerial grid is considered a comprehensive interventions activity?

2.   Would an advocate of contingency approach to change and development support the managerial grid ideal style of 9, 9? Why?

3.   What are some of the key principles to remember when considering MBO as a possible intervention activity?

4.   What is the different between a sensitivity training and a team building intervention?

5.   Explain the process consultation techniques and its method of implementation

6.   Describe the survey feedback technique as a OD Intervention aimed at improving group process

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LESSON-19

COUNSELLING AND GUIDANCE

CONTENTS

19.1   COUNSELLING AND GUIDANCE

Counselling may be defined as a discussion of an emotional problem with an employee, with the general objective of decreasing it. This definition has three implications. Firstly, counselling deals with emotional problems. Secondly, counselling involves discussion, meaning that it is an act of communication.

Successful counselling depends on communication skills, primarily oral, by which one person's emotions can be shared with another. Thirdly, the general objective of counselling is to understand and/ or decrease an employee's emotional disorder. If two individuals merely socially discuss an emotional problem of either of them, a social relationship may be established, but hardly a counselling one, because intent is not there. For counselling to exist, the employee must be seeking an understanding or help and the counsellor must be offering it.

Counselling refers to the process of advising an employee or preferably in most cases, listening to the statement of his problem and enabling him to find from his own thinking and talking a solution for it which is satisfactory to him. It relates to a method of understanding people who are upset emotionally.

19.1.1 NATURE OF COUNSELLING

i. Counselling is an exchange of ideas and feelings between two people

ii. It tries to improve organisational performance by helping the employees to cope with their problems.

iii. Counselling is concerned with both personal and work problems.

iv. Counselling may be performed by both professionals and non professionals

v. Counselling is usually confidential in order to have free talk and discussions

19.1.2 NEED AND IMPORTANCE OF COUNSELLING

Emotional upsets can cause employees to do things that are harmful to their own interests or those of the organisation. They may leave the organisation because of a minor conflict that seems large to them or they produce behaviour which is undesirable from the point of view of the organisation. Employee counselling is of immense use under such situations. The factors which call for systematic efforts in employee counselling include the following:

1.   Conflict:

Both interpersonal and intergroup conflicts may cause emotional disorders. As people with different backgrounds, points of view, values, needs and personalities interact, it is likely that a variety of conflicts will develop. Organisational change also contributes to it because it changes relationship among people. The result is that conflict is an inevitable part of organisational life. For an ordinary person, the term 'conflict' generally has a negative connotation. But it need not necessarily be viewed that way. It has its benefits as well as disadvantages, so the behavioural goal is to try to reduce the disadvantage, while increasing the benefits.

Interpersonal conflicts may arise due to differences in perception, values and goals of two individuals. Intergroup conflicts may arise because of difference in values, goals and aspirations of two groups. Whatever may be the type and cause of conflict, it creates emotional problems for the affected individuals. Some people are able to resolve such conflicts, while others need counselling to come out of the situation.

2.   Frustration:

It is a result of motivation drive being blocked to prevent one from reaching the desired goal. For example, a worker while on work is interrupted time and again and his goal for the day remains unfulfilled, he will feel irritated and frustrated. The situation becomes more serious when it is long-run frustration such as blocked opportunity for promotion. Reactions of frustrated behaviour are aggression, apathy, withdrawal, resignation, fixation, physical disorders, substitute goals and compromise. These reactions are in no way

favourable to the individual or the organisation: so it is desirable to reduce the frustrating conditions in the organisation. Frustrated individuws also require counselling to help them to overcome frustration.

Counselling can help reduce frustrations by helping employees choose mature courses of action to overcome blockages preventing goal accomplishment. The counsellor also can advise management regarding blockages so that it can try to reduce or remove them.

3. Stress:

Stress on the job is desirable to some extent if it is a mild stress and not sustained over a long period of time. Excessive stress or stress over a long period of time may result in physical and emotional disorders and lowers effectiveness. Stress is also affected by the tolerance power of the person concerned. If a person can bear the stress, he will improve his performance and find innovative methods.

There are several causes of stress on the job. The employees may feel they have an overload of work, pressures with which they cannot cope, tensions, and insecurity. Role conflict and role ambiguity also are important causes of stress. Conflicts with people are another major cause of stress. Stress may be aggravated when the conflict is with a supervisor or someone else who has power over the affected employee. Stress also may arise off the job and be brought to work by employees. Important causes are family, social and financial problems. It is important to find causes of stress and take steps to remove them. Counselling can also play a great role in dealing with emotional disorders.

19.1.3. FUNCTIONS AND IMPORTANCE OF COUNSELLING

The basic objective of counselling is to help employees to improve their mental health and develop self-confidence, understanding, self-control and ability to work effectively. This objective can be achieved by performing various counselling functions. They are:

(i)   Advice: One of the important functions of counselling is offering advice to the counselee. The counsellor has to understand the problem of the counselee completely, before offering advice and suggesting a course of action.

(ii)   Reassurance: In order to give courage to face a problem confidently, counselling provides employees with reassurance. Normally reassurance is not acceptable to the counselee. However, it is useful in some situations.

(iii)   Communication: Counselling helps improve both upward and downward communications. In an upward direction, it is a key for employees to make the management know their feeling. Counselling initiates an upward signal. Another part of the counsellor's job is to discover emotional problems relating to company's policies and to interpret those problems to top management.

(iv) Release of emotional tension: Releasing emotional tension is an important function of counselling. People feel emotional release from their frustration after counselling.

(v) Clarified Thinking: Another function of counselling is that of clarified thinking. As emotional blocks to straight thinking are relieved while narrating the problems to the counsellor, one begins to think more rationally. Clarified thinking tends to be a normal result of emotional release, but a skilled counsellor can act as a catalyst to accept responsibility for his own problems and strives to be more realistic in solving them.

(vi) Reorientation: It involves a change in the employee's psychic self through a change in basic goals and values. Mostly, it needs a revision of the employee's level of aspiration to bring it more in line with actual attainment. It is largely ajob of a professional counsellor.

19.1.4. TYPES OF COUNSELLING

In order to be successful, counsellors use various skills and techniques to increase people's awareness of problems and to decide on appropriate actions. The accomplishment of these purposes requires that counsellors be active listeners who use their skills to formulate educated guesses and to continually test, reject or accept these hypotheses. Some of the most effective methods counsellors use to achieve these purposes are as follows:

1. Non-directive Counselling:

Non-directive or client-centred counselling is the process of skillfully listening and encouraging a counselee to explain bothersome emotional problems, understand them and determine the course of action. The central point in such type of counselling is the counselee and the counsellor. This technique is mostly used by professional counsellors but managers can also practise it in their organisation.

The role of a counsellor is simply to listen to the person and try to understand his feelings and encourage to discover and follow improved course of action. He should not suggest or reassure any course of action rather he should accept his feelings without any judgment. He should also avoid blame or praise or doubts during the course of counselling, otherwise the role of counsellor will change because it may be possible that the person may not come out with his true feelings and the very purpose of such counselling may be defeated. The counsellor throughout the interview should attempt to ask the discerning questions, restate ideas, clarify feelings and understand why these fee feelings exist. There exists a fluid and sensitive relationship between the counsellor and counselee that requires minute attention to every detail in the overall situation.

2. Directive Counselling:

As the name implies, directive counselling is a process of directing the employees to solve their emotional problems through advice, reassurance, communication, release of tension. The counsellor deals with the emotional problem of the employee patiently, and then

decides with the employee what to do and then motivating the employee to do it. The counsellor takes an active part in discussing every aspect of the problem and helps in devising the solution and suggests the ways to get it. It is assumed that the counsellor is superior to the counselee and knows what to do.

3. Co-operative Counselling:

Co-operative counselling is neither counsellor centered nor counselee centered, but rather both counsellor and counselee mutually co-operate to apply their different knowledge perspectives and values to the problem. Keith Davis defines co-operative counselling as "a mutual discussion of an employee's emotional problem and a co-operative effort to set up conditions that will remedy it".

Co-operative counselling starts with the listening technique of non-directive counselling but as the interview progresses, the counsellor plays a much more important and positive role than he plays in non-directive technique. The counsellor initiates the discussion and discusses the problem with the employee from his broader perspective of the organisation thus throwing various perspectives before the employees for comparison. .

Co-operative counselling applies four functions of counselling i.e., reassurance, communication, release of tension and clarified thinking. It has no room for advice. If re-orientation is needed, the counsellor will refer the employee to a professional counsellor. If direct action is required, the manager takes the action but he does so in his capacity as a direct supervisor and not as a counsellor.

Career guidance and counselling help the employees to obtain professional advice regarding career paths that would help them to achieve personal goals. It also makes them aware of what additional qualifications, training and skills they should acquire for career advancement. A variety of career counselling programmes can be adopted:

i.   Devices designed to aid the individuals in self-assessment and increased self-understanding.

ii.   Devices designed to communicate opportunities available to individuals

iii.   Career counselling through interviews by managers, counselling professionals and personnel and educational specialists

iv.   Workshops and educational activities designed to assist the individuals in goal setting and establishing action plan for change

v.   Educational and exepmental programmes to prepare individuals with skills and knowledge for new activities and new careers, and

vi.   Programmes for enhancing the individual's opportunities to make the job and career changes.

Organisations can make arrangements for guiding individuals in overcoming their personal and family problems, managing personal finance, dealing with health problems and dealing with other kinds of personal and family stresses.

19.1.5 IMPORTANCE OF COUNSELLOR

The counsellor's function is to help the disturbed employee help himself. He attempts to perform this function by providing an atmosphere in which the client becomes able to see himself and his reactions more clearly. The principles of counselling at the Western Electric Company were mentioned briefly in connection with relieving job anxieties. A leading exponent of employee counselling explains further:

The consultants refrain from arguing, from giving advice, from condemning, from taking sides. They try to listen sympathetically to what the employee is trying to express. They always try to get at the underlying emotional difficulty, at the feelings that the employee is experiencing, concealing, or trying to express. They realise that if they can help the employee express his fears, he Will become more free to discover the problem, and perhaps) to do something about it… the consultant does not try to direct the interview but leaves it entirely up to the employee to determine what the interview will be about and in what direction it will move.

In the first place, the counsellor encourages the employee to express his emotions. This .encouragement is particularly vital in eliciting negative feelings (hostility and anger) and aggressive impulses. The employee sensibly hesitates to express these feelings to his supervisor or to his fellow employees, as they may retaliate and thus increase his frustration. However, as he suppresses these feelings, bottling them up, they become more unmanageable. The counsellor's initial task is to make clear by his warm and permissive attitude that such expressions are expected and that it is desirable to air them. By this emotional airing, the employee gains some release from his anxieties. He can look at his problems more calmly.

The reduction of anxiety is the first contribution of effective counselling. The counsellor also helps the employee put his feelings and problems into words. Once the employee is able to do this, his feelings become more manageable. The counsellor aids this process in two ways: he listens, and he repeats or reflects back the employee's expressed feelings. In a crude way, this is like listening to a Dictaphone recording for the employee. The playback provides an opportunity for correction and amplification.

Counselling follows a pattern. Initially the employee, emotionally aroused, expresses strong feelings, largely hostile in nature. As he does so, he becomes more relaxed. As a result, he tend to see more constructive aspects, to express more positive feelings. He then begins to make tentative diagnoses of his difficu1ties and to suggest possible actions that he might take. As counselling proceeds, these become more accurate, more comprehensive, and more oriented toward concrete actions. Eventually; he becomes confident that he is able to handle his own problems and breaks off the series of interviews.

Counselling not only aids in the solution of the employee's problem. It also makes the individual capable of handling in a more mature way the next problem that comes along. The experience of working through one problem in this manner gives him the confidence

to work through his future problems in a similar way. Actually, the goal of most counselling is not to solve the individual's immediate specific problem, but rather to develop a more mature individual who is increasingly capable of handling all his problems adequately.

19.2   LET US SUM UP

In this lesson we learned about counselling and guidance. Nature, merits and importance of counselling is discussed along with different types of counselling. Role of counselor in a counselling process is also emphasized.

19.3   LESSON END ACTIVITIES

1.   What are the types of counselling?

2.   What are the functions and merits of counselling?

3.   What is the importance of a counselor?

19.4   REFERENCES

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