

DJB2E - ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Unit I: OB – Meaning – Nature and importance – OB and Management – Hawthorne studies – Classical – Neo classical and modern approaches to management – system approach to management

Unit II: Basic Behavioural Process, Cognitive Functions – Intelligence Creativity, Learning and its Process – Attitude and Values, Personality – Concepts counselling – importance and relevance

Unit III: Motivation – Theories and applications to Management – Behavioural Modification, Group Dynamics, Norms, Cohesiveness, decision making group

Unit IV: Leadership – Role and Functions of Leaders, Leadership theories and styles – organizational change approaches and resistance to change. Conflict Management , Nature , Sources.

Unit V: Organisational Development –Approaches , Intervention , Organisation Culture – Relevance of Culture in Changing scenario

Definitions:

“Organisational behaviour is a subset of management activities concerned with understanding, predicting and influencing individual behaviour in organisational setting.”—Callahan, Fleenor and Kudson.

“Organisational behaviour is a branch of the Social Sciences that seeks to build theories that can be applied” to predicting, understanding and controlling behaviour in work organisations.”—Raman J. Aldag.

“Organisational behaviour is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within an organisation. It is a human tool for human benefit. It applies broadly to the behaviour of people in all types of organisation.”—Newstrom and Davis.

“Organisational behaviour is directly concerned with the understanding, production and control of human behaviour in organisations.”—Fred Luthans.

“Organisational behaviour is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behaviour within the organisations for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization’s effectiveness.”—Stephens P. Robbins.

In short, organisational behaviour revolves around two fundamental components:

1. The nature of the man.
2. The nature of the organisation.

In other words, organisational behaviour may be organisation of individual’s behaviour in relation to physical means and resources so as to achieve the desired objective of the organisation.

Organisational Behaviour, Organisational Theory, Organisational Psychology and Human Resource Management:

Organisational behaviour is generally confused with organisational theory, organisational psychology, and human resource management. Organisational psychology restricts itself to psychological factors only whereas organisational behaviour considers and combines all the branches of study e.g. Science, technology, economics, anthropology, psychology and so on and so forth.

Organisational behaviour is the basis of human resource management and development. The former is concept oriented whereas the latter is concerned with the technology of human development. The variables influencing human development are scientifically studied under organisational behaviour.

Human resource management, is activated, directed and channelized by the application of the knowledge of organisational behaviour which has become a field of study, research and

application for the development of human resources and the organisation as a whole. Thus, we can say that all these terms are interrelated but not synonymous with each other.

Characteristics of Organisational Behavior:

From The Above Definitions, The Following Features of Organisational Behaviour Emerge:

1. Behavioural Approach to Management:

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

2. Cause and Effect Relationship:

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

3. Organisational Behaviour is a Branch of Social Sciences:

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

4. Three Levels of Analysis:

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

5. A Science as well as an Art:

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

6. A Body of Theory, Research and Application:

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

7. Beneficial to both Organisation and Individuals:

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

8. Rational Thinking:

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

Nature of Organisational Behavior:

Organisational behaviour in the study of human behaviour in the organisations. Whenever an individual joins an organisation he brings with him unique set of personal characteristics, experiences from other organisations and a personal background. At the first stage organisational behaviour must look at the unique perspective that each individual brings to the work setting.

The second stage of organisational behaviour is to study the dynamics of how the incoming individuals interact with the broader organisation. No individual can work in isolation. He comes into contact with other individuals and the organisation in a variety of ways. The individual who joins a new organisation has to come into contact with the co-workers, managers, formal policies and procedures of the organisation etc.

Over the time, he is affected by his work experience and the organisation as well as his personal experiences and maturity. On the other hand, the organisation is also affected by the presence or absence of the individual. Thus, it is essential that OB must study the ways in which the individuals and organisation interact with each other.

The organisational behaviour must be studied from the perspective of the organisation itself because an organisation exists before a particular individual joins in and continues to exist after he or she has left the organisation. Thus, OB is the study of human behaviour in the organisation, the individual-organisation interaction and the organisation itself. And these factors are influenced by the external environment in which the individuals and the organisation exist.

Thus, we can say that we cannot study individual behaviour completely without learning something about the organisation. On the other hand, we cannot study the organisations without studying the behaviour of the individuals working in it. This is because the organisation influences and is influenced by the people working in it. Moreover, both the individuals and the organisation are influenced by the external environment. Thus, the field

of organisational behaviour is a complex field. It seeks to throw light on the entire canvas of human factor in the organisations which will include the causes and effects of such behaviour.

The Hawthorne Studies

The Hawthorne effect is named after what was one of the most famous experiments (or, more accurately, series of experiments) in industrial history. It marked a sea change in thinking about work and productivity. Previous studies, in particular Frederick Taylor's influential ideas, had focused on the individual and on ways in which an individual's performance could be improved. Hawthorne set the individual in a social context, establishing that the performance of employees is influenced by their surroundings and by the people that they are working with as much as by their own innate abilities. The experiments took place at Western Electric's factory at Hawthorne, a suburb of Chicago, in the late 1920s and early 1930s. They were conducted for the most part under the supervision of Elton Mayo, an Australian-born sociologist who eventually became a professor of industrial research at Harvard.

The original purpose of the experiments was to study the effects of physical conditions on productivity. Two groups of workers in the Hawthorne factory were used as guinea pigs. One day the lighting in the work area for one group was improved dramatically while the other group's lighting remained unchanged. The researchers were surprised to find that the productivity of the more highly illuminated workers increased much more than that of the control group.

The employees' working conditions were changed in other ways too (their working hours, rest breaks and so on), and in all cases their productivity improved when a change was made. Indeed, their productivity even improved when the lights were dimmed again. By the time everything had been returned to the way it was before the changes had begun, productivity at the factory was at its highest level. Absenteeism had plummeted.

The experimenters concluded that it was not the changes in physical conditions that were affecting the workers' productivity. Rather, it was the fact that someone was actually concerned about their workplace, and the opportunities this gave them to discuss changes before they took place.

A crucial element in Mayo's findings was the effect that working in groups had on the individual. At one time he wrote:

The desire to stand well with one's fellows, the so-called human instinct of association, easily outweighs the merely individual interest and the logic of reasoning upon which so many spurious principles of management are based.

Later in life he added:

The working group as a whole actually determined the output of individual workers by reference to a standard that represented the group conception (rather than management's) of a fair day's work. This standard was rarely, if ever, in accord with the standards of the efficiency engineers.

Fritz Roethlisberger, a leading member of the research team, wrote:

The Hawthorne researchers became more and more interested in the informal employee groups, which tend to form within the formal organisation of the company, and which are not likely to be represented in the organisation chart. They became interested in the beliefs and creeds which have the effect of making each individual feel an integral part of the group.

Three Organisation Theories: Classical, Neo-Classical and Modern Organisation Theory!

1. Classical Organisation Theory:

The classical writers viewed organisation as a machine and human beings as components of that machine. They were of the view that efficiency of the organisation can be increased by making human beings efficient. Their emphasis was on specialisation and co-ordination of activities. Most of the writers gave emphasis on efficiency at the top level and few at lower levels of organisation. That is why this theory has given streams; scientific management and administrative management. The scientific management group was mainly concerned with the tasks to be performed at operative levels.

Henry Fayol studied for the first time the principles and functions of management. Some authors like Gullick, Oliver Sheldon, Urwick viewed the problem where identification of activities is necessary for achieving organisation goals. Grouping or departmentation was also considered essential for making the functions effective. Since this theory revolves around structure it is also called 'structural theory of organisation.'

Pillars of Organisation Theory

According to classical writers, the organisation theory is built around four key pillars division of work, scalar and functional processes, structure and span of control.

(i) Division of Labour:

Division of labour implies that work must be divided to obtain specialisation with a view to improve the performance of workers. The classical theory rests on the assumption that more a particular job is broken into its simplest component parts, the more specialised a worker can become in carrying out his part of the job.

The specialisation in workers will make the organisation efficient. Various activities of a job are specified and subdivided into different components so that these may be assigned to

different persons. The workers will go on repeating their work under division of labour. The performance of same work will help workers to improve their efficiency and the organisation as a whole is benefitted by this exercise.

(ii) Scalar and Functional Process:

The scalar process refers to the growth of chain of command, delegation of authority, unity of command and obligation to report. It is called scalar process because it provides a scale or grading of duties according to the degree of authority and responsibility. It generates superior- subordinate relationship in the organisation. The functional process deals with the division of organisation into specialised parts or departments and regrouping of the parts into compatible units.

(ii) Structure:

It is the framework of formal relationships among various tasks, activities and people in the organisation. The basic structural element in the classical theory is position. Each position is assigned a specific task and authority is delegated for its accomplishment. The efficiency with which these tasks will be accomplished will determine the effectiveness of the organisation. The classical writers emphasised line and staff organisations.

(iv) Span of Control:

The span of control means the number of subordinates a manager can control. Classical thinkers specified numbers at different levels which can be effectively supervised by a superior. A manager cannot exercise proper control if the number of subordinates increases beyond a certain figure, on the other hand if the number is less then his capacity and knowledge cannot be fully utilised.

Appraisal of Classical Theory:

The classical theory suffers from some restraints. Some of its drawbacks are given as follows:

1. Classical thinkers concentrated only on line and staff structures. They did not try to find out the reasons if a particular structure is more effective than others.
2. This theory did not lay emphasis on decision-making processes.
3. Human behaviour was ignored in this theory. Classical thinkers did not realize the complexity of human nature. They take human beings as inert instrument of organisation performing the assigned task.
4. The assumption that organisation in a closed system is unrealistic. Organisation is greatly influenced by environment and vice-versa. A modern organisation is an open system which has interaction with the environment.

2. Neo-Classical Organisation Theory:

The classical theory of organisation focussed main attention on physiological and mechanical variables of organisational functioning. The testing of these variables did not show positive results. The Hawthorne Studies conducted by George Elton Mayo and associates discovered that real cause of human behaviour was somewhat more than mere physiological variables. These studies focussed attention on human beings in the organisation.

New-classical approach is contained in two points:

- (i) Organisational situation should be viewed in social, economic and technical terms, and
- (ii) the social process of group behaviour can be understood in terms of clinical method analogous to the doctor's diagnosis of human organism.

This theory views formal and informal forms of organisation as important. The behavioural approach followed in this theory is the other contribution of new-classical thinkers. The pillars of classical theory viz. division of work, departmentation, co-ordination and human behaviour were taken as given but these postulates were regarded as modified by people acting independently or within the context of the informal organisation.

The main propositions of neo-classical theory are given as follows:

1. The organisation in general is a social system composed of numerous interacting parts.
2. Informal organisations exist within the formal organisation. Both are affected by and affect each other.
3. Human being is independent and his behaviour can be predicted in terms of social factors at work.
4. Motivation is a complex process. Many socio- psychological factors operate to motivate human beings at work.
5. A conflict between organisational and individual goals often exists. There is a need to reconcile the goals of the individual with those of the organisation.
6. Team-work is essential for higher productivity.
7. Man's approach is not always rational. Often, he behaves non- logically in terms of rewards which he seeks from his work.
8. Communication is necessary as it carries information for the functioning of the organisation and the feelings of the people at work.

Improvements over Classical Theory:

Neo-classical theory offers modifications and improvements over classical theory in some aspects such as:

- (i) Flat structure,

(ii) Decentralisation,

(iii) Informal organisations.

(i) Flat Structure:

The classical theory suggested tall structure whereas neo-classical theory suggested flat structure. In tall structure there is a problem of communication because of differentiation between decision makers and implementers, the levels of management are too many and motivation of people is difficult. In case of flat structure the wide span of control helps in motivation, chain of communication is shorter and it is free from hierarchical control.

(ii) Decentralisation:

Neo-classical theory advocates decentralised organisation which is close to flat structure because of wider span of control. It allows autonomy and initiative at the lower level. It also develops people to occupy higher positions in future.

(iii) Informal Organisation:

The neo-classical theorists advocated the need for both formal and informal organisations. Formal organisation represents the intentions of top management for the purpose of interactions among the people. Informal organisation is necessary to plug the loop holes of formal organisation and to satisfy the social and psychological needs of people. Managements use informal organisation for overcoming resistance to change on the part of workers and also for fast communication process. Both formal and informal organisations are interdependent upon each other.

Appraisal of Neo-classical Organisation Theory:

This theory tries to overcome the shortcomings of classical organisation theory. It introduced the concept of informal organisation and human behaviour approach in the study of organisational functioning. However, it is also not free from various shortcomings. Scott observes that, "like classical theory, neo-classical theory suffers from incompetency, a short-sighted perspective and lack of integration among many facts of human behaviour studied by it."

The main criticism of this theory is as follows:

1. The assumptions on which this theory is based are sometimes not true. A thinking that there is always a possibility of finding a solution acceptable to all is not true. There are conflicting interests among various groups that are structural in character and not merely psychological. This aspect has not been discussed in the theory.
2. No particular organisational structure can be suitable for all the organisations. Various organisational formats given by neo-classicists are not applicable in all situations.

3. Neo-classical theory is only a modification of classical organisation theory. It suffers from nearly same drawbacks from which classical theory suffered. It lacks unified approach of organisation. This theory has also been criticised on the ground that it is nothing more than “a trifling body of empirical and descriptive information as it was mainly based on Hawthorne Studies.”

3. Modern Organisation Theory:

Modern organisation theory is of recent origin, having developed in early 1960's. This theory has tried to overcome the drawbacks of earlier theories. In the words of W.G. Scott, ‘The distinctive qualities of modern organisation theory are its conceptual analytical base, its reliance on empirical research data and, above all, its integrating nature. These qualities are framed in a philosophy which accepts the premise that the only meaningful way to study organisation is to study it as a system.’ This theory may be understood in two approaches: systems approach and contingency approach.

Systems Approach:

This approach studies the organisation in its totality. The mutually dependent variables are properly analysed. Both internal and external variables are studied in analysing the nature of organisation. Though this theory passes a much higher conceptual level as compared to earlier theories but different writers have given varied views of the system.

Organisation as a system can well be understood by identifying various sub-systems within it. Each sub-system may be identified by certain processes, roles, structures and norms of conduct. Seiler has classified four components in an organisation, human inputs, technological inputs, organisational inputs, and social structure and norms.

Katz and Kahu have identified five sub-systems of organisation:

- (i) Technical sub-system concerned with the work that gets done;
- (ii) Supportive sub-system of procurement, disposal and institutional relations;
- (iii) Maintenance of sub-systems for tying people into their functional roles;
- (iv) Adaptive sub-systems concerned with organisational change; and
- (v) Managerial sub-systems for direction, adjudication and control of the many sub-systems and the activities of the structure.

Contingency Approach:

Even though systems approach presents a better understanding of organisational and managerial functioning but it does not provide solution for all types of organisational structures. Systems approach offers models which may not suit every type of organisation. A structure suitable for one unit may not be suitable for another. Contingency approach

suggests an organisational design which suits a particular unit. A structure will be suitable only if it is tailor made for an enterprise.

The influence of both internal and external factors should be considered while framing a suitable organisational structure. This approach suggests that needs, requirements, situations of a particular concern should be considered while designing an organisational structure.

The factors which influence an organisation may be described as:

- (i) Environment
- (ii) Technology
- (iii) Size of operations
- (iv) People.

These factors greatly influence a decision for the selection of an appropriate organisation for an enterprise.

SYSTEM APPROACH TO MANAGEMENT: DEFINITION AND FEATURES

In the 1960, an approach to management appeared which try to unify the prior schools of thought. This approach is commonly known as 'Systems Approach'. Its early contributors include Ludwing Von Bertalanffy, Lawrence J. Henderson, W.G. Scott, Deniel Katz, Robert L. Kahn, W. Buckley and J.D. Thompson.

They viewed organisation as an organic and open system, which is composed of interacting and interdependent parts, called subsystems. The system approach is top took upon management as a system or as "an organised whole" made up of sub- systems integrated into a unity or orderly totality.

Systems approach is based on the generalization that everything is inter-related and inter-dependent. A system is composed of related and dependent element which when in interaction, forms a unitary whole. A system is simply an assemblage or combination of things or parts forming a complex whole.

One its most important characteristic is that it is composed of hierarchy of sub-systems. That is the parts forming the major system and so on. For example, the world can be considered-to be a system in which various national economies are sub-systems.

In turn, each national economy is composed of its various industries, each industry is composed of firms' and of course a firm can be considered a system composed of sub-systems sudi as production, marketing, finance, accounting and so on.

Features of Systems Approach:

- (i) A system consists of interacting elements. It is set of inter-related and inter-dependent parts arranged in a manner that produces a unified whole.

(ii) The various sub-systems should be studied in their inter-relationships rather, than in isolation from each other.

(iii) An organisational system has a boundary that determines which parts are internal and which are external.

(iv) A system does not exist in a vacuum. It receives information, material and energy from other systems as inputs. These inputs undergo a transformation process within a system and leave the system as output to other systems.

(v) An organisation is a dynamic system as it is responsive to its environment. It is vulnerable to change in its environment.

In the systems approach, attention is paid towards the overall effectiveness of the system rather than the effectiveness of the sub-systems. The interdependence of the sub-systems is taken into account. The idea of systems can be applied at an organisational level. In Applying system concepts, organisations are taken into account and not only the objectives and performances of different departments (sub-systems).

The systems approach is considered both general and specialised systems. The general systems approach to management is mainly concerned with formal organisations and the concepts are relating to technique of sociology, psychology and philosophy. The specific management system includes the analysis of organisational structure, information, planning and control mechanism and job design, etc.

As discussed earlier, system approach has immense possibilities, “A system view point may provide the impetus to unify management theory. By definitions, it could treat the various approaches such as the process of quantitative and behavioural ones as sub-systems in an overall theory of management. Thus, the systems approach may succeed where the process approach has failed to lead management out of the theory of jungle.”

Systems theory is useful to management because it aims at achieving the objectives and it views organisation as an open system. Chester Barnard was the first person to utilize the systems approach in the field of management.

UNIT II

PSYCHOLOGICAL PROCESS OF BEHAVIOUR

Behaviour represents the course of action of a person. It is the outcome of an action also. It is easy to understand the behaviour of a person, if we know what caused it or what made the person behave in a particular way. It caused by number of variables. Some of the stated as under;

SR Model :(Stimulus- Response model)

The model assumes that the reasons which cause human behavior are of two types; internal feeling and external environment. Internal feeling of a person may relate to his motivational factors whereas external environment which is also called the stimulus directly influence the activity of a person. Stimulus can be anything from the external environment like heat, sound etc. the behaviour is determined by the stimulus or in other way the external environment forces determine one's behaviour. From stimulus, the behaviour (response) occurring.

Intelligence: The potential ability to acquire new ideas or behavior, personality, emotions etc...

- **Howard Gardner**
- Gardner says there is not just one intelligence but 8 intelligences

1. Linguistic

- Able to communicate well with others
- Can read and comprehend well
- Counselors

2. Logical-Mathematical

- Scientists
- Word problems

3. Spatial

- Build things and know how it all works

4. Bodily Kinesthetic

- How well one uses their bodies
- Athletic
- Can walk and chew gum at the same time

5. Musical/Artistic

- A. Creativity (Draw, Paint)
- B. Appreciation (Exposure to many things)

6. Interpersonal

- Get along well with “others”

7. Intrapersonal

- Know “yourself” well
- Have common sense

8. Naturalist

- How one interacts with the outdoors

LEARNING

Learning is an important psychological process that-determines human behavior. Simple way, “learning is something we did when we went to school “it is permanent changing behavior through education and training, practice and experience. Learning can be defined as “*relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of experience or reinforced practice*”. There are four important points in the definition of learning:

1. Learning involves a change in behavior, though this change is not necessarily an improvement over previous behavior. Learning generally has the connotation of improved behavior, but bad habits, prejudices, stereotypes, and work restrictions are also learned.
2. The behavioral change must be relatively permanent. Any temporary change in behavior is not a part of learning.
3. The behavioral change must be based on some form of practice or experience.
4. The practice or experience must be reinforced in order so as to facilitate learning to occur.

Components of the learning process

The components of learning process are: drive, cue stimuli, response, reinforcement and retention.

Drive

Learning frequently occurs in the presence of drive - any strong stimulus that impels action. Drives are basically of two types -primary (or physiological); and secondary (or psychological). These two categories of drives often interact with each other. Individuals operate under many drives at the same time. To predict a behavior, it is necessary to establish which drives are stimulating the most.

Cue Stimuli

Cue stimuli are those factors that exist in the environment as perceived by the individual. The idea is to discover the conditions under which stimulus will increase the

probability of eliciting a specific response. There may be two types of stimuli with respect to their results in terms of response concerned: generalization and discrimination.

Generalization occurs when a response is elicited by a similar but new stimulus. If two stimuli are exactly alike, they will have the same probability of evoking a specified response. The principle of generalization has important implications for human learning. Because of generalization, a person does not have to 'completely relearn each of the new tasks. It allows the members to adapt to overall changing conditions and specific new assignments. The individual can borrow from past learning experiences to adjust more smoothly to new learning situations.

Discrimination is a procedure in which an organization learns to emit a response to a stimulus but avoids making the same response to a similar but somewhat different stimulus. Discrimination has wide applications in 'organizational behavior. For example, a supervisor can discriminate between two equally high producing workers, one with low quality and other with high quality.

Responses

The stimulus results in responses. Responses may be in the physical form or may be in terms of attitudes, familiarity, perception or other complex phenomena. In the above example, the supervisor discriminates between the worker producing low quality products and the worker producing high quality products, and positively responds only to the quality conscious worker.

Reinforcement

Reinforcement is a fundamental condition of learning. Without reinforcement, no measurable modification of behavior takes place. Reinforcement may be defined as the environmental event's affecting the probability of occurrence of responses with which they are associated.

Retention

The stability of learned behavior over time is defined as retention and its contrary is known as forgetting. Some of the learning is retained over a period of time while others may be forgotten.

LEARNING THEORIES

Classical Conditioning

The work of the famous Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov demonstrated the classical conditioning process. When Pavlov presented a piece of meat to the dog in the experiment, Pavlov noticed a great deal of salivation. He termed the food an unconditioned stimulus and the salivation an unconditioned response. When the dog saw the meat, it salivated. On the

other hand, when Pavlov merely rang a bell, the dog did not salivate. Pavlov subsequently introduced the sound of a bell each time the meat was given to the dog. The dog eventually learned to salivate in response to the ringing of the-bell-even when there was no meat. Pavlov had conditioned the dog to respond to a learned stimulus. Thorndike called this the "law of exercise" which states that behavior can be learned by repetitive association between a stimulus and a response.

Classical conditioning has a limited value in the study of organizational behavior. As pointed out by Skinner, classical conditioning represents an insignificant part of total human learning. Classical conditioning is passive. Something happens and we react in a specific or particular fashion. It is elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event. As such it explains simple and reflexive behaviors. But behavior of people in organizations is emitted rather than elicited, and it is voluntary rather than reflexive. The learning of these complex behaviors can be explained or better understood by looking at operant conditioning.

Operant Conditioning

An operant is defined as a behavior that produces effects. Operant conditioning, basically a product of Skinnerian psychology, suggests that individuals emit responses that are either not rewarded or are punished. Operant conditioning is a voluntary behavior and it is determined, maintained and controlled by its consequences.

Operant conditioning is a powerful tool for managing people in organizations. Most behaviors in organizations are learned, controlled and altered by the consequences; i.e. operant behaviors. Management can use the operant conditioning process successfully to control and influence the behavior of employees by manipulating its reward system. Reinforcement is anything that both increases the strength of response and tends to induce repetitions of the behavior. Four types of reinforcement strategies can be employed by managers to influence the behavior of the employees, viz., positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction and punishment.

Positive Reinforcement

Positive reinforcement strengthens and increases behavior by the presentation of a desirable consequence (reward). In other words, a positive reinforce is a reward that follows behavior and is capable of increasing the frequency of that behavior. There are two types of positive: reinforcers: primary and secondary. Primary reinforcers such as food, water and sex are of biological importance and have effects, which are independent of past experiences. For instance, a primary reinforce like food satisfies hunger need and reinforced food-producing behavior. Secondary reinforcers like job advancement, recognition, praise and esteem result

from previous association with a primary reinforce. Primary reinforces must be learned. In order to apply reinforcement procedures successfully, management must select reinforces that are sufficiently powerful and durable.

Negative Reinforcement

The threat of punishment is known as negative reinforcement. Negative reinforces also serve to strengthen desired behavior responses leading to their removal or termination.

Extinction

Extinction is an effective method of controlling undesirable behavior. It refers to non-reinforcement. It is based on the principle that if a response is not reinforced, it will eventually disappear. Extinction is a behavioral strategy that does not promote desirable behaviors but can help to reduce undesirable behaviors.

Punishment

Punishment is a control device employed in organizations to discourage and reduce annoying behaviors of employees.

Observational learning

Observational learning results from watching the behavior of another person and appraising the consequences of that behavior. It does not require an overt response. When Mr. X observes that Y is rewarded for superior performance, X learns the positive relationship between performance and rewards without actually obtaining the reward himself. Observational learning plays a crucial role in altering behaviors in organizations.

Cognitive Learning

Here the primary emphasis is on knowing how events and objects are related to each other. Most of the learning that takes place in the classroom is cognitive learning. Cognitive learning is important because it increases the chance that the learner will do the right thing first, without going through a lengthy operant conditioning process.

Social Learning

Social learning integrates the cognitive and operant approaches of learning. It recognizes the learning doesn't take place only because of environmental stimuli (classical and operant views) and of individual stimulus (Cognitive approach), but it is a blend of both views. It also emphasizes that people acquire new behaviours by observing or imitating others in a social setting. Thus it is an interactive nature of cognitive, behavioural and environmental determinants.

Learning can be gained discipline and self control and an inner desire to acquire knowledge and skills irrespective of rewards or consequences. It is also possible by observing others.

This is called **vicarious learning or modeling** or imitation in which another person acts as a role model, whose behaviour we tend to imitate.

E.g. Subordinates may observe their boss; students may observe their teachers and model them. The steps of modeling are:

PERSONALITY

The term personality has been derived from Latin word "*personare*" which means to speak through. Personality is traditionally refers to how people influence others through their external appearances.

Gorden Allport defines "*Personality is the dynamic organisation within an individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment*".

Personality is a complex, multi-dimensional construct and there is no simple definition of what personality is. Maddi defines personality as, "A stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the psychological behavior and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment".

From the above definition we can infer that all individuals have some universally common characteristics. Some personality theorists stress the need of identifying person-situation as interaction. This is equivalent to recognizing the social learning aspects related to personality. Such a social learning analysis is one of the most comprehensive and meaningful ways included in the overall study of organizational behavior. From this perspective, personality means the way people affect others. It also involves people's understanding themselves, as well as their pattern of inner and outer measurable traits, and the person and situation interaction. People affect others depending primarily upon their external appearance such as height, weight, facial features, color and other physical aspects and traits.

Personality traits

Personality traits are very important in organizational behavior. In particular, five personality traits especially related to job performance have recently emerged from research. Characteristics of these traits can be summarized as follows:

1. **Extroversion:** Sociable, talkative and assertive.
2. **Agreeableness:** Good-natured, cooperative and trusting.
3. **Conscientiousness:** Responsible, dependable, persistent and achievement-oriented.
4. **Emotional Stability:** Viewed from a negative standpoint such as tense, insecure and nervous.
5. **Openness to Experience:** Imaginative, artistically sensitive and intellectual.

Identifying the above "big five" traits related to performance reveals that personality plays an important role in organizational behavior. Besides physical appearance and personality traits, the aspects of personality concerned with the self-concept such as self-esteem and self-efficacy and the person-situation interaction also play important roles.

Personality formation

The personality formation of an individual starts at birth and continues throughout his life. Three major types of factors play important roles in personality formation, which are as follows:

- **Determinants:** The most widely studied determinants of personality are biological, social and cultural. People grow up in the presence of certain hereditary characteristics (body shape and height), the social context (family and friends) and the cultural context (religion and values). These three parts interact with each other to shape personality. As people grow into adulthood, their personalities become very clearly defined and generally stable.
- **Stages:** According to Sigmund Freud human personality progresses through four stages: dependent, compulsive, oedipal and mature. This concept of stages of growth provides a valuable perspective to organizational behavior. Experienced managers become aware of the stages that their employees often go through. This helps them deal with these stages effectively and promote maximum growth for the individual and for the organization.
- **Traits:** Traits to personality are also based on psychology. According to some trait theories, all people share common traits, like social, (political, religious and aesthetic preferences but each individual's nature differentiates that person from all others.

Determinants of personality

Peoples are very complex. They have different ability and interest. Personality is influenced by four major factors as:

1. Culture largely determines what a person is and what a person will learn. Culture is the complex of the believes, values and techniques for dealing with the environment which are shared with the contemporaries and transmitted by one generation to the next. Norms, attitude, moral values, introducing and accepting changes etc will influence the personality.

2. Family

Family is an important factor in shaping personality of an individual. The impact of these factors on the personality can be understood identification process. Identification starts when a person begins to identify himself with some other members of the family. Normally child tries to behave like father or mother.

Home environment, family background, social class, parent education level, race, family relationship, geographical location, birth order, number of members in family etc will determine the personality development of an individual

3. Situational factors

Situation extends an important press on individual. Every individual goes through different types of experience and events in his life. Some will influence his behaviour and some will change and modify his behaviour.

Eg. A trauma suffered by a person, especially sex assault, affects his later life also.

Timid/shy person performs his heroic acts in certain life saving situation, without caring for his own safety.

4. Social factors

Socialization is a process by which an infant acquires from the enormously wide range of behavioral potentialities that are open to him at birth or customarily acceptable to the family and social groups. The contribution of family and social group in combination with the culture is known as socialization. It initially starts with the contact with the mother and later on the other members of the family, schoolmates, friends, and then colleagues at workspace and so on. An individual has to accept the norms of the society in which he exists.

Personality factors in organization

Some of the important personalities factors that determine what kind of behaviors are exhibited at work include the following:

Need Pattern

Steers and Braunstein in 1976 developed a scale for the four needs of personality that became apparent in the 'work environment. They are as follows:

- **The need for achievement:** Those with a high achievement need engage themselves proactively in work behaviors in order to feel proud of their achievements and successes.
- **The need for affiliation:** Those in greater need for affiliation like to work cooperatively with others.
- **The need for autonomy:** Those in need for autonomy function in the best way when not closely supervised.
- **The need for dominance:** Those high in need for dominance are very effective while operating in environments where they can actively enforce their legitimate authority.

Locus of Control

Locus of control is the degree to which an individual believes that his or her behavior has direct impact on the consequences of that behavior. Some people, for example, believe that if they work hard they will certainly succeed. They, strongly believe that each individual is in control of his or her life. They are said to have an internal locus of control. By contrast, some people think that what happens to them is a result of fate, chance, luck or the behavior of other people, rather than the lack of skills or poor performance on their part. Because- these individuals think that forces beyond their control dictate the happenings around them, they are said to have an external locus of control.

Introversion and Extroversion

Introversion is the tendency of individuals, which directs them to be inward and process feelings, thoughts and ideas within themselves. Extroversion, on the contrary, refers to the tendency in individuals to look outside themselves, searching for external stimuli with which they can interact. While there is some element of introversion as well as extroversion in all of us, people tend to be dominant as either extroverts or introverts. Extroverts are sociable, lively and gregarious and seek outward stimuli or external exchanges. Such individuals are likely to be most successful while working in the sales department, publicity office, personal relations unit, and so on, where they can interact face to face with others. Introverts, on the other Hand, are quiet, reflective, introspective, and intellectual people, preferring to interact with a small intimate circle of friends. Introverts are more likely to be successful when they can work on highly abstract ideas such as R&D work, in a relatively quiet atmosphere. Since managers have to constantly interact with individuals both in and out of the organization and influence people to achieve the organization's goals, it is believed that extroverts are likely to be more successful as managers.

Tolerance for Ambiguity

This personality characteristic indicates the level of uncertainty that people can tolerate to work efficiently without experiencing undue stress. Managers have to work well under conditions of extreme uncertainty and insufficient information, especially when things are rapidly changing in the organization's external environment. Managers who have a high tolerance for ambiguity can cope up well under these conditions. Managers, who have a low tolerance for ambiguity may be effective in structured work settings but find it almost impossible to operate effectively when things are rapidly changing and much information about the future events is not available. Thus, tolerance for ambiguity is a personality dimension necessary for managerial success.

Self-Esteem and Self-Concept

Self-esteem denotes the extent to which individuals 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. Self-esteem is important to self-concept, i.e., the way individuals, define themselves as to who they are and derive their sense of identity. High self-esteem provides a high sense of self-concept, which, in turn, reinforces high self-esteem. Thus, the two are mutually reinforcing. Individuals with a high self-esteem will try to take on more challenging assignments and be successful. Thus, they will be enhancing their self-concept i.e., they would tend to define themselves as highly valued individuals in the organizational system. The higher the self-concept and self-esteem, the greater will be their contributions to the goals of the organization, especially when the system rewards them for their contributions.

Authoritarianism and Dogmatism

Authoritarianism is the extent to which an individual believes that power and status differences are important within' hierarchical social systems like organizations. For example, an employee who is highly authoritarian may accept directives or orders from his superior without much questioning. A person who is not highly authoritarian might agree to carry out appropriate and reasonable directives from his boss. But he may also raise questions, express disagreement and even refuse to carry out requests if they are for some reason objectionable.

Dogmatism is the rigidity of a person's beliefs and his or her openness to other viewpoints. The popular terms 'close-minded' and 'open-minded' describe people who are more and less dogmatic in their beliefs respectively. For example, a manager may be unwilling to listen to a new idea related to doing something more efficiently. He is said to be a person who is close-minded or highly dogmatic. A manager who is very receptive to hearing about and trying out new ideas in the same circumstances might be seen as more open-minded or less dogmatic. Dogmatism can be either beneficial or detrimental to organizations, but given the degree of change in the nature of organizations and their environments, individuals who are, not dogmatic are most likely to be useful and productive organizational members.

Risk Propensity

Risk-propensity is the degree to which an individual is willing to take chances and make risky decisions. A manager with a high-risk propensity might be expected to experiment with new ideas and to lead the organization in new directions. In contrast, a manager with low risk propensity might lead to a stagnant and overly conservative organization.

Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism is manipulating or influencing other people as a primary way of achieving one's goal. An individual tends to be Machiavellian, if he tends to be logical in assessing the system around, willing to twist and turn facts to influence others, and try to gain control of people, events and situations by manipulating the system to his advantage.

Type A and B Personalities

Type A persons feel a chronic sense of time urgency, are highly achievement-oriented, exhibit a competitive drive, and are impatient when their work is slowed down for any reason. Type B persons are easy-going individuals who do not feel the time urgency, and who do not experience the competitive drive. Type A individuals are significantly more prone to heart attacks than Type B individuals. While Type A persons help the organization to move ahead in a relatively short period of time they may also suffer health problems, which might be detrimental to both themselves and the organization in the long run.

Work-Ethic Orientation

Some individuals are highly work-oriented while others try to do the minimum Work that is necessary to get by without being fired on-the-job. The extremely work oriented person gets greatly involved in the job. Extreme work ethic values could lead to traits of "workahollism" where work is considered as the only primary motive for living with very little outside interests. For a workaholic turning to work can sometimes become a viable alternative to facing non-work related problems. A high level of work ethic orientation of members is good for the organization to achieve its goals. Too much "workahollism", however, might lead to premature physical and mental exhaustion and health problems, which is dysfunctional for both organization and the workaholic members.

The above ten different personality predispositions are important for individual, managerial and organizational effectiveness.

In summary, personality is a very diverse and complex cognitive process. It incorporates almost everything. As defined above, personality means the whole person. It is concerned with external appearance and traits, self and situational interactions. Probably the best statement on personality was made many years ago by Kluckhohn and Murray, "to some extent, a person's personality is like all other people's, like some other people's, and like no other people's."

ATTITUDE AND PERCEPTION

In simple words, an "attitude" is an individual's point of view or an individual's way of looking at something. To be more explicit, an "attitude" may be explained as the mental

state of an individual, which prepares him to react or make him behave in a particular pre-determined way. it is actually acquired feeling.

An attitude is defined as, "a learned pre-disposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object". (Katz and Scotland)

Attitude is the combination of beliefs and feelings that people have about specific ideas, situations or other people. Attitude is important because it is the mechanism through which most people express their feelings.

COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDE

Attitude has three components, which are as follows:

- Affective component
- Cognitive component
- Intentional component

The affective component of an attitude reflects 'feelings and emotions' that an individual has towards a situation. The cognitive component of an attitude is derived from 'knowledge' that an individual has about a situation. Finally, the intentional component of an attitude reflects how an individual 'expects to behave' towards or in the situation. For example, the different components of an attitude held towards a firm, which supplies inferior products and that too irregularly could be described as follows:

- "I don't like that company"—Affective component.
- "They are the worst supply firm I have ever dealt with"—Cognitive component.
- "I will never do business with them again"—Intentional component.

People try to maintain consistency among the three components of their attitudes. However, conflicting circumstances often arise. The conflict that individuals may experience among their own attitudes is called 'cognitive dissonance.

ATTITUDE FORMATION AND CHANGE

Individual attitude are formed over time as a result of repeated personal experiences with ideas, situations or people. One of the very important ways to understand individual behaviour in an organization is that of studying attitude, which is situational specific and learned.

An attitude may change as a result of new information. A manager may have a negative attitude about a new employee because of his lack of job-related experience. After working with a new person, a manager may come to realize that he is actually very talented and subsequently may develop a more positive attitude toward him.

Work-Related Attitudes

People in an organization form attitude about many things such as about their salary, promotion possibilities, superiors, fringe benefits, food in the canteen, uniform etc. Especially some important attitudes are job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, organizational commitment and job involvement.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an attitude reflects the extent to which an individual is gratified or fulfilled .by his or her work. Extensive research conducted on job satisfaction has indicated that personal. factors such as an individual's needs and aspirations determine this attitude, along with group and organizational factors such as relationships with co-workers and supervisors, working conditions, work policies and compensation.

A satisfied employee also tends to be absent less often, makes positive contributions, and stays with the organization. In contrast, a dissatisfied employee may be absent more often may experience stress that disrupts co-workers, and may keep continually look for another job.

Organizational factors that influence employee satisfaction include pay, promotion, policies and procedures of the organizations and working conditions. Group factors such as relationship with co-workers and supervisors also influence job- satisfaction. Similarly, satisfaction depends on individual factors like individual's needs and aspirations. If employees are satisfied with their job, it may lead to low employee turnover and less absenteeism and vice-versa.

Organizational Commitment and Involvement

Two other important work-related attitudes are organizational commitment and involvement. Organizational commitment is the individual's feeling of identification with and attachment to an organization. Involvement refers to a person's willingness to be a team member and work beyond the usual standards of the job. An employee with little involvement is motivated by extrinsic motivational factor and an employee with strong involvement is motivated by intrinsic motivational factors.

There are a number of factors that lead to commitment and involvement. Both may increase with an employee's age and years with the organization, with his sense of job security and participation in decision-making. If the organization treats its employees fairly and provides reasonable rewards and job security, employees are more likely to be satisfied and committed. Involving employees in decision-making can also help to increase

commitment. In particular, designing jobs, which are interesting and stimulating, can enhance job involvement.

Measurement of Attitude

Since attitude is a psychological phenomenon, it is necessary to measure because it affects the feeling of the people, labour turn over, absenteeism, productivity etc. some of the popular method to measure attitudes are

1. **Opinion survey**-this is based on questionnaire with closed end questions(Y/N questions) or multiple choice questions regarding nature of work, environment, rewards etc. through which attitude is measured.
2. **Interviews**- an interview board consisting of neutral person conducting interview with employees and keep the result as confidential
3. **Scaling techniques**-Thurston attitude scale, Likert scale etc.

Sources of attitude

1. Direct personal experience
2. Association
3. Family and per groups
4. Neighborhood
5. Economic status and occupation
6. Mass communication

PERCEPTION

Perception is described as a person's view of reality. Perception is an important mediating cognitive process. Through this complex process, people make interpretations of the stimulus or situation they are faced with. Both selectivity and organization go 'into perceptual, interpretations. Externally, selectivity is affected by intensity, size, contrast, repetition, motion and novelty and familiarity. Internally, perceptual selectivity is influenced by the individual's motivation, learning and personality. After the selective process filters the stimulus situation, the incoming information is organized into a meaningful whole.

“It is the interpretation of sensory data so as to gather meaningful ideas”. In the process of perception, people receive many different kinds of information through all five senses, assimilate them and then interpret them. Different people perceive the same information differently.

Perception plays a key role in determining individual behaviour in organizations. Organizations send messages in a variety of forms to their members regarding what they are

expected to do and not to do. In spite of organizations sending clear messages, those messages are subject to distortion in the process of being perceived by organizational members. Hence, managers need to have a general understanding of the basic perceptual process.

Basic Perceptual Process

Perception is influenced by characteristics of the object being perceived, by the characteristics of the person and by the situational processes. Perception is a screen or filter through which information passes before having an effect on people. It consists of:

1. **Perceptual input**- Information, object, event, people, symbols etc. Characteristics of the object include contrast, intensity, movement, repetition and novelty. Characteristics of the person include attitude, self-concept and personality.
2. **Perceptual mechanism**- receiving of information by means of five senses from the external environment and process them to form output. It includes:
 - a. Perceptual receiving
 - b. Perceptual selectivity
 - c. Perceptual organization
3. **Perceptual output**- behavioral outcome of perceptual mechanism. It is the result of perceptual process. It includes attitude, opinions, feelings, values and behaviour

The details of a particular situation affect the way a person perceives an object; the same person may perceive the same object very differently in different situations. The processes through which a person's perceptions are altered by the situation include selection, organization, attribution, projection, stereotyping process, and the halo effect process. Among these, selective perception and stereotyping are particularly relevant to organizations.

Perceptual context

Sometimes visual stimuli will be completely meaningless without context. In organization, a pat on the back, a suggestive gesture, a raised eyebrow etc. will be meaningless without proper context. They will be made more meaningful if an employee receives a pat on the back for enhancement of his performance and like that.

Perceptual defense

People often screen out perceptual stimuli that make them uncomfortable and dissatisfying people generally build defenses against stimuli or events that are either personally or culturally unacceptable or threatening. Perceptual defence is performed by

- a. Denying the existence or importance of conflicting information.

- b. Distorting the new information to match the old
- c. Acknowledging the existence of new information but treating it as a non- representative exception.

Selective Perception

Selective perception is the process of screening out information that we are uncomfortable with or that contradicts our beliefs. For example, a manager has a very positive attitude about a particular worker and one day he notices that the worker seems to be goofing up. Selective perception may make the manager to quickly disregard what he observed. For example, a manager who has formed a very negative attitude about a particular worker and he happens to observe a high performance from the same worker. In this case influenced by the selective perception process he too will disregard it.

In one sense, selective perception is beneficial because it allows us to disregard minor bits of information. But if selective perception causes managers to ignore important information, it can become quite detrimental.

Halo effect

It is the tendency of judging the person entirely on the basis of a single trait which may be favourable or unfavourable. We judge a person by our first impression about him or her. When we draw general impression about an individual based on single characteristics such as intelligence, sociability or appearance, a halo effect is operating. This phenomenon frequently occurs when students appraise their classroom teacher.

Stereotyping

Stereotyping is the process of categorizing or labeling people on the basis of a single attribute. Perceptions based on stereotypes about people's sex exist more or less in all work places. Typically, these perceptions lead to the belief that an individual's sex determines which tasks he or she will be

able to perform. For example, if a woman is sitting behind the table in the office, she will be very often, perceived as a clerk and not an executive at first. But it would induce holding an exactly opposite assumption about a man. Stereotyping consists of three steps: identifying categories of people (like women, politician), associating certain characteristics with those categories (like passivity, dishonesty respectively) and then assuming that anyone who fits a certain category must have those characteristics. For example, if dishonesty is associated with politicians, we are likely to assume that all politicians are dishonest.

Projection

It refers to the tendency of the people to see their own traits in other people. It means that when they make judgments about others, they project their own characteristics in others. eg. For a lazy supervisor, every worker is lazy or idle

Attribution

Perception is also closely linked with another process called attribution. Attribution is a mechanism through which we observe behaviour and then attribute certain causes to it. According to Attribution theory, once we observe behaviour we evaluate it in terms of its consensus, consistency and distinctiveness. Consensus is the extent to which other people in the same situation behave in the same way. Consistency is the degree to which the same person behaves in the same way at different times. Distinctiveness is the extent to which the same person behaves in the same way in other situations. The forces within the person (internal) or outside the person (external) lead to the behaviour.

For instance, if you observe that an employee is much more motivated than the people around (low consensus), is consistently motivated (high consistency), and seems to work hard no matter what the task (low distinctiveness) you might conclude that internal factors are causing that particular behaviour. Another example is of a manager who observes that an employee is late for a meeting. He might realize that this employee is the only one who is late (low consensus), recall that he is often late for other meetings (high consistency), and subsequently recall that the same employee is sometimes late for work (low distinctiveness). This pattern of attributions might cause the manager to decide that the individual's behaviour requires a change. At this point, the manager might meet the subordinate to establish some disciplinary consequences to avoid future delays.

Impression management

Social perception is concerned with how one individual perceives other individuals. Conversely, impression management is the process by which the general people attempt to manage or control the perceptions that others form about them. People often tend to present themselves in such a way so as to impress others in a socially desirable manner. Thus, impression management has considerable implications for activities like determining the validity of performance appraisals. It serves as a pragmatic, political tool for someone to climb the ladder of success in organizations.

Factors Affecting perception

Perceptual selection is determined by two broad factors:

1. External factors

2. Internal factors

External factors

These factors relate the environment. They include:

A. **Size** – size determines the height or weight of an individual, object etc. bigger the size, higher will be the perception.

B. **Intensity**- intensity attracts to increase the selective perception. Eg. An illuminated shop attracts attention of the customers.

C. **Repetition**- repeated message and advertisement is more likely perceived than a single one.

D. **Movements** – moving objects are more likely to be perceived than a stationary object. A moving car is more perceived than a parked car.

F. **Status**- high status people can influence the perception of employees than low status people. An order from the Managing Director may be perceived by employees quickly.

G. **Contrast** - an object which contrasts with surrounding environment is more likely to be noticed.

E.g. “EXIT” sign in the cinema hall, Danger sign in transformers etc.

H. **Novelty and Familiarity**- this states that either the familiar or novel factor can serve as attention better. E.g. Face of a film star can be identified even in a crowd. Novel or new type of advertisement like DOCOMO...

I. **Nature** – perception level may be varied according to the nature of input or stimuli. Eg. A picture attracts more attention than a word.

J. **Order**- the order in which the objects or stimuli are presented is an important factor for attention. E.g. Welcome speech at the beginning will attract more attention. Like that, in film, suspense will be revealed at last to heighten the curiosity and perceptive attention.

Internal factors

Internal or personal factors also influence the perception process. The important personal factors are:

A. **Learning**- A perceptual set is basically what a person expects from the stimuli on the basis of experience and learning relative to same or similar stimuli. Eg. Perception on sign board will be different for those who learned driving and those who not.

Motivation- Motivation also plays an important role in influencing perception. E.g. A hungry person will be very sensitive to the smell or sight of food than a non-hungry one.

- B. **Personality**- perception is also influenced by personality especially young and old, man to women etc.
- C. **Experience**- a successful experience enhance and boost the perceptive ability and leads to accuracy in perception whereas failure erodes confidence

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The word motivation is derived from 'motive', which means an active form of a desire, craving or need that must be satisfied. Motivation is the key to organizational effectiveness. The manager in general has to get the work done through others. These 'others' are human resources who need to be motivated to attain organizational objectives.

Definition

According to George R. Terry, "Motivation is the desire within an individual that stimulates him or her to action."

In the words of Robert Dublin, it is "the complex of forces starting and keeping a person at work in an organization". Viteles defines motivation as "an unsatisfied need which creates a state of tension or disequilibrium, causing the individual to move in a goal directed pattern towards restoring a state of equilibrium, by satisfying the need."

On the basis of above definitions, the following observations can be made regarding motivation:

- Motivation is an inner psychological force, which activates and compels the person to behave in a particular manner.
- The motivation process is influenced by personality traits, learning abilities, perception and competence of an individual.
- A highly motivated employee works more efficiently and his level of production tends to be higher than others.
- Motivation originates from the needs and wants of an individual. It is a tension of lacking something in his mind, which forces him to work more efficiently.
- Motivation is also a process of stimulating and channelising the energy of an individual for achieving set goals.
- Motivation also plays a crucial role in determining the level of performance. Highly motivated employees get higher satisfaction, which may lead to higher efficiency.
- Motivating force and its degree, may differ from individual to individual depending on his personality, needs, competence and other factors.

Features of motivation

The following are the features of motivation:

- It is an internal feeling and forces a person to action.
- It is a continuous activity.
- It varies from person to person and from time to time.
- It may be positive or negative.

Need-based theories to motivation

(a) Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow Abraham proposed his theory in the 1940s. This theory, popularly known as the Hierarchy of Needs assumes that people are motivated to satisfy five levels of needs: physiological, security, belongingness, esteem and self-actualization needs. The following figure shows Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy

Maslow suggested that the five levels of needs are arranged in accordance with their importance, starting from the bottom of the hierarchy. An individual is motivated first and foremost to satisfy physiological needs. When these needs are satisfied, he is motivated and 'moves up' the hierarchy to satisfy security needs. This 'moving up' process continues until the individual reaches the self-actualization level.

Physiological needs represent the basic issues of survival such as food, sex, water and air. In organizational settings, most physiological needs are satisfied by adequate wages and by the work environment itself, which provides employees with rest rooms, adequate lighting, comfortable temperatures and ventilation.

Security or safety needs refer to the requirements for a secure physical and emotional environment. Examples include the desire for adequate housing and clothing, the need to be free from worry about money and job security and the desire for safe working conditions. Security needs are satisfied for people in the work place by job continuity, a grievance resolving system and an adequate insurance and retirement benefit package.

Belonging or social needs are related to the, social aspect of human life. They include the need for love and affection and the need to be accepted by one's peers. For most people these needs are satisfied by a combination of family and community relationships and friendships on the job. Managers can help ensure the 'satisfaction of these important needs by allowing social interaction and by making employees feel like part of a team or work group.

Esteem needs actually comprise of two different sets of needs:

The need for a positive self-image and self-respect.

The need for recognition and respect from others.

Organizations can help address esteem needs by providing a variety of external symbols of accomplishment such as job titles and spacious offices. At a more fundamental level, organizations can also help satisfy esteem needs by providing employees with challenging job assignments that can induce a sense of accomplishment.

At the top of the hierarchy are those needs, which Maslow defines the self-actualization needs. These needs involve realizing one's potential for continued: growth and individual development. Since these needs are highly individualized and personal, self-actualization needs are perhaps the most difficult for managers to address.

Maslow's concept of the need hierarchy possesses a certain intuitive logic and has been accepted universally by managers. But research has revealed several shortcomings of the theory such as some research has found that five levels of needs are not always present and that the order of the levels is not always the same as assumed by Maslow. Moreover, it is difficult for organizations to use the need hierarchy to enhance employee motivation.

(b) ERG Theory of Motivation

Clayton Alderfer has proposed an alternative hierarchy of needs - called the ERG Theory of Motivation. The letters E, R and G stand for Existence, Relatedness and Growth. The following figure shows ERG theory:

ERG THEORY

The existence needs in this theory refers to the physiological and security needs of Maslow.

Relatedness needs refers to belongingness and esteem needs.

Growth needs refers to both self-esteem and self-actualization needs.

Although ERG Theory assumes that motivated behavior follows a hierarchy in somewhat the same fashion as suggested by Maslow, there are two important differences.

- Firstly, ERG theory suggests that more than one kind of need might motivate a person at the same time. For example, it allows for the possibility that people can be motivated by a desire for money (existence); friendship (relatedness), and an opportunity to learn new skills (growth) all at the same time.
- Secondly, ERG theory has an element of frustrations-regression that is missing from Maslow's need hierarchy. Maslow maintained that one need must be satisfied before an individual can progress to needs at a higher level, for example, from security needs to belongingness. This is termed as satisfaction—progression process. Although the ERG theory includes this process, it also suggests that if needs remain unsatisfied at some higher level,

the individual will become frustrated, regress to a lower level and will begin to pursue low level needs again. For" example, a workers previously motivated by money (existence needs) is awarded a pay rise to satisfy this needs. Then he attempts to establish more friendship to satisfy relatedness needs. If for some reason an employee finds that it is impossible to become better friends with others in the work place, he may eventually become frustrated and regress to being motivated to earn even more money. This is termed as 'frustration-regression' process.

The ERG theory emphasis on the following key points regarding needs:

- o Some needs may be more important than others.
- o People may change their behavior after any particular set of needs has been satisfied.

(c) The Dual-Structure Approach to Motivation (Two factor Theory)

Another popular need-based approach to motivation is the dual-structure approach developed by **Frederick Herzberg**. This is also known as Two-factor Theory. Herzberg developed this approach after interviewing 200 accountants and engineers in Pittsburg. He asked them to recall such occasions when they had been dissatisfied and less motivated. He found that entirely different sets of factors were associated with satisfaction and dissatisfaction. For instance, an individual who identified 'low pay' as causing dissatisfaction did not necessarily mention 'high pay' as a cause of satisfaction. Instead, several other factors, such as recognition or accomplishment, were cited as causing satisfaction.

This finding suggests that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are at opposite ends of a single scale. Employees would, therefore, be satisfied, dissatisfied or somewhere in between.

Herzberg identified two sets of factors responsible for causing either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The factors influencing satisfaction are called motivation factors or motivators,

hygiene factors, which are related to the work environment in which the job is performed.

Motivators

- Achievement
- Recognition
- Advancement
- The work itself
- The possibility of personal growth
- Responsibility

Hygiene or Maintenance Factors

- Company policies

- Technical supervision
- Interpersonal relations with supervisor
- Interpersonal relations with peers
- Interpersonal relations with subordinates
- Salary
- Job security
- Personal life
- Work conditions
- Status

Based on these findings, Herzberg recommended that managers seeking to motivate employees should first make sure that hygiene factors are taken care of and that employees are not dissatisfied with pay, security and working conditions. Once a manager has eliminated employee dissatisfaction, Herzberg recommends focusing on a different set of factors to increase motivation, by improving opportunities for advancement, recognition, advancement and growth. Specifically, he recommends job enrichment as a means of enhancing the availability of motivation factors.

(D) 'X' and 'y' theories of motivation

Douglas McGregor observed two diametrically opposing viewpoints of managers 'about their employees; one is negative called "Theory of X" and another is positive called "Theory of Y".

Theory of X

Following are the assumptions of managers who believe in the "Theory of X" regarding their employees.

- Employees dislike work.
- Employees must be coerced, controlled or threatened to do the work.
- Employees avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction.
- Most employees consider security of job, most important of all other factors in the job and have very little ambition.

Theory of Y

Following are the assumptions of managers who believe in the "Theory of Y" regarding their employees.

- Employees are self-directed and self-controlled and committed to the organizational objectives.
- Employees accept and seek responsibilities.

- Innovative spirit is not confined to managers alone, some employees also possess it.

Applicability of Theories 'X' and 'Y'

Theory 'X' in its applicability, places exclusive reliance upon external control of human behavior, while theory 'Y', relies heavily on self-control -and self-direction.

Theory 'X' points to the traditional approach of management. Literally, this theory of behavior is related to organizations that lay hard and rigid standards of work-behavior. Some examples of such organizations are organizations that break down jobs into specialized elements; establish 'norms of production, design equipment to control worker's pace of work, have rigid rules and regulations, that are sometimes very vigorously enforced.

Theory 'Y', on the other hand, secures the commitment of employees to organizational objectives. This motivational theory places emphasis on satisfaction of employees. While applying this theory, the use of authority, as an instrument of command and control is minimal. Employees exercise self-direction and self-control.

The concepts of '**Job Enlargement**', '**Participation**' and '**Management by Objectives**' are quite consistent with theory ' Y'.

McGregor supports the applicability of motivational theory 'Y', instead of theory 'X'. Organization should keep in mind that once theory 'X' is employed for organizational working, it is difficult for the management to shift to theory ' Y', all of a sudden. However, with systematic, judicious and slow steps, shifting in the practical applicability of theory 'X' to theory ' Y' usually can be achieved.

Mc-Clelland's Need Theory of Motivation

David C. McClelland and his associate Atkinson have contributed to an understanding of motivation by identifying three types of basic motivating needs. These needs have been classified as:

1. Need for Power
2. Need for Affiliation
3. Need for Achievement :

Need for Power

According to this theory the need for power, which might be defined as the desire to be influential in a group and to control one's environment is an important motivation factor. Research suggests that people with a strong need for power, are likely to be superior performers and occupy supervisory positions. Such types of individuals generally look for

positions of leadership, they act effectively, are outspoken, have a stubborn character and exert authority.

Need for Affiliation

The need for affiliation means the desire for human companionship and acceptance. Those with a high need for affiliation often behave the way they think other people want them to, in an effort to maintain friendship. They prefer a job that entails a good deal of social interaction and offers opportunities to make friends. The principal characteristics of such peoples' traits are as follows: Desire to like and be liked.

- Enjoy company and friendship.
- Prefer cooperative situation.
- Excel in group task.
- Star attraction in gathering.
- Leadership qualities.

This need is closely associated with the "social-type" of personality, who are sociable, friendly, cooperative and understanding. Persons with high motivation for power and affiliation have better chances of becoming good managers.

Need for Achievement

People with a high need for achievement, always feel ambitious to be successful; are ever prepared to face challenging situations and set arduous goals for themselves. They are prone to take calculated risks; and possess a high sense of personal responsibility in getting jobs done. These people are concerned with their progress, and feel inclined to put in longer hours of work" Failures never dishearten them and they are always ready to put in their best efforts for excellent performance.

Process-based theories to motivation

Process- based theories to motivation are concerned with how motivation occurs. They focus on why people choose to enact certain behavioral options to fulfill their needs and how they evaluate their satisfaction after they have attained these goals. Two of the most useful process-based approaches to motivation are expectancy theory and equity theory.

(a) Expectancy Theory of Motivation (Vroom's theory)

Expectancy theory of motivation was developed by- **Victor Vroom**. Basically, Vroom's expectancy theory views motivation as a- process of governing choices. The expectancy theory tries to explain how and why people choose a particular behavior over an alternative. The theory suggests that motivation depends on two things: how much an individual desires a

particular goal and how likely he thinks he can get it. For instance, a person is looking for a job and reads an advertisement for a position of Assistant Manager with a starting salary of Rs. 3 lakh per year. Even though he might want the job, he probably does not apply because he is aware that there is little chance of getting it. Next he sees an advertisement is for UD clerk for a salary of Re. 1 lakh per year. In this case he realizes that he .can probably get the job, but still doesn't apply simply because he doesn't want it. Then he comes across another advertisement for a Supervisor in a big organization with a starting salary of Rs. 2 lakh per year. He chooses to apply for this job because he wants it and also thinks that he has a reasonable chance of getting it.

The expectancy theory rests on four assumptions:

- The theory assumes that behavior is determined by a combination of forces in the individual and in the environment.
- It assumes that people make decisions about their own behavior in organizations.
- It assumes that different people have different types of needs, desires and goals.
- It assumes that people make choices from among alternative plans of behavior based on their perceptions of the extent to which a given behavior will lead to desired outcomes.

The above model suggests that motivation leads to efforts and that effort, when combined with individual ability and environmental factors, result in performance. Performance, in turn, leads to

John Kotter and Leonard Schlesinger developed six change approaches to minimize resistance and they set out six approaches to deal with change resistance.

Four reasons for change resistance

Before any approach methods are used, it is important to understand why people resist change.

John Kotter and Leonard Schlesinger identify four reasons:

1. Parochial self-interest

Some employees are more concerned about the consequences of change for themselves. They focus on their own interests instead on those of the organization.

2. Misunderstanding

This occurs due to communication problems and because incorrect or inadequate information is provided by the organization.

3. Low tolerance

Working in a certain way for years means security and stability. Employees find it hard to exchange this for the unknown.

4. Different assessments of the situation

During the change process two groups arise; employees who agree with the changes and are open to this and the group that does not agree with the change and who will not display flexible, cooperative behaviour.

What are the Six Change Approaches?

Based on scientific research, John Kotter and Leonard Schlesinger describe Six Change Approaches to deal with organisational change resistance:

1. Education and Communication

Informing employees beforehand so that they will be involved in the change process will prevent that the information that is provided by the organization comes across as inaccurate.

Good communication can be supported by training or other forms of education.

Employees will have a better understanding of the purpose of the change process and they will be more inclined to be cooperative.

2. Participation and involvement

By increasing the involvement of employees or by giving them specific assignments, the resistance to the intended organizational change will be reduced.

As a result, employees will be more loyal and they will focus on teamwork for which reason they will cooperate more closely from the different organization units so that the desired change can be implemented.

3. Facilitation and Support

Employees that experience adjustment problems during the change process will benefit from supportive management.

It helps them deal with fears during a transition period for instance when they experience fear transfers, job loss or other forms of reorganization.

By providing support or facilitating training and counselling, these fears can be largely removed.

4. Negotiation

When employees for example lose powers or tasks during the change process, it is important to keep them motivated.

Offering (financial) incentives can move employees into a positive direction.

The employee can be offered incentives to leave the company early, their contracts may be adjusted or another job or promotion is offered.

These incentives are often offered to employees that have senior positions.

5. Co-optation and manipulation

When other tactics do not work or are too expensive, this method is used.

It is an effective technique to co-opt with people who are resisting the change and who, through their leadership role, have a large influence on the rest of the employees.

Through open communication they are kept under control.

They are involved in a symbolic role during the change process and the decision-making process.

6. Explicit and implicit coercion

Coercion can be used when speed is essential or as a last resort.

The necessity of the intended change is more important than the interests of the employees.

It often involves dramatic consequences such as loss of jobs, dismissals, employee transfers or not promoting employees.

Conflict Management

Conflict is a process, where perception (real or otherwise) leads to disruption of desirable state of harmony and stability in an interdependent world.

Characteristics of Conflict:

1. Conflict is a Process:

Conflict occurs in 'layers'. First layer is always misunderstanding. The other layers are differences of values, differences of viewpoint, differences of interest, and interpersonal differences. It is also called a process because it begins with one party perceiving the other to oppose or negatively affect its interests and ends with competing, collaborating, compromising or avoiding.

2. Conflict is Inevitable:

Conflict exists everywhere. No two persons are the same. Hence they may have individual differences. And the differences may be because of values or otherwise, lead to conflict. Although inevitable, conflict can be minimized, diverted and/or resolved. Conflict develops because we are dealing with people's lives, jobs, children, pride, self-concept, ego and sense of mission. Conflict is inevitable and often good, for example, good teams always go through a "form, storm, norm and perform" period.

3. Conflict is a Normal Part of Life:

Individuals, groups, and organisations have unlimited needs and different values but limited resources. Thus, this incompatibility is bound to lead to conflicts. The conflict is not a problem, but if it is poorly managed then it becomes a problem.

4. Perception:

It must be perceived by the parties to it, otherwise it does not exist. In interpersonal interaction, perception is more important than reality. What we perceive and think affects our behaviour, attitudes, and communication.

5. Opposition:

One party to the conflict must be perceiving or doing something the other party does not like or want.

6. Interdependence and Interaction:

There must be some kind of real or perceived interdependence. Without interdependence there can be no interaction. Conflict occurs only when some kind of interaction takes place.

7. Everyone is inflicted with Conflict:

Conflict may occur within an individual, between two or more individuals, groups or between organisations.

8. Conflict is not Unidimensional:

It comes into different ways in accordance with degree of seriousness and capacity. At times, it may improve even a difficult situation.

Concept of Conflict Management:

‘Conflict management is the principle that all conflicts cannot necessarily be resolved, but learning how to manage conflicts can decrease the odds of non-productive escalation. Conflict management involves acquiring skills related to conflict resolution, self-awareness about conflict modes, conflict communication skills, and establishing a structure for management of conflict in your environment.’ All members of every organisation need to have ways of keeping conflict to a minimum – and of solving problems caused by conflict, before conflict becomes a major obstacle to your work.

Types of Conflict:

Conflicts can be of different types as described below:

On the basis of involvement:

Conflicts may be intrapersonal (conflict with self), interpersonal (between two persons) and organisational. Organizational conflict, whether real or perceived, is of two types - intraorganizational and interorganizational. Interorganizational conflict occurs between two or more organizations.

Different businesses competing against each other are a good example of interorganizational conflict. Intraorganizational conflict is the conflict within an organization, and can be

examined based upon level (e.g. department, work team, individual), and can be classified as interpersonal, intragroup and intergroup.

Interpersonal conflict—once again—whether it is substantive or affective, refers to conflict between two or more individuals (not representing the group of which they are a part of) of the same or different group at the same or different level, in an organization.

Interpersonal conflict can be divided into intergroup and intragroup conflict. While the former— intragroup—occurs between members of a group (or between subgroups within a group), intergroup—occurs between groups or units in an organization.

On the basis of Scope:

Conflicts may be substantive and Affective. A substantive conflict is associated with the job, not individuals, while an affective conflict is drawn from emotions. Substantive conflicts may be over the facts of a situation, the method or means of achieving a solution to the problem, ends or goals, and values. Thus it includes task conflict and process conflict in its scope.

Procedural conflicts can include disagreements about factors such as meeting dates and times, individual task assignments, group organization and leadership, and methods of resolving disagreements. Unresolved procedural conflicts can prevent work on collaborative projects. Substantive conflict can enhance collaborative decision-making. Substantive conflict is also called performance, task, issue, or active conflict.

On the other hand, an affective conflict (also called as relationship or opposite of agreeable conflict) deals with interpersonal relationships or incompatibilities and centres on emotions and frustration between parties.

Affective conflicts can be very destructive to the organisation, if remains unresolved. Relationship conflict comes under the scope of affective conflicts. An affective conflict is nearly always disruptive to collaborative decision-making. The conflict causes members to be negative, irritable, suspicious, and resentful.

For example, when collaborators disagree on the recognition and solution to a task problem because of personal prejudices (e.g. prejudices stemming from strong social, political, economic, racial, religious, ethnic, philosophical, or interpersonal biases) they are seldom able to focus on the task.

The two concepts are related to each other. If one could make a distinction between good and bad conflict, substantive would be good and affective conflict would be bad. Substantive conflict deals with disagreements among group members about the content of the tasks being performed or the performance itself.

On the basis of Results:

Conflict can be Constructive or Destructive, creative or restricting, and positive or negative. Destructive conflicts are also known as dysfunctional conflicts, because such conflicts prevent a group from attaining its goals.

Conflict is destructive when it takes attention away from other important activities, undermines morale or self-concept, polarises people and groups, reduces cooperation, increases or sharpens difference, and leads to irresponsible and harmful behaviour, such as fighting, name-calling.

On the other hand, constructive conflicts are also known as functional conflicts, because they support the group goals and help in improving performance. Conflict is constructive when it results in clarification of important problems and issues, results in solutions to problems, involves people in resolving issues important to them, causes authentic communication, helps release emotion, anxiety, and stress, builds cooperation among people through learning more about each other; joining in resolving the conflict, and helps individuals develop understanding and skills.

On the basis of Sharing by Groups:

Conflicts may be Distributive and Integrative. Distributive conflict is approached as a distribution of a fixed amount of positive outcomes or resources, where one side will end up winning and the other losing, even if they do win some concessions.

On the other hand, integrative – Groups utilizing the integrative model see conflict as a chance to integrate the needs and concerns of both groups and make the best outcome possible. This type of conflict has a greater emphasis on compromise than the distributive conflict. It has been found that the integrative conflict results in consistently better task related outcomes than the distributive conflict.

On the basis of Strategy:

Conflicts may be competitive and cooperative. Competitive conflict is accumulative. The original issue that began the conflict becomes irrelevant. The original issue is more of a pretext than a cause of the conflict. Competitive conflict is marked by the desire to win the fight or argument, even if winning costs more and causes more pain than not fighting at all.

Costs do not matter in competitive conflict, and therefore, irrationality remains its main mark. Competitive conflict is characterized by fear, which is one of the important ingredients in a conflict becoming irrational. If one is personally invested in the outcome, this too leads to irrational conclusions, especially if issues of self-esteem, whether personal or national, are involved.

Competitive conflict can either begin by, or be rationalized by, conflicts of ideology or principle. Even more, when the desire to win overtakes any specific reason for the conflict, irrationally develops.

Importantly in history, when powers are roughly equal, such as the World War I alliances were, conflict that becomes competitive and irrational nearly always develops. In economic competition customers are the winners and the firms may be at risk. But in sports competition is encouraged.

In a cooperative situation the goals are so linked that everybody ‘sinks or swims’ together, while in the competitive situation if one swims, the other must sink. A cooperative approach aligns with the process of interest-based or integrative bargaining, which leads parties to seek win-win solutions. Disputants that work cooperatively to negotiate a solution are more likely to develop a relationship of trust and come up with mutually beneficial options for settlement.

On the basis of Rights and Interests:

Conflict of rights means where people are granted certain rights by law or by contract or by previous agreement or by established practice. If such a right is denied, it will lead to conflict. Such a conflict is settled by legal decision or arbitration, not negotiation.

On the other hand conflict of interests means where a person or group demands certain privileges, but there is no law or right in existence. Such a dispute can be settled only through negotiation or collective bargaining.

Stages of Conflict:

A manager must know various stages of conflict to handle it. The solution to conflict becomes easy before it becomes serious, if he knows of the real issue behind the conflict and how the conflict developed. Normally a conflict passes through the following stages:

- a. People recognise lack of resources, diversity of language or culture. Sensitiveness may possibly result in conflict.
- b. If there are serious differences between two or among more than two groups, the latent conflict in a competitive situation may turn out into conflict.
- c. An incident may trigger a latent conflict into an open conflict
- d. Once a problem has been solved, the potential for conflict still remains in the aftermath. In fact the potential is bigger than before, if one party perceives that the resolution has resulted into win-lose situation.

Are Conflicts Bad and Undesirable?

There are three viewpoints. The traditionalists view conflict as bad and be avoided. In most of the cultures, this is what is being taught – ‘If you cannot speak well, keep mum’, ‘don’t fight with anyone’, and alike.

The followers of human relations school opine that conflict is natural and can be functional at sometime and dysfunctional at other time. According to them, conflict provides an avenue to know of opinions and an opportunity for creativity and persuasion. Thus, it calls for an open approach to conflict.

The integrationists view conflict as inevitable and stimulating conflict to some extent is helpful. Conflict is viewed as a positive force except that when it is misdiagnosed, mismanaged, or improperly avoided.

We are of the opinion that conflicts are inevitable, not always bad or the same as discomfort, but key to them is proper diagnosis and their resolution. Conflict is often needed as it-

- a. Helps to raise and address problems,
- b. Energizes work to be on the most appropriate issues,
- c. Helps people “be real”, for example, it motivates them to participate, and
- d. Helps people learn how to recognize and benefit from their differences.

Conflict becomes a problem when it:

- a. Hampers productivity,
- b. Lowers morale,
- c. Causes more and continued conflicts, and
- d. Causes inappropriate behaviours.

Conflict Indicators:

- a. Body language
- b. Colleagues not speaking to each other or ignoring each other
- c. Deliberately undermining or not co-operating with each other, to the downfall of the team
- d. contradicting and bad-mouthing one another
- e. Disagreements, regardless of issue
- f. Withholding bad news
- g. Surprises
- h. Strong public statements
- i. Airing disagreements through media
- j. Conflicts in value system
- k. Desire for power

- l. Increasing lack of respect
- m. Open disagreement
- n. Lack of candour on budget problems or other sensitive issues
- o. Lack of clear goals
- p. No discussion of progress, failure relative to goals, failure to evaluate the superintendent fairly, thoroughly or at all
- q. Factions meeting to discuss issues separately, when they affect the whole organisation
- r. One group being left out of organising an event which should include everybody
- s. Groups using threatening slogans or symbols to show that their group is right and the others are wrong.

Causes/ Reasons/Sources of Conflicts:

Conflicts may be caused by any one or more of the following reasons:

Cognitive (Recognition and Understanding) Dissonance (Difference of opinion):

It is a conflict between convergent (ability to narrow the number of possible solutions to a problem by applying logic and knowledge) and divergent thinking (thinking outwards instead of inward).

Status:

Status is a state, condition, or situation. When there is a need for status and a “wrong” person is promoted.

Incongruence:

A party is required to engage in an activity that is incongruent with his or her needs or interests.

Incompatibility:

A party holds behavioural preferences like attitudes, values, skills, goals, and perceptions, the satisfaction of which is incompatible with another person’s implementation of his or her preferences. Economics: Insufficient remuneration to employees.

Stress:

Conflicts from stress from external sources; i.e., functional or dysfunctional situations.

Poor or Inadequate Organisational Structure and Lack of Teamwork.

Seeking Power:

Often a conflict for power struggle takes place when everyone wants to be a leader and nobody wants to be a follower.

Weak Leadership:

Conflict is bound to result if someone of less stature leads a more qualified and experienced worker.

Arbitrary interpretation and application of rules and policies: Lack of transparency and openness creates dissatisfaction among the affected people.

Differing viewpoints among colleagues about each other:

In case of joint action two parties may have partially exclusive behavioural preferences.

Managerial Actions:

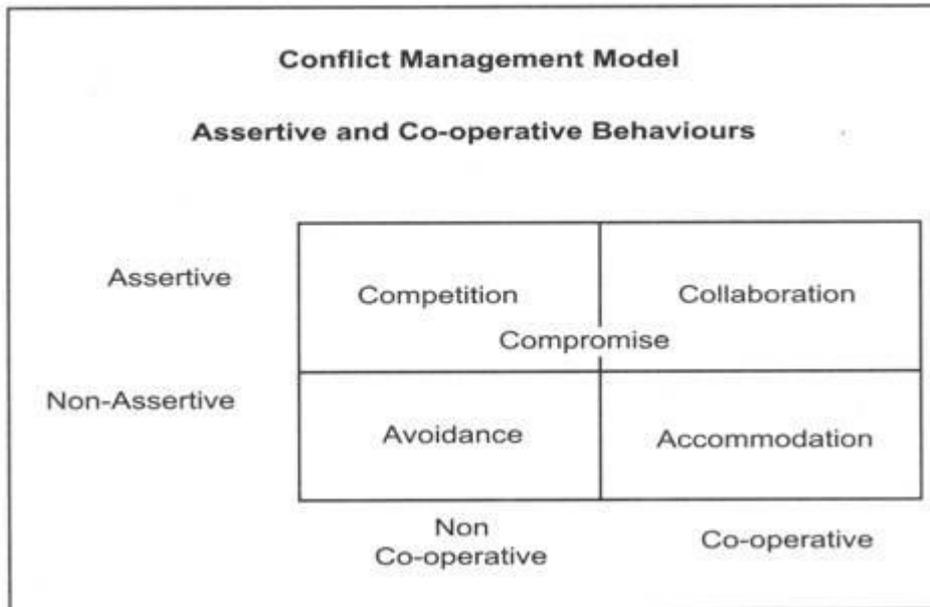
Poor communication (employees being not informed of new decisions, programmes etc., not involved in decision making, and rumor mongering allowed); insufficient resources (Disagreement on allotment of work, stress from inadequate financial, equipment, facilities, and other resources and privileges); absence of personal chemistry between managers and employees (both sides having rigidity, dislike for absence of self- traits); lack of clarity in roles and responsibilities, arbitrariness in employees' performance appraisal; weak leadership, and inconsistent, too-strong, or uninformed leadership (lack of openness, buck-passing with little follow-through, lingering on issues, first-line managers failing to understand their subordinates' jobs). All these factors cause dissatisfaction.

Conflict Management Styles:

Conflict management must aim at minimizing affective conflicts at all levels, attain and maintain a moderate amount of substantive conflict, and also to match the status and concerns of the two parties in conflict.

Many styles of conflict management behavior have been researched in the past century. Mary Parker Follett described them as domination, compromise, and integration (involves openness, exchanging information, looking for alternatives, and examining differences to solve the problem in a manner that is acceptable to both parties).

She also mentioned avoidance and suppression as other forms of handling conflicts. Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton then presented five styles: forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving. The five styles in currency in 21st century, as shown in Figure 20.2, are:



1. Avoidance (Leave-lose/win):

It is non-assertive and non-cooperative. The manager may think or pretend that no conflict exists or just ignore it. This strategy is used when the effort to resolve is not worth the salt. But this approach over the time worsens the situation.

Avoidance might take the form of diplomatic sidestepping the issue or postponing resolution in time to come or simply withdrawing from a situation. A turtle is a symbol for avoidance, because it can avoid everything by pulling its head and legs into the shell to be off to everything.

2. Accommodating (Yield-lose/win):

Accommodating is non-assertive and cooperative, just opposite of competing. To solve the conflict, if someone puts his interests last so as to satisfy concerns of other people by giving in, sacrificing, or accepting, or yielding to other’s view point, it is called accommodation.

However, being too accommodating too often can weaken your position to the point where your voice is never heard. There will be high relationship orientation. This style is also used when the new approach is to be used in the very near future. It may solve the conflict for the other party, but a conflict will begin in manager. This style is not objective.

A chameleon is a symbol of the accommodating style since it changes its color to match the color of its environment. By changing its color to accommodate its surroundings, , the chameleon fits quietly into its environment.

3. Competing (Win/lose):

The style is assertive and non-cooperative. A person puts his/her interests before anyone else’s interests. It is also known as dominating style. One stands up for his rights and uses all

the power to win his position. There is low relationship orientation. Managers, using this style, want others to follow his dictates or get his way.

This style can be used only when one's leadership is established. There would be low relationship orientation. Low relationships orientation a lion can be a symbol of a competitive style. The lion's roar helps the lion to satisfy its interests.

4. Compromising (Mini-win/mini-lose):

It is some assertive and some cooperative. Compromise is on the path toward collaboration, somewhere between competition and accommodation. The style means mutual give-and-take to satisfy both parties, or both may say, "Something is better than nothing." It has equal distance between competing and accommodating.

There would be negotiated relationship orientation. When the objective is to move on, not to stop the journey, the manager may compromise. A zebra can be a symbol for the compromising style. A zebra's unique look seems to indicate that it didn't care if it was a black horse or a white horse, so it "split the difference" and chose black and white stripes.

5. Collaborating (Win/win):

It is assertive as well as cooperative, just opposite of avoiding. It may also be called integrative style. This style focuses on satisfying the underlying concerns of both the parties, meeting many current needs by working together. Through this style, employees develop ownership and commitment. Sometimes this style gives birth to new mutual needs.

How to Minimise (Manage) Inter-Personal Conflicts? -The Managerial Action:

No manager should avoid a conflict, hoping it will go away. It would be better to ask the participants to describe specific actions they want the other party to take. It would be beneficial to have a third party (meaning a non-direct superior with access to the situation) involved. Finally, it is advisable not to meet separately with people in conflict.

A manager should take following actions to minimize conflicts:

1. Regular Review of Job Descriptions:

With the pace of change the job description must also change. But this will be possible only when the job descriptions are regularly reviewed.

2. Establish Rapport and build Relationship with all of Your Subordinates:

For it, meet them at regular intervals; ask them about their achievements, problems, and challenges.

3. Regular Reports:

A manager must get progress report about his subordinates regularly, indicating achievements, current needs and future scenario.

4. Training:

Every manager needs to be provided training in interpersonal communication, conflict management, and delegation of authority.

5. Mutual Development of Procedures:

For routine tasks, the procedures should be developed keeping in mind the inputs received from employees. If possible, encourage them to write. Such written procedures should be distributed to all concerned. If the need be, concerned employees be trained in those procedures.

6. Holding Regular Meetings:

The managers need to hold regular management meetings to inform subordinates about new initiatives to be taken and the progress of current programmes.

7. Anonymous Suggestion Box:

Consider such a box in which employees can provide suggestions.

Factors affecting Conflict Styles:

1. Gender:

Some of us use assertive conflict modes because of our gender and particular kind of socialisation. Some males, because they are male, were taught to “always stand up to someone, and, if you have to fight, then fight”. If one was socialized this way he will be more likely to use assertive conflict modes versus using cooperative modes.

2. Self-concept:

The way we think and feel about ourselves and opinions about others affects as to how we approach conflict with the other person.

3. Expectations:

If we believe that our team or the other person wants to resolve the conflict, we would be positive to resolve the conflict?

4. Position/Power:

Where do we stand in power status relationship with the person we are in conflict? It means whether the other man is equal to, more than, or less than us in status.

5. Life Experience:

Through knowledge and experience we might have gained skills about conflict and “conflict management understanding”. It enables us to determine what conflict mode to use with the particular person with whom we are in conflict.

6. Communication skills:

The basic of conflict resolution and conflict management is how effectively we communicate. People using effective communication will be able to resolve conflicts with greater ease and success.

Approaches to Organization Development

OD Processes

The Organization Development is a continuous process and being complicated it takes a long time to complete. It is very difficult to give a specific OD model which is applicable to the entire organization. OD has various approaches but a whole typical program may include the following steps.

a. Initial Diagnosis:

In the first step, the management should make an effort to find out an overall view of the situation to find the real problem. Top management should meet the consultant and the experts to determine the type of program that is needed. The consultants will, in the first instance, meet various persons in the organization and interview them to collect the needed information.

b. Data Collections:

Survey and interview methods are used to collect the data and information for determining organizational climate and identifying the behavioral problems.

c. Data feedback and confrontation:

Data collected are analyzed and reviewed by various work groups formed for the purpose, in order, to mediate in the areas of disagreement or confrontation of ideas or opinions and established priorities.

d. Selection and Design of Intervention:

The interventions are planned activities that are introduced into the system to accomplish desired changes and improvements. At this stage, suitable interventions are to be selected and designed. We shall be discussing the various interventions in another chapter.

e. Implementation of Intervention:

The Selected intervention should be implemented. Intervention may take the form of workshops, feedback of data to the participants, group discussions, written exercises, on- the – job activities, redesign of control system etc. They are to be implemented steadily as the process is not a ‘One- shot, quick cure’ for organizational malady. But it achieves real and lasting changes in the attitudes and behavior of employees.

f. Action planning and problem solving:

Data are used by the group to suggest specific recommendations for change. They discuss the problems, faced by the organization and sketch specific plans including who is responsible for problems, what is the solution, what action should be taken and at what time.

g. Team Building:

The consultant encourages the group to examine how they work together. The consultant will educate them about the value of free communication and trust for effective group functioning.

h. Inter group development:

The consultants encourage the inter group meetings, interactions etc., after the formation of groups / teams.

i. Evaluation and Follow-up:

The organization evaluates the OD programmes, finds out their utility, and develops the programmes, further correcting the deviations and/ or improved results.

Approaches to Organizational Effectiveness as a part of overall Organizational Development
To develop an organization in order to drive the full range of benefits by the organizational development, a student will have to study various approaches to the organizational effectiveness. The OE is a relative term and is conceptualized by different theorists of OCE differently. As such no unanimity is found in their approaches. The diverse approaches are not only judgment but open to questions also. The concept of OCE consists of the following.

- Organizational Productivity.
- Organizational Flexibility.
- Absence of organizational conflicts.

The OE is reflected in how the organization is equipped to move towards its goals and survive in the face of external and internal variability through creative adaptation strategy. We shall now discuss the various approaches to OE.

a. Goal Attainment Approach:

Organizations are developed to achieve one or more goals. Goal attainment is one of the most widely used criteria of effectiveness. Profit maximization, high productivity, employees' high morale, providing efficient service may be some examples of attainment criteria. This approach assumes that

- Organization must have ultimate goals.
- Goals must be identified and defined to be understood.

- Goals must be few enough to be manageable.
- There must be general agreement on these goals.
- Goals must be measurable.

However the managers should be able to identify and measure the goals, in order to assess the organizational effectiveness.

b. Systems Approach:

Sometimes the goal attainment approach may not be appropriate in view of the fact that there may be multiple goals which could be in conflict with each other. It may also so happen that the performance may be highly encouraging in regard to some goals, while there may be a dismal failure in regard to some other goals. Hence, we can never say that an organization is effective or ineffective in terms of its multiple goals. Therefore it may be necessary to look at OE through a system approach. Some scientist calls this approach as “input- throughput- output approach”. The behavioral scientist Bennis has listed the following criteria for explaining OE.

- **Adaptability:** The ability to solve problems and to react with flexibility to changing environment demands.
- **A sense of identity:** Knowledge and insight on the part of the organization of what it is, what its goals are, and what it is to do? How outsiders perceive the organizational goals.
- **Capacity to Test Reality:** The ability to search out accurately, to perceive clearly and interpret correctly, the real properties of the organizational environment, particularly those which have relevance to the functioning of the organization.
- **Integration:** it is integration among the sub parts of the total organizational, such that the parts are not working at cross purposes.

In fact, the systems approach focuses not so much on specific ends i.e., goals. The systems approach also suffers from two major limitations.

i. Problem of measurement:

There has not been any accurate and convincing criterion to measure the process variables in quantity or intensity. With this difficulty, the measures that may be used are open to question.

ii. Problems of means:

Another problem of systems approach is how much it is valid to attach significance to means to end for accessing OE. This is because once the ends are achieved, the means may not be important.

c. Strategic—constituencies Approach:

One closely related approach to systems approach is the above approach. This approach proposes that an effective organization is one that satisfies the demands of those constituencies in its environment from whom it requires support for its continued survival. This approach differs from the systems approach in the sense that it did not concern with all the organizational environments, but seeks to appease only those constituencies who can threaten the organizational survival. Some typical criteria of selected strategic constituencies are shown in the table below.

This approach is not without problems. The first problem is that there is no reliable technique to tap information accurately on what constituencies actually expected from the organization. The other problem is that task of separating one strategic constituency from the other. Given the fast changing business environment, what was strategic today to the organization till the other day may not be so today. The converse of the above may also hold true. However this approach cannot be totally rejected. Management will have to constantly monitor and modify its order of goals as necessary to satisfy the expectation of various strategic constituencies. The following table is given to enable the student to know that typical criteria of selected strategic constituencies.

d. Competing Values Approach:

OE assessed on the basis of one single criterion in terms of goals or systems or constituencies, as discussed in the preceding three approaches, does not give a comprehensive understanding of OE. Hence, there is a need to integrate all of key variables in the domain of organizational effectiveness. Such an integrative approach is offered by the Computing – values approach.

The basic theme underlying the competing- values approach is that the criteria you actually value and also use in assessing an organization's effectiveness be it, for example, return on investment, or market share of your product, or new product development depend on who you are and the interest you represent in the organization . Different stakeholders such as stockholders, unions, suppliers, management, employees, or public represent different interests in the organizations. It should come as no surprise then to find that all above mentioned stake- holders look at the same organization but evaluate its effectiveness entirely. You can conveniently relate this fact by thinking about how you the students of MBA differently evaluate your teacher who teaches you Management Concepts and Organizational Behavior.

Theoretical foundations of Organizational Development

We are discussing the theoretical foundations of Organizational development which is basic to the entire range of studies in the field of organizational development and design. We are explaining only the basic theoretical ideas to give a simple insight into the study and it is for the students to understand this very clearly as these ideas will be applied to all the related study of organizational development.

OD as a planned change strategy draws heavily upon theoretical and the conceptual frameworks developed in the field of behavioral sciences for understanding human behavior at individual, inter personal, group and organizational levels. Bringing about change in the individual as also the structure, process and culture of the organization conducive to the release of human potential towards productive pursuits and consequent individual satisfaction has been major area of focus in behavioral sciences. The insight gained through research and experimentation in the dynamics of change at individual and organizational levels provide the foundations for the theory and practice of OD. Notable contributions, towards understanding this, from some eminent academicians are discussed below.

Process of Change

A path breaking insight into the change process was provided by Kurt Lewin who is credited with the development of group dynamics as a field of inquiring and action research model for planned change. Kurt Lewin used force field theory to explain the stability inherent in an organization at a given point of time. The change is conceived as modification of the forces that maintain steady state and kept the system's behavior stable.

There is always, at any point of time a field of opposing forces, which can be determined by force field analysis and the point of equilibrium is that which is achieved at the end. Any organization will have two opposing forces as follows:

- a. Driving or facilitating force --- factors that facilitate the movement of the organization towards the targets, goals and purposes.
- b. Restraining forces or hindering forces—factors that prevent the organization from moving towards its goals and purposes.

These two forces when equal in strength cause a kind of semi stationary equilibrium. The change process is always affected by this stationary state. Change by definition would mean disturbing the status- quo in an organization creating an imbalance in the system, thanks to the above two opposing forces. Management of such a situation would imply:

a. Identification and analysis of facilitating and hindering forces:

These forces may be internal or external to the organization. High degree of employee engagement with requisite competencies would be an internal facilitating force, whereas a growing market for products and services offered by the organization would be an external facilitating force. Likewise, inability to full utilize IT--- enabled service by the organization would be an internal hindering factor, whereas a shrinking market due to increased competition would be an external hindering force. These forces need to be carefully analyzed in terms of their impact on the capacity of the organization to move towards higher levels of effectiveness.

b. Formulation of strategies:

Strategies and action plans for strengthening the facilitating forces and minimizing the impact of hindering forces are formulated to enable the organization achieve its higher goals and purposes.

Kurt Lewin's three step change model

Whenever the organization is at a state of equilibrium due to the facilitating and hindering forces, any effort to change this status will involve the following three steps:

a. Unfreezing:

Organization members need to realize that the existing state is not conclusive to survival and sustained growth of themselves and the organization. The unfreezing process will enable people search for other options. They will be more prepared to accept the change.

b. Moving:

This step involves making interventions in the organization to develop new assumptions, beliefs, values and behavior demanded by the change objectives. It may also involve changing the structural forms and processes in the organization to support the change initiatives.

c. Refreezing:

Supporting mechanisms like teams, appraisal and reward systems, change in processes, cultures and other subsystems of the organization would and to be developed to reinforce the newly acquired attitudes and behaviors.

The three step model discussed above is broad enough to include different kinds of change efforts in different organizations. The model is equally applicable in attitudinal change efforts at an individual level. In organization development and the related training and development activities undertaken in a wide variety of fields, the application of this model remains implicit.

Edgar Schein has further elaborated Lewin's model of change process by including sub processes in each step:

1. Unfreezing:

Involves creating motivation and readiness to change thought:

- i. Disconfirmation or lack of confirmation
- ii. Creation of guilt or anxiety and
- iii. Provision of psychological safety

2. Changing through cognitive restructuring:

Helping the client to see, judge and feel things and react to thing based on a new point of view obtained through

- i. Identifying with a new role model, mentor and
- ii. Scanning the environment for new and relevant information

3. Refreezing:

Helping the client to integrate the new point of view into

- i. The total personality and self-concept and
- ii. Significant relationships

Building on kurt Lewin's three-step change process, Ronald Lippitt, et. Al. have suggested a seven- phase model of the change process described below:

Phase1: The development of need for change.

Phase 2: The establishment of a change relationship. In this phase, the OD consultant or external change agent establish a working relationship with the client organizations in need of help.

Phase3: The clarifications or diagnosis of the client organization's problem.

Phase 4: The examination of alternative routes and goals, establishing goals and intentions of action.

Phase5: The transformation of intentions into actual change efforts.

Phase6: Generalization and stabilization of change.

Phase7: Achieving a terminal relationship.

The model discussed above provide useful insights into the change process, particularly the theory and practice of OD. Dynamics of organizational change, however, involves many more challenges which cannot be captured in a generalized model of change. As the students proceed further into deeper studies of OD, additional principles to tackle the change will automatically emerge.

Action Research Model

As stated in the preceding pages, OD as a planned change strategy relies heavily on action research model as an approach to initiating and managing change in organizations. Action research differs from traditional approach to consultancy as also other of research on the following counts:

1. It focuses on planned change as a cyclical process of problem diagnosis, action planning and valuation. The outcome of valuation leads to carrying out further problem diagnosis followed by subsequent actions.
2. Members of the target group such as, organization or community are involved in all stages of action research.
3. The consultant or OD practitioner works in close collaboration with organization members. Action research thus involves joint efforts of the consultant and the client in planning and implementation of change.
4. Data gathering, diagnosis, action planning, implementation and evaluation of results are carried out systematically on a continuous basis, by both consultant and client.

Contemporary Action Research

This approach is based on the premise that reality is socially constructed and therefor any change in reality can only be brought about by a redefinition of reality by the members of the organization or community. Greater and deeper involvement of people, therefor, is an essential pre requisite for effecting change through action research.

Transformational Change

Like all other fields of knowledge, OD theory and practice have also undergone significant changes to keep pace with the emerging reality. Certain changed concepts as detailed blow have been proposed as another model of OD change by warner Burk and George Litwin:

1. Transactional change: the transactional change is called the first order change and this includes evolutionary, adaptive, incremental or continuous change organization. In this the features change but not the fundamental nature of the organization.
2. Transformational change: the transformational change, on the other hand is, called the second order change and this involves revolutionary, radical or discontinuous change. In this the very nature of organization is substantially altered.

The two broad categories of changes will require different leadership modes. The transactional leaders are those who guide or motivate followers to achieve a goal by

clarifying tasks and role requirements. The transformational managers inspire followers to transcend their interest for the good of the organization.

The Emerging Trends in OD

OD as a planned change strategy represents the traditional approach to revitalizing the organization through a proper alignment of its constituent parts. In the changed scenario, however, a more radical approach is needed to enable organization realign itself with the ever-changing environment on a continuing basis. The second type is often called Organization transformation (OT) representing 'second generation' OD.

Organisational change is an ongoing process and must be embedded in the organization and its interactive sub-systems. The challenge today is to create change friendly organization responsive to discontinuous and unpredictable change in its environment. Organisational development is a planned change strategy that aims at improving the internal capability of an organization to continuously seek to align the individual organization and the environment.

Organization development has strong roots in action research in which organization members identify, diagnose, choose appropriate intervention and evaluate the outcomes and their consequences. The target of change is the total system or identifiable subsystems.

Organizational culture is a system of shared assumptions, values, and beliefs, which governs how people behave in organizations. These shared values have a strong influence on the people in the organization and dictate how they dress, act, and perform their jobs. Every organization develops and maintains a unique culture, which provides guidelines and boundaries for the behavior of the members of the organization. Let's explore what elements make up an organization's culture.

Organizational culture is composed of seven characteristics that range in priority from high to low. Every organization has a distinct value for each of these characteristics, which, when combined, defines the organization's unique culture. Members of organizations make judgments on the value their organization places on these characteristics and then adjust their behavior to match this perceived set of values. Let's examine each of these seven characteristics.

Characteristics of Organizational Culture

The **seven characteristics of organizational culture** are:

1. **Innovation** (Risk Orientation) - Companies with cultures that place a high value on innovation encourage their employees to take risks and innovate in the performance of their

jobs. Companies with cultures that place a low value on innovation expect their employees to do their jobs the same way that they have been trained to do them, without looking for ways to improve their performance.

2. **Attention to Detail** (Precision Orientation) - This characteristic of organizational culture dictates the degree to which employees are expected to be accurate in their work. A culture that places a high value on attention to detail expects their employees to perform their work with precision. A culture that places a low value on this characteristic does not.
3. **Emphasis on Outcome** (Achievement Orientation) - Companies that focus on results, but not on how the results are achieved, place a high emphasis on this value of organizational culture. A company that instructs its sales force to do whatever it takes to get sales orders has a culture that places a high value on the emphasis on outcome characteristic.
4. **Emphasis on People** (Fairness Orientation) - Companies that place a high value on this characteristic of organizational culture place a great deal of importance on how their decisions will affect the people in their organizations. For these companies, it is important to treat their employees with respect and dignity.
5. **Teamwork** (Collaboration Orientation) - Companies that organize work activities around teams instead of individuals place a high value on this characteristic of organizational culture. People who work for these types of companies tend to have a positive relationship with their coworkers and managers.
6. **Aggressiveness** (Competitive Orientation) - This characteristic of organizational culture dictates whether group members are expected to be assertive or easygoing when dealing with companies they compete with in the marketplace. Companies with an aggressive culture place a high value on competitiveness and outperforming the competition at all costs.