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Organizational Behaviour

Institute of Open and Distance Education

Faculty of Management

Organizational Behaviour

2BBA6

DR. C.V. RAMAN UNIVERSITY
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Organizational Behaviour

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Credit 4

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The Chapter Covers :

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Organizations face multiple challenges and threats today — threat to effectiveness, efficiency and profitability; challenges from turbulent environments, increased competition and constant challenge to maintain its culture. Individuals in organizations likewise face multiple challenges finding satisfaction in and through work, fighting obsolescence of one's knowledge and skills, maintaining dignity and purpose in pursuit of organizational goals.

It is essential for every manager to have a proper understanding of organization behaviour. This chapter introduces the basic idea about organization behaviour as a subject and traces the development of OB as a discipline. Now, it may be an obvious question that why the understanding of OB is required? Some of the reasons are: To learn about yourself and how to deal with others. Organizations are increasingly expecting individuals to be able to work in teams, at least some of the time. Some or you may want to be managers or entrepreneurs.

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In order to be effective, organizations need to develop their interpersonal or people skills. According to Robbins (2003), Organizational behaviour (OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behaviour within an organization, and then applies that knowledge to make organizations work more effectively. Specifically, OB focuses on how to improve productivity, reduce absenteeism and turnover, and increase employee citizenship and job satisfaction. An organization consists of people and so it is also a social system. The field of organizational behaviour (OB) draws primarily from the behavioural science disciplines of psychology, social psychology, sociology and cultural anthropology. The areas on which OB focuses are *individuals* who will often be working within *groups*, which themselves work within *organizations*, as well as all the interrelationships between them. OB involves the study of process-how people in social systems function with each-other to get work done.

Some of the specific themes embraced by OB are personality theory, attitudes and values, motivation and learning, interpersonal behaviour, group dynamics, leadership and teamwork, organizational structure and design, decision-making, power, conflict, and negotiation.

Organization

Organization is a consciously coordinated social unit, composed of a group of people, which functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals.

Manufacturing units, service firms and MNC's are organizations; it also includes schools, hospitals, churches, military units, retail stores, police departments, volunteer organizations, start-ups, and local, state and federal government agencies.

Organizations can be located in the public sector or the private sector, they can be unionized or not, they can be publicly traded or they can be privately held. If they are publicly traded, senior managers typically are responsible to a board of directors, which may or may not take an active role in the how the firm is run. The managers themselves may or may not own shares of the firm. If the firm is privately held, it may be run by the owners or the managers' report to the owners.

Organization is the foundation upon which the whole structure of management is built. Organization is related with developing a frame work where the total work is divided into manageable components in order to facilitate the achievement of objectives or goals. Thus, organisation is the structure or mechanism (machinery) that enables living things to work together. In a static sense, an organization is a structure or machinery manned by group of individuals who are working together towards a common goal. Alike 'management', the term 'organization' has also been used in a number of ways.

Different authors have defined organisation in different ways. The main definitions of organization are as follows:

According to Keith Davis, "Organisation may be defined as a group of individuals, large of small, that is cooperating under the direction of executive leadership in accomplishment of certain common object."

According to Chester I. Barnard, "Organisation is a system of co-operative activities of two or more persons."

According to Louis A. Allen, "Organisation is the process of identifying and grouping the work to be performed, defining and delegating responsibility and authority, and establishing relationship for the purpose of enabling people to work most effectively together in accomplishing objectives."

According to Mooney and Railey, "Organisation is the form of every human association for the attainment of a common purpose."

Characteristics / Features of Organization

1. **Outlining the Objectives:** Born with the enterprise are its long-life objectives of profitable manufacturing and selling its products. Other objectives must be established by the administration from time to time to aid and support this main objective.
2. **Identifying and Enumerating the Activities:** After the objective is selected, the management has to identify total task involved and its break-up closely related component activities that are to be performed by and individual or division or a department.
3. **Assigning the Duties:** When activities have been grouped according to similarities and common purposes, they should be organized by a particular department. Within the department, the functional duties should be allotted to particular individuals.
4. **Defining and Granting the Authority:** The authority and responsibility should be well defined and should correspond to each other. A close relationship between authority and responsibility should be established.
5. **Creating Authority Relationship:** After assigning the duties and delegations of authority, the establishment of relationship is done. It involves deciding who will act under whom, who will be his subordinates, what will be his span of control and what will be his status in the organization. Besides these formal relationships, some informal organizations should also be developed.

Importance / Need / Advantages / Significance of Organization

The significance or main advantages of organization are as follows:

1. **Facilitated Administration and management:** Organization is an important and the only tool to achieve enterprise goals set as administration and explained by management. Sound organization increases efficiency, avoids delay and duplication of work, increases managerial efficiency, increases promptness, and motivates employees to perform their responsibility.
2. **Help in the Growth of Enterprise:** Good organisation is helpful to the growth, expansion and diversifications of the enterprise.
3. **Ensures Optimum Use of Human Resources:** Good organisation establishes persons with different interests, skills, knowledge and viewpoints.
4. **Stimulates Creativity:** A sound and well-conceived organisation structure is the source of creative thinking and initiation of new ideas.
5. **A Tool of Achieving Objectives:** Organization is a vital tool in the hands of the management for achieving set objectives of the business enterprise.
6. **Co-ordination in the Enterprises:** Different jobs and positions are welded together by structural relationship of the organization. The organizational process exerts its due and balanced emphasis on the co-ordination of various activities.

Sound or Good Organization

A sound or good or ideal and result-oriented organisation must possess the following characteristics:

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1. **Realization of Objectives:** Organisation is tool of achieving objectives of an enterprise. For this purpose, the organisation should be divided in several department, sub-departments, branches and units etc.

2. **Harmonious Grouping of Functions:** For achieving the organisation objectives there must be harmonious grouping of functions, jobs and sub-jobs in such a way so that there is action, consultation and co-ordination without any delay and difficulty.

3. **Reasonable Span of Control:** Another characteristic of organisation is that it should have reasonable span of control. Ordinarily, a person (personnel) cannot control more than five or six subordinates.

4. **Clear-cut allocation of Duties and Responsibilities:** There must be clear-cut allocation of duties and responsibilities in any scheme of sound organisation. Every executive must know his scope of activities, the ideal number is three.

5. **Promotion of Satisfaction:** The most important element of any human organisation is the promotion of satisfaction of workers. Man works in a group or in an organisation and hence the success or failure of any organisation depends on as to how much the organisation is in a position to provide satisfaction to individuals or group working under him.

6. **Fullest Utilization of Manpower:** Another important characteristic of an ideal organisation is as to how far it is successful in making fullest and economical utilization of the available manpower.

7. **Provision and Development and Expansion:** Another important of an ideal organisation is that there exists the necessary provision for development and expansion so that it is possible to expand and develop any organisation according to needs and requirements and necessary changes alternatives may be made.

8. **Coordination and cooperation:** In order to achieve the objectives of the enterprise, there must be close coordination and cooperation in the activities of everybody working in the organisation. Further, there should also be active coordination and cooperation amongst the various departments and sub-departments.

9. **Unity of Command:** There must be unity of command. No one in any organisation should report to more than one line supervisor, and everybody must know to whom he reports and who reports to him. No subordinate should get orders from more than one supervisor; otherwise it will lead to confusion, chaos and conflict.

10. **Effective System of Communication:** An ideal organisation must possess effective system of communication. The inter-communication system should be clear and easier and there should be no ambiguity at and level.

11. **High Morale:** An ideal organisation is that in which the workers possess high morale. They work with full capacity, energy, enthusiasm, devotion and sincerity.

12. **Flexibility:** The last but not the least important characteristic of an ideal organisation is that it should be flexible so that necessary changes and modifications in the size of the organisation as well as technology could be easily and conveniently effected.

Organizations may be studied from two perspectives- micro and macro. Micro perspective of organizational study focuses on human beings in the organizations. It studies human beings as individuals and groups, variables determining his behavior in the organization. The micro aspect of organizational study is generally the subject matter of **Organizational behavior.** The macro aspect of organizational study is the subject matter of **Organizational theory.**

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1.2 Concept of Organizational behavior

Organizational behaviour (OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behaviour within an organization, then applies that knowledge to make organizations work more effectively (Robbins, 2003).

In recent times, we notice the following changes in the organizational set up:

1. Demise of traditional hierarchical structure
2. Emergence of workforce with different expectations form organizations
3. Advancement of information technology
4. Increasing importance on empowerment and teamwork
5. Concern for work-life balance

Buchanan and Huczynski (1997) have defined Organizations as:

"Social arrangements, constructed by people who can also change them. Organizations can be repressive and stifling, but they can also be designed to provide opportunities for self-fulfillment and individual expression. The point is that human consequences depend on how organizations are designed and run."

Barnard (1938) defined Organizations:

"As system of co-operative activities - and their co-ordination requires something intangible and personal that is largely a matter of personal relationships". There are a number of definitions that we can draw on to illuminate and deepen our understanding of the concept of organizational behaviour.

According to Pugh, (1971):

OB is concerned with "the study of the structure, functioning and performance of organizations, and the behaviour of groups and individuals within them".

Ivancevich and Matteson, (1998) in their book Organizational Behaviour and Management.

They opine that OB is about "the study of human behaviour, attitudes and performance within an organizational setting; drawing on theory, methods, and principles from such disciplines as psychology, sociology, and cultural anthropology to learn about individual perception, values, learning capabilities, and actions while working with groups and within the total organization; analyzing the external environment's effect on the organization and its human resources, missions, objectives and strategies".

What emerges from these definitions is a view of OB as:

1. A way of thinking
2. An interdisciplinary field
3. Having a distinctly humanistic outlook
4. Performance oriented

5. Seeing the external environment as critical
6. Using scientific method
7. Having an applications orientation

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Organizational Behaviour emphasizes on intellectual capital as represented by the sum total of knowledge, expertise, and dedication of an organization's workforce. It recognizes that even in the age of high technology, people are the indispensable human resources whose knowledge and performance advance the organization's purpose, mission, and strategies. Only through human efforts can the great advantages be realized from other material resources of organizations, such as, technology, information, raw materials, and money.

A large number of people have contributed to the growth of OB as "a discipline. Some of the most important works have been done by Adam Smith, Frederick Taylor, Henri Fayol, Max Weber, Mary Parker Follet. Abraham Maslow, B F. Skinner, to name a few. Organizational behaviour is an applied behavioural science that is built upon contributions from a number of behavioural disciplines The main areas are psychology sociology, social psychology, anthropology, and political science.

Organizational behavior is a diverse field of study involving the integration of the behaviotal sciences into the study of people's behavior within the organization. It is the integration of relevant knowledge of these areas (Political science, sociology, psychology, sociology or anthropology) thar has given us a new field of study – Organizational Behavior.

The unique mission of organizational behavior is to apply the concepts of behavioral sciences to the pressing problems of management, and, more generally, to administrative theory and practice. OB is the study and application of knowledge about how people, individuals, and groups act in organizations. That is, it interprets people-organization relationships in terms of the whole person, whole group, whole organization, and whole social system. Its purpose is to build better relationships by achieving human objectives, organizational objecrives, and social objectives.

According to Aldag and Brief, "OB is a branch of the social systems that seeks to build theories that can be applied to predicting, understanding, and controlling behavior in work organizations."

Stephen P Robins defines "Organizational behavior. as a systematic study of the actions and attitudes that people exhibit within organizations."

Accordingly Organizational behavior can be defined as –

"The study and application of knowledge about human behavior related to other elements of an organization such as structure, technology and social systems.

On the basis of definitions stated and various other definitions, we can draw following conclusions related to nature and scope of Organizational Behavior:

1. **Interdisciplinary Approach :**

   Organizational Behavior integrates knowledge from various relevant disciplines. OB draws heavily from psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Besides it also takes relevant things from economics, political science, law and history. These disciplines exits separately, but OB integrates the relevant contents of these disciplines.

2. **An Applied Science :**

   Organizational Behavior is oriented towards understanding the forces that affect behavior so that their affects may be predicted and guided towards effective functioning of organization. The basic goal of OB is to make application of various researchers to solve the organizational problems particularly related to human behavior aspect.

3. **Behavioral Approach to Management :**

   Organizational Behavior is directly connected with the human side of management, but it is not the whole of management. Organizational Behavior is related with the conceptual and human dimensions of management.

4. **Concern with Environment :**

   Organizational Behavior is concerned with issues like compatibility with environment e.g. person-culture fit, cross-cultural management etc.

5. **Scientific Method :**

   Organizational Behavior follows the scientific method and makes use of logical theory in its investigation and in answering the research questions. It is empirical, interpretive, critical and creative science.

6. **Contingency Approach :**

   There are very few absolutes in Organizational Behavior. The approach is directed towards developing managerial actions that are most appropriate for a specific situation.

7. **A Total Systems Approach :**

   Organizational Behavior is a systematic vision as it takes into account all the variables affecting organizational functioning. The systems approach is an integrative approach which takes into account all the variables affecting organizational functioning. Man's nature is quite complex and OB by applying systems approach tries to find solution of this complexity.

8. **Normative and value centered :**

   Organizational Behavior is a value-centered science. A normative science, unlike the positive science suggests only cause-effect relationships, prescribes how the various findings of the researches can be applied to get organizational results which are acceptable to the society.

9. **Utilizes two Kinds of Logic :**

   It utilizes both objective and subjective logic. Objectivity is concerned with reaching a fact through empirical analyses. Subjectivity is concerned with deciding about an issue through intuition, common sense, experiences, gut feeling, metaphors, learning from stories and cases, persuasive literature etc.

10. **Humanistic and optimistic :**

    OB focuses the attention on people from humanistic point of view. It is based on the belief that needs and motivation of people are of high concern. Further, there is optimism about the innate potential of man to be independent, creative, productive, and capable of contributing positively to the objectives of the organization.

Importance of studying Organizational Behavior

A study of OB is beneficial in many ways. Some of the benefits of studying OB are following:

1. Understanding human behavior
2. Controlling and directing human behavior
3. Organizational adaption.

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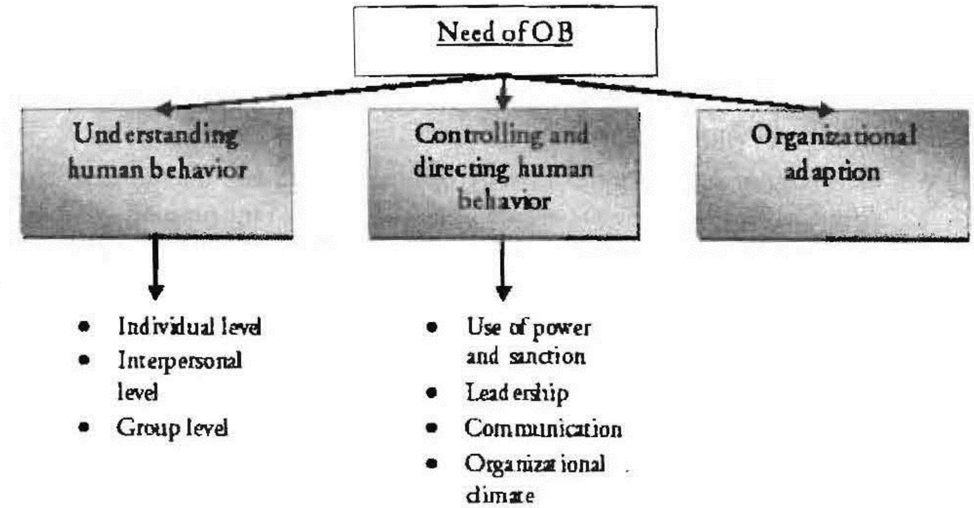

1.3 Understanding human behavior

For shaping human behavior in definite direction for achieving certain predetermined objectives, managers must know how the people in the organization behave.

1. **Individual level:**

   The behavior of human beings as a social man is the first issue in behavioral science. It provides for analyzing why and how an individual behaves in a particular way.

2. **Interpersonal Level :**

   Human behavior can be understood at the level of interpersonal interaction. Such interpersonal interaction is normally in paired relationship which represents man's most natural attempt at socialization. OB provides means for understanding this interpersonal relationship in the organization.

3. **Group Level:** Though people interpret anything at their individual level, they are often modified by group pressure which, thus, becomes a force in shaping human behavior. Thus, individuals should be studied in group also.

Controlling and directing Human behavior

After understanding the mechanisms of human behavior, managers are required to control and direct the behavior so that it conforms to standards required for achieving organizational objectives.

1. **Use of power and sanction :**

   Organizational behavior can be controlled and directed by the use of power and sanction which are formally prescribed by the organization. Power is referred to as capacity of an individual to take certain action and may be utilized in many ways. The use of power is related with sanction in the organization.

2. **Leadership :**

   Another method of bringing human behavior in tune with organizational requirement is leadership. Today, the difference between a successful and failing organization lies in the quality of leadership of its managerial personnel. OB identifies various leadership styles available to a manager and analysis which style is more appropriate in a given situation.

3. **Communication :**

   People in the organization particularly at higher level, spend considerable time in communicating. To achieve organizational effectiveness, the communication must be effective.

Check Your Progress

1. What is organization?
2. Define the term Organization behavior.

4. **Organizational climate :**

   Organizational climate refers to total organizational situations affecting human behavior. OB suggests the approach to create organizational climate in totality rather than merely improving the psychological conditions or increasing employee satisfaction by changing isolated work process.

1.4 Organization adaption

Organizations as dynamic entities are characterized by pervasive change. In this age of environmental variability, the real job of a manager is to provide continuity in organizations because the organizations have to adapt themselves to the environmental changes by making suitable internal arrangements.

Advantages of OB

- It helps an individual understand oneself. It is a systematic study of the actions and attitudes that people exhibit within organisation.
- It helps managers in getting the work done through effective ways.
- It emphasizes the interaction and relations between the organisation and individual behavior, thus making an attempt to fulfill psychological contract between individuals and the organisation.
- It helps to develop work-related behavior and job satisfaction.
- It helps in building motivating climate.
- It helps in building cordial industrial relations.
- It helps in the field of marketing through deeper insight of consumer behavior, and managing and motivating field employees.
- It helps in predicting behavior and applying it in some meaningful way to make organizations more effective.
- It implies effective management of human resources.
- It helps to improve functional behavior leading to productivity, effectiveness, efficiency, organizational citizenship, and also helps to reduce dysfunctional behavior at work place like absenteeism, employee turnover, dissatisfaction, tardiness etc.

1.5 Goals of Organizational Behavior

There are some goals of organizational behavior which are as follows:

- **Describe :**

  The first goal is to describe, systematically how people behave under a variety of conditions. Achieving this goal allows managers to communicate about human behavior at work using a common language.

- **Understand :**

  A second goal is to understand any people behave as they do. The managers would be frustrated if they could talk about behavior of their employees, but not understand the reasons behind those actions.

- **Predict :**

  The managers would have capacity to predict which employees might be dedicated and productive or which ones might have absent, cause problem. And thus the managers could take preventive actions.

- **Control :**

  The final goal of OB is to control and develop some human activity at work. Since managers are held responsible for performance outcome, they are vitally interested in being able to make an impact on employee behavior, skill development, team effort, and productivity. Managers need to be able to

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improve results through the actions they and their employees take, and organizational behavior can aid them in their pursuit of this goal.

Elements of organizational Behavior

Organizations operate their functional activities by some elements, which affect organizations.

- **People :**

  People make up the internal social system in the organization. They consist of individuals and groups. Groups may be large or small, formal and informal, official or unofficial. Human organization changes every day. People are living, thinking and feeling beings that created the organization and try to achieve the objectives and goals.

- **Structure :**

  Stucture defines the formal relationship and use of people in the organization. Different people in an organization are given different roles and they have certain relationship with others. Those people have to be related in some structural way so that their work can be effectively coordinated.

- **Technology :**

  The technology imparts the physical and economic conditions within which people work. With their bear hands people can do nothing. So they are given assistance of building, machines, tools, processes and resources. The nature of technology depends very much on the nature of the organization, influences the work or working conditions.

- **Social System :**

  Social system provide external environment within which organization operates. A single organization cannot exist alone. It is a part of the whole. A single organization cannot give everything and therefore there are many other organizations. All these organizations influence each other.

1.6 Contributing Fields/disciplines towards the development of Organizational Behavior

OB draws various concepts and principles from behavioral sciences and some other core disciplines of behavioral sciences i.e. psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Since these disciplines themselves are part of social sciences, it can be said that OB draws something from social sciences like economics, history, and political science.

The contributions of core disciplines of behavioral sciences to organizational behavior are as follows:

1. **Psychology :**

   The term psychology comes from the Greek word 'psyche' meaning soul or spirit. Psychology is an applied science, which attempts to explain human behavior in a particular situation and predicts actions of individuals. Psychologists have been able to modify individual behavior largely with the help of various studies. It has contributed towards various theories on learning, motivation, personality, training and development, theories on individual decision making, leadership, job satisfaction, performance appraisal, attitude, ego state, job design, work stress and conflict management.

   Studies of these theories can improve personal skills, bring change in attitude and develop positive approach to organizational systems. Various psychological tests are conducted in the organizations for selection of employees, measuring personality attributes and aptitude. Various other dimensions of human personality are also measured. These instruments are scientific in nature and have been finalized after a great deal of research. Field of psychology continues to explore new areas applicable to the field of organizational behavior. Contribution of psychology has enriched the organizational behavior field.

2. **Medicine :**

Medicine is perhaps the newest field affecting organizational behavior. The primary area of interest is work related stress, tension and depression. The study of causes and consequences of stress and use of medicinal drugs to reduce stress is fast becoming area of study within the organizational setting.

3. **Sociology :**

Sociology can be described as an academic discipline that utilizes the scientific method in accumulating knowledge about man's social behavior. Science of Sociology studies the impact of culture on group behavior and has contributed to a large extent to the field of group-dynamics, roles that individual plays in the organization, communication, norms, status, power, conflict management, formal organization theory, group processes and group decision-making. It studies the patterned, shared human behavior; the way in which people act toward one another. It specifically studies social groups, social behavior, society, customs, institutions, social class, status, social mobility, and prestige.

To managerial practice, its contribution is mainly in the field ob bureaucracy, role structures, social system theory, group dynamics, effect of industrialization on the social behavior, etc.

4. **Political science :**

Political science has also contributed to the field of Organizational behavior. The themes of interest to political scientist include how and why people acquire power and such topics as political behavior, group decision making, conflict behavior of interest groups, formation of coalition, etc. Stability of government at national level is one major factor for promotion of international business, financial investments, expansion and employment. Various government rules and regulations play a very decisive role in growth of the organization. All organizations have to abide by the rules of the government of the day.

5. **Social psychology :**

Working organizations are formal assembly of people who are assigned specific jobs and play a vital role in formulating human behavior. It is a subject where concept of psychology and sociology are blend to achieve better human behavior in organization. The field has contributed to manage change, group decision-making, communication and ability of people in the organization, to maintain social norms.

6. **Anthropology :**

The term anthropology combines the Greek stem '*anthropo*' meaning man and the noun ending 'logy' meaning science. Thus, anthropology can be defined as the science of man. It is a field of study relating to human activities in various cultural and environmental frameworks. It understands difference in behavior based on value system of different cultures of various countries. It particularly studies civilization, forms of cultures and their impact on individuals and groups, biological features of man and evolutionary pattern, speech and relationship among languages.

7. **Engineering :**

This discipline, too, has influenced OB. Industrial engineering, in particular, has long been concerned with work measurement, productivity, workflow analysis and design, and labor relations. Obviously, all these are important for OB.

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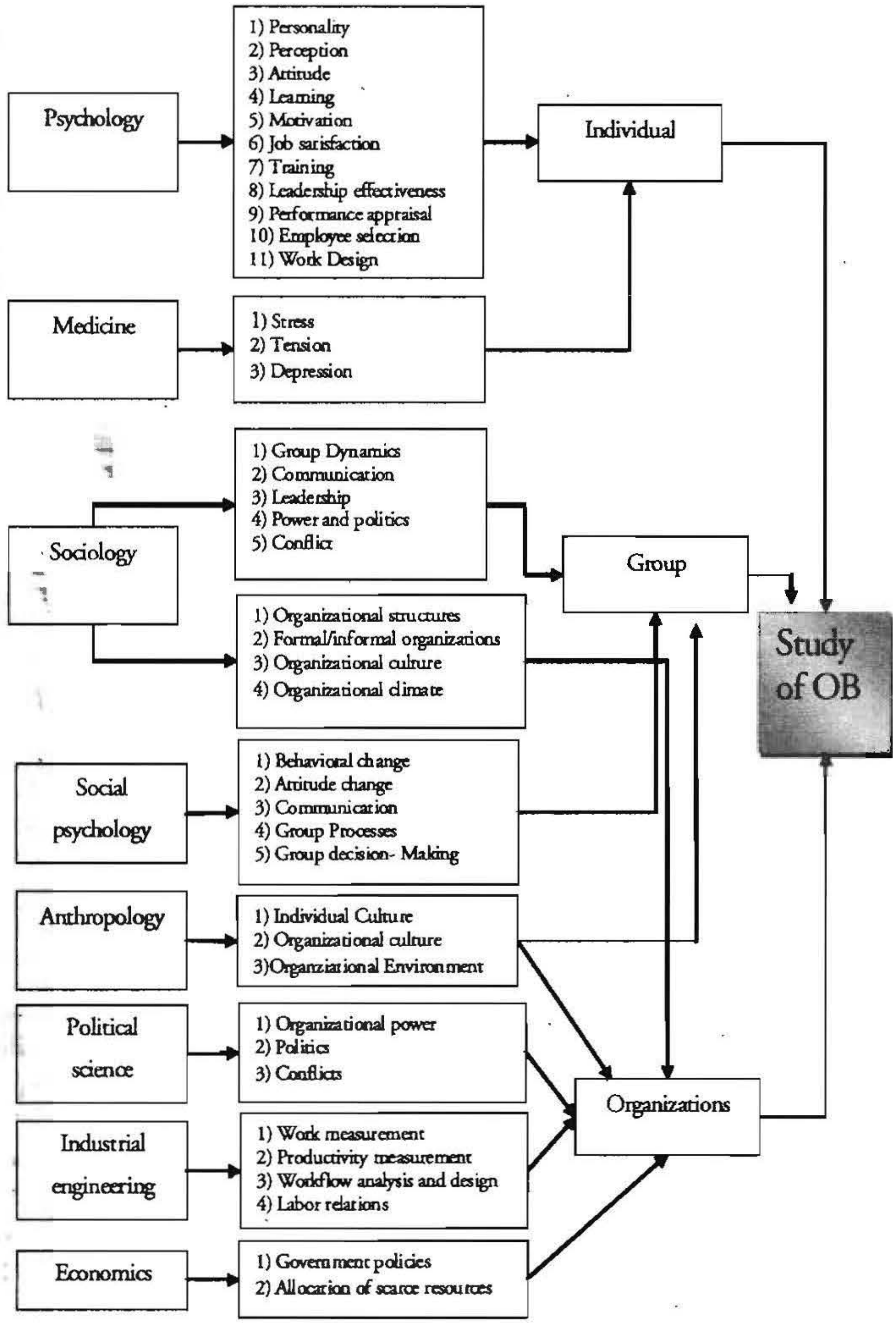
8. **Economics :**

Economics aids in the understanding of economic conditions at a given time, economic policies of the government, allocation of scarce resources to different competing alternatives, and all these factors affect the organizational climate. OB has learned a great deal from such economic factors as labor market dynamics, cost-benefit analysis, marginal utility analysis, human resource planning and forecasting and decision-making.



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Management Challenges and opportunities for OB/ Responding to global and cultural diversity

The study is more relevant to organizational behavior today due to globalization, mergers and acquisitions of various industries. The advent of the 21st century has created a situation wherein cross-cultural people will have to work in one particular industry. Managers will have to deal with individuals and groups belonging to different ethnic cultures and exercise adequate control or even channelize behavior in the desired direction by appropriately manipulating various cultural factors.

Organization behavior has used the studies on comparative attitudes and cross-cultural transactions. Environment studies conducted by the field of anthropology aims to understand organizational human behavior so that acquisitions and mergers are smooth. Organizations are bound by its culture that is formed by human beings.

1.7 Responding to Globalization

Managing in a global economy poses many challenges and opportunities. World economy is becoming increasingly global in character. Barriers to trade between different countries have been reduced to a great extent. Many foreign multinational corporations have brought technology and capital into India and are now competing among themselves and with the Indian firms. Organizations are no longer constrained by national borders. Globalization affects a manager's people skills in at least two ways.

- First, if you are a manager, you are increasingly likely to find yourself in a foreign assignment.
- Second, even in your own country, you are going to find yourself working with bosses, peers, and other employees who were born and raised in different cultures.

1.8 Managing Workforce Diversity

Workforce diversity is one of the most important and broad-based challenges currently facing organizations. While globalization focuses on differences between people from different countries, Workforce diversity addresses differences between people within a given country. Workforce diversity means that organizations are becoming more heterogeneous in terms of gender, race, and ethnicity. It is an issue in Canada, Australia, South Africa, Japan, and Europe as well as the United States. Employees do not set aside their cultural values and lifestyle preferences when they come to work. Workforce diversity has important implications for management practice:

- Managers have to shift their approach to recognizing differences and responding to those differences
- Provide diversity training and revamping benefit programs to accommodate the different needs of employees.

> ***Check Your Progress***
> 3. What are the different elements of Organization Behaviour?
> 4. What is workforce diversity?
> 5. Define Total Quality Management.

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Improving Quality and Productivity

Total quality management (TQM) is a philosophy of management that is driven by the constant attainment of customer satisfaction through the continuous improvement of all organizational processes. Implementing quality programs requires extensive employee involvement. Process reengineering asks the question: "How would we do things around here if we were starting over from scratch?"

Every process is evaluated in terms of contribution to goals. Rather than make incremental changes, often old systems are eliminated entirely and replaced with new systems. Organizations have to change not only their technology but way of their working. To improve productivity and quality, managers must:

- Adopt suitable practices to ensure that employees accept change willingly and become part of mission of spreading quality consciousness throughout the organization.

1.9 Responding to the Labor Shortage

If trends continue as expected, the U.S. will have a labor shortage for the next 10-15 years (particularly in skilled positions). The labor shortage is a function of low birth rates and labor participation rates. However immigration does little help to solve the problem. Wages and benefits are not enough to keep talented workers. Managers must understand human behavior and respond accordingly.

1.10 Improving Customer Service and People Skills

The majority of employees in developed countries work in service jobs—jobs that require substantive interaction with the firm's customers. For example, 80 percent of U.S. workers are employed in service industries. Employee attitudes and behavior are directly related to customer satisfaction requiring management to create a customer responsive culture.

People skills are essential to managerial effectiveness. OB provides the concepts and theories that allow managers to predict employee behavior in given situations.

1.11 Empowering People

Today managers are being called coaches, advisers, sponsors, or facilitators, and in many organizations, employees are now called associates. There is a vague impression between the roles of managers and workers; decision making is being pushed down to the operating level, where workers are being given the freedom to make choices about schedules and procedures and to solve work-related problems. Managers are empowering employees.

- They are putting employees in charge of what they do.
- Managers have to learn how to give up control.
- Employees have to learn how to take responsibility for their work and make appropriate decisions.

Coping with "Temporariness"

Managers have always been concerned with change. Change is an ongoing activity for most managers. The concept of continuous improvement, for instance, implies constant change. In the past, managing could be characterized by long periods of stability, interrupted occasionally by short periods of change. Today, long periods of ongoing change are interrupted occasionally by short periods of stability.

Permanent "temporariness":

Both managers and employees must learn to live with flexibility, spontaneity, and unpredictability. The jobs that workers perform are in a permanent state of flux, so workers need to continually update their knowledge and skills to perform new job requirements.

1. Work groups are also increasingly in a state of unrest. Predictability has been replaced by temporary work groups, teams that include members from different departments and whose members change all the time, and the increased use of employee rotation to fill constantly changing work assignments.
2. Organizations themselves are in a state of unrest. They reorganize their various divisions, sell off poor-performing businesses, downsize operations, subcontract non-critical services and operations to other organizations, and replace permanent employees with temporaries.

1.12 Stimulating Innovation and Change

Successful organizations must foster innovation and the art of change. Companies that maintain flexibility, continually improve quality, and beat their competition to the marketplace with innovative products and services will be tomorrow's winners. Employees are critical to an organization's ability to change and innovate.

1.13 Helping Employees Balance Work-Life Conflicts

The creation of the global workforce means workers are on-call 24-hours a day or working on non-traditional shifts. Communication technology has provided a vehicle for working at any time or any place. Employees are working longer hours per week from 43 to 47 hours per week since 1977. The lifestyles of families have changes creating conflict: more dual career couples and single parents find it hard to fulfill commitments to home, children, spouse, parents, and friends. Employees want jobs that allow flexibility and provide time for a "life."

Improving Ethical Behavior

In an organizational world characterized by restrained, expectations of increasing worker productivity, and tough competition, many employees feel pressured to engage in questionable practices. Members of organizations are increasingly finding themselves facing ethical dilemmas in which they are required to define right and wrong conduct. Examples of decisions employees might have to make are:

1 "Blowing the whistle" on illegal activities

2 Following orders with which they do not personally agree

3 Possibly giving inflated performance evaluations that could save an employee's job

4 Playing politics to help with career advancement, etc.

Organizations are responding to this issue by:

1 Writing and distributing codes of ethics

2 Providing in-house advisors

3 Creating protection mechanisms for employees who reveal internal unethical practices

Managers need to create an ethically healthy environment for employees where they confront a minimal degree of ambiguity regarding right or wrong behaviors.

1.14 MODELS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Autocratic Model

The autocratic model depends on power. Those who are in command must have the power to demand. "You do this-or else," meaning that an employee who does not

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follow orders will be penalized. In an autocratic environment the managerial orientation is formal, official authority. This authority is delegated by right of command over the people to it applies.

Under autocratic environment the employee is obedience to a boss, not respect for a manager.

The psychological result for employees is dependence on their boss, whose power to hire, fire, and "perspire" they is almost absolute.

The boss pays minimum wages because minimum performance is given by employees. They are willing to give minimum performance-though sometimes reluctantly-because they must satisfy survival needs for themselves and their families. Some employees give higher performance because of internal achievement drives, because they personally like their boss, because the boss is "a natural-born leader," or because of some other factor; but most of them give only minimum performance.

The Custodial Model

Workers being managed under the autocratic model often feel insecurity and frustration. They may even show aggression towards their boss and their families and neighbors. That is why progressive managers felt that there must be some way to develop better employee relationships so that insecurity and frustration could be dispelled. A successful custodial approach depends on economic resources. The resulting managerial orientation is toward money to pay wages and benefits.

Since employees' physical needs are already reasonably met, the employer looks to security needs as a motivating force. If an organization does not have the wealth to provide pensions and pay other benefits, it cannot follow a custodial approach.

The custodial approach leads to employee dependence on the organization. Rather than being dependence on their boss for their weekly bread, employees now depend on organizations for their security and welfare. Employees working in a custodial environment become psychologically preoccupied with their economic rewards and benefits.

As a result of their treatment, they are well maintained and contended. However, contentment does not necessarily produce strong motivation; it may produce only passive cooperation. The result tends to be those employees do not perform much more effectively than under the old autocratic approach.

The Supportive Model

The supportive model depends on leadership instead of power or money. Through leadership, management provides a climate to help employees grow and accomplish in the interests of the organization the things of which they are capable. The basic idea behind this theory is that leadership motivates the people to work and not the power of money as in custodian model.

The leader assumes that workers are not by nature passive and resistant to organizational needs, but that they are made so by an inadequately supportive climate at work. They will take responsibility, develop a drive to contribute, and improve them if management will give them a chance. Management orientation, therefore, is to support the employee's job performance rather than to simply support employee benefit payments as in the custodial approach.

Since management supports employees in their work, the psychological result is a feeling of participation and task involvement in the organization. Employee may say "we" instead of "they" when referring to their organization. Employees are more strongly motivated than by earlier models because of their status and recognition needs are better met. Thus they have awakened drives for work.

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The Collegial Model

A useful extension of the supportive model is the **collegial model.** The term "collegial" relates to a body of people working together cooperatively.

The collegial model depends on management's building a feeling of partnership with employees. The result is that employees feel needed and useful. They feel that managers are contributing also, so it is easy to accept and respect their roles in their organization. Managers are seen as joint contributors rather than as bosses.

The managerial orientation is toward teamwork. Management is the coach that builds a better team. The employee's response to this situation is responsibility. For example employees produce quality work not because management tells them to do so or because the inspector will catch them if they do not, but because they feel inside themselves an obligation to provide others with high quality. They also feel an obligation to uphold quality standards that will bring credit to their jobs and company.

The psychological result of the collegial approach for the employee is self-discipline. Feeling responsible, employees discipline themselves for performance on the team in the same way that the members of a football team discipline themselves to training standards and the rules of the game. In this kind of environment employees normally feel some degree of fulfillment, worthwhile contribution, and self-actualization, even though the amount may be modest in some situation. This self-actualization will lead to moderate enthusiasm in performance.

The System Model

An emerging model of organization behavior is the system model. It is the result of a strong search for higher meaning at work by many of today's employees; they want more than just a paycheck and job security from their jobs. Since they are being asked to spend many hours of their day at work, they want a work context there that is ethical, infused with integrity and trust, and provide an opportunity to experience a growing sense of community among coworkers.

To accomplish this, managers must increasingly demonstrate a sense of caring and compassion, being sensitive to the needs of a diverse workforce with rapidly changing needs and complex personal and family needs. In response, many employees embrace the goal of organizational effectiveness, and reorganize the mutuality of company-employee obligations in a system viewpoint. They experience a sense of psychological ownership for the organization and its product and services.

They go beyond the self-discipline of the collegial approach until they reach a state of self-motivation, in which they take responsibility for their own goals and actions. As a result, the employee needs that are met are wide-ranging but often include the highest-order needs (e.g., social, status, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization).

Because it provides employees an opportunity to meet these needs through their work as their work as well as understand the organization's perspectives, this new model can engender employees' passion and commitment to organizational goals. They are inspired; they feel important; they believe in the usefulness and viability of their system for the common good.

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Models of Organizational Behavior

	Autocratic	Custodial	Supportive	Collegial
Basis of model	Power	Economic resources	Leadership	Partnership
Managerial Orientation	Authority	Money	Support	Team work
Employee Orientation	Obedience	Security and benefits	Job performance	Responsible behavior
Employee psychological result	Dependence on boss	Dependence on organization	Participation	Self-discipline
Employee needs met	Subsistence	Security	Status and recognition	Self-actualization
Performance result	Minimum	Passive cooperation	Awakened drives	Moderate enthusiasm

CASE STUDY

When most people hear "GILLETTE", one thing comes to mind—Razors. That's to be expected, since safety razors were invented by King C. Gillette in 1903, and the product in various forms has been the core of the company's business ever since. Few firms have dominated an industry so completely and for so long. Wet-razor shaving (as distinct from electric razors) is a $900 million market. Gillette's share is 62 percent, with the remainder divided among SCHICK—15 per cent, BIC—11 percent, WILKINSON sword—2 percent, and a number of private brands.

Gillette would like to achieve a similar position in the men's toiletries with a new line of products called the GILLETTE Series. However, its record that market is spotty at best.

One Gillette success, Right Guard Deodorant, was market leader in the 1960's. Right Guard was one of the first Aerosols, and it became a family product which was used both by men and women. However, the product has not changed although the deodorant market has become fragmented with the introduction of antiperspirants, various product forms and applicators, and many different scents. As a result, Gillette slipped to third position in deodorant sales behind P & G and Colgate—Palmolive.

An even more embarrassing situation is Gillette's foamy shaving cream, a natural fit with the razor business. S. C Johnson and Sons Edge Gel have supplanted that brand as the leading seller. These experiences created frustration at Gillette. Despite its preeminence in razors and blades, the company has been unable to sustain a leading position across the full range of toiletries.

Gillette is using its most recent success, the sensor razor, as a springboard for its new toiletries. The Sensor story provides the background necessary to understand the marketing of the Gillette Series, and also offers some insight into Gillette's marketing prowess.

Sensor- a high technology cartridge razor- was a gamble for Gillette because it ran counter to consumers' buying preferences. Disposable razors, which were produced by the French firm BIC in 1974, had gained control in nearly 80 % of the razor market by 1990. Gillette's analysis showed that disposables provide a worse shave than a cartridge blade, cost more to make than a blade and are sold at a lower profit margin. Despite its disdain for the product, competitive pressure forced Gillette to introduce its own disposable, Good News

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As concern about the squeeze that disposables were putting on profit margins grew, Gillette began looking for a way to displace them. The company spent $ 300 million to develop a technology to significantly improve on the three attributes desired in shaving- closeness, comfort and safety. They came up with the Sensor, a razor with independently moving twin blades. The Sensor produces a superior shave, but it is also more expensive to produce than a disposable. So Gillette's gamble was that a better shave would be enough to justify a premium price, and in the process, displace the successful but not a very comfortable disposable razor. In addition to the R & D investment, Gillette spent $ 110 in the first year to advertise Sensor. The strategy paid off. Estimated 1992 sales for the brand was $ 390 million, and equally important, the share of the market held by the disposables has gone down to 42%.

Gillette then moved to capitalize on the success of Sensor. The company had a line of toiletries in development, and the decision was made to tie them closely to sensor. The line consists of 14 items:

1. two shaving gels for sensitive and regular skin
2. two shaving creams
3. two concentrated shaving gels
4. a clear gel anti- perspirant
5. a clear gel deodorant
6. an anti- perspirant stick
7. a deodorant stick
8. An after- shave gel
9. An after-shave lotion
10. An anti- perspirant aerosol and a deodorant body spray available only in Europe.

The products in the Gillette series were developed over a three year period at a cost of $ 75 million. They were tested on 70000 consumers. An indication of their newness is the fact that Gillette has 20 patents pending with them. Consideration had been given to introducing the line in 1992, but the introduction was cancelled by Gillette's CEO, Alfred Zeien. He insisted that the line not be launched until consumer tests showed that each of the 14 products was preferred to the best- performing brand in its category.

All the products have a common fragrance that Gillette calls Cool Wave. They come in silver and blue packages like the Sensor, and the black lines on the packages match the grooved sides of the Sensor Razor handle.

The items retail at $ 2.69 each, 10- 20 % higher than the prices of major competing items. As was the case with Sensor, Gillette hopes that the products' innovation will convince men to switch brands and pay the higher prices.

During the Gillette Series first year, the company spent $ 60 million on a joint advertising campaign with Sensor. Just like Sensor, the line was to introduce in January with ads on the Super Bowl. The campaign uses the same theme as Sensor. " The Best a man can get". Initial TV commercials were one minute in length. They started with 15 seconds on shaving gels, and cream, followed by 30 seconds on Sensor and 15 seconds on aftershaves. The deodorants are advertised separately.

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The Gillette series faces two major problems:

- Convincing consumers that the line is actually better and the higher price justified will be more difficult than with SENSOR. With the razor, Gillette had name recognition as the dominant firm in the industry. In addition, the design differences the sensor were visible, and a consumer can directly enjoy a closer shave. With the toiletries, Gillette does not have a strong position in the consumers' minds, nor are the benefits provided by the products obvious. Furthermore, the men's toiletries market is extremely competitive. Powerful firms with proven marketing skills have taken a greater interest un this category. P & G has acquired Old Spice and Noxzema; Colgate owns Mennen, and Unilever purchased Brut. It's unlikely the rest of the firms in the market will sit back and ignore Gillette's activity.
- Gillette is tying, the new product line to the Sensor but using a different brand name. If consumers do not associate the Gillette Series with the innovativeness and success of Sensor, the new line may just be another brand in an already cluttered market.

According to a Gillette Vice President, one of the most compelling aspects of the Gillette series is its synergy with the company's core business—razors. If the new line is successful, Gillette anticipates adding other men's grooming products such as hair sprays and shampoos. The firm's CEO, Zeien says, " we're already the worldwide leader in blades, Will we be the world leader in other (toiletries) or not? That's our goal."

QUESTIONS:

1. How is the Gillette Series being positioned with respect to (a) competitors, (b) the target market, (c) the product class, (d) price and quality? What other positioning possibilities are there?
2. Is Gillette making the best use of the brand equity that has been created with Sensor?
3. What strategies do you propose to Gillette? Address the entire marketing mix.

1.15 SUMMARY:

- Organizational behaviour (OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behaviour within an organization, and then applies that knowledge to make organizations work more effectively.
- OB focuses on how to improve productivity, reduce absenteeism and turnover, and increase employee citizenship and job satisfaction. An organization consists of people and so it is also a social system.
- Organizations can be located in the public sector or the private sector, they can be unionized or not, they can be publicly traded or they can be privately held.
- Organizational behaviour (OB) is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behaviour within an organi-

zation, and then applies that knowledge to make organizations work more effectively.

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- Organizational Behaviour emphasizes on intellectual capital as represented by the sum total of knowledge, expertise, and dedication of an organization's workforce.
- Organization behavior has used the studies on comparative attitudes and cross-cultural transactions. Environment studies conducted by the field of anthropology aims to understand organizational human behavior so that acquisitions and mergers are smooth. Organizations are bound by its culture that is formed by human beings.
- Workforce diversity is one of the most important and broad-based challenges currently facing organizations.
- While globalization focuses on differences between people from different countries, workforce diversity addresses differences between people within a given country.
- Workforce diversity means that organizations are becoming more heterogeneous in terms of gender, race, and ethnicity.
- Total quality management (TQM) is a philosophy of management that is driven by the constant attainment of customer satisfaction through the continuous improvement of all organizational processes.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Organization is the consciously coordinated social unit, composed of a group of people, which functions of a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals.
2. Organization behavior is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structures have on behavior within an organization, and then applies that knowledge to make organizations work more effectively.
3. Elements of Organization Behaviour: People, Structure, Technology and Social System.
4. Workforce diversity means that organizations are becoming more heterogeneous in terms of gender, race and ethnicity.
5. Total quality management is the philosophy of management that is driven by the constant attainment of customer satisfaction through the continuous improvement of all organizational processes.

1.16 TEST YOURSELF

1) Explain the concept of Organisation. What are its features and significances?
2) What essential elements required for a sound or ideal and result-oriented organisation?

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3) What do you mean by Organizational behavior?
4) Why study of Organizational Behavior is important?
5) Explain elements of Organizational Behavior.
6) What are the Contributing disciplines towards the development of Organizational Behavior?
7) What are the various challenges and opportunities for OB?
8) Explain models of Organizational Behavior.

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1.18 FURTHER READING

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2 Foundations of Individual Behaviour

The Chapter Covers :

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Behaviour is what a person does. Behaviour is defined as the observable and measurable activity of human beings. This is known as overt behaviour. Activities that qualify under this categoty show great variation; these may be in the form of mental process like decision making, or in the form of physical process like handling a machine. There is another aspect of behaviour which is non-observable or measurable, known as covert behaviour like feelings, attitude formation- favourable or unfavourable, perception formation, etc. The covert behaviour is a significant part of the total behaviour because it shapes and influences overt behaviour. Thus understanding of the total behaviour is important.

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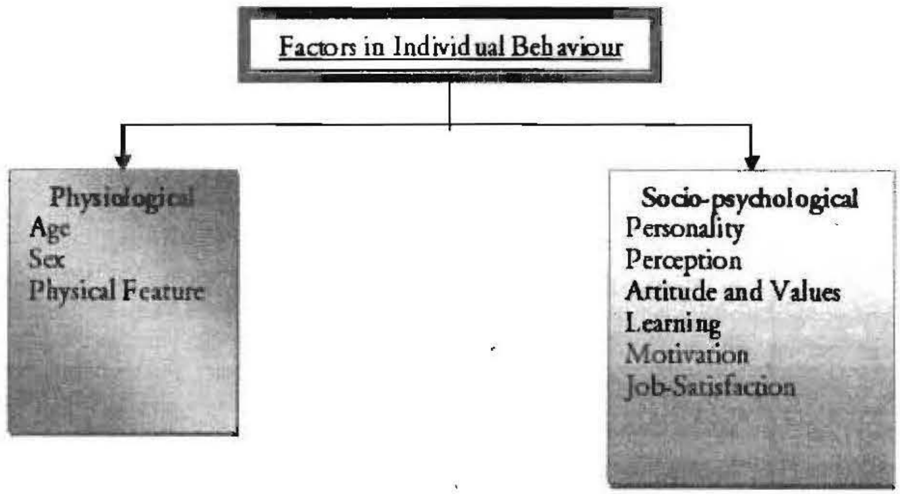
FOUNDATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

Factors that affect an individual's behaviour may broadly be classified into two major categories:

1. Physiological, and
2. Socio-psychological



It may be mentioned that physiological factors are biological and, therefore, they cannot be learned. Socio-psychological factors can be developed by an individual over the period of time through learning and practice.

BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Human beings possess certain biological endowments which are vital to their behaviour. Various psychological characteristics of heredity, sensory organs, physical build-up, and nervous system determine the outcome of the behaviour. However, a person is not merely a conglomeration of organs, nerves, bones and brain but a much more complex.

- Age
- Gender
- Marital status
- Ability

Age: The importance of relationship between age and job performance is increasing. It is tempting to assume that age is also inversely related to absenteeism. In general, older employees have lower rates of avoidable absence. However, they have higher rates of unavoidable absence, probably due to their poorer health associated with aging and longer recovery periods when injured.

There is a widespread belief that productivity declines with age and that individual skills decay over time. Reviews of the research find that age and job performance are unrelated. This seems to be true for almost all types of jobs, professional and non-professional.

Gender: There are few, if any, important differences between men and women that will affect their job performance, including the areas of:

a. Problem-solving
b. Analytical skills
c. Competitive drive
d. Motivation
e. Sociability
f. Learning ability

There is no evidence indicating that an employee's gender affects job satisfaction. There is a difference between men and women in terms of preference for work schedules. Mothers of preschool children are more likely to prefer part-time work, flexible work schedules, and telecommuting in order to accommodate their family responsibilities. Women's quit rates are similar to men's. The research on absence consistently indicates that women have higher rates of absenteeism.

Marital Status: There are not enough studies to draw any conclusions about the effect of marital status on job productivity. Research consistently indicates that married employees have fewer absences, undergo fewer turnovers, and are more satisfied with their jobs than are their unmarried co-workers. More research needs to be done on the other statuses besides single or married, such as divorce, domestic partnering, etc.

Ability: We were not all created equal. Everyone has strengths and weaknesses in terms of ability in performing certain tasks or activities; the issue is about knowing how people differ in abilities and using that knowledge to increase performance. Ability refers to an individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in a job. It is a current assessment of what one can do. Individual overall abilities are made up of two sets of factors: intellectual and physical.

- **Intellectual Abilities:** Intellectual abilities are those needed to perform mental activities. IQ tests are designed to ascertain one's general intellectual abilities. Examples of such tests are popular college admission tests such as the SAT, GMAT, and LSAT. The seven most frequently cited dimensions making up intellectual abilities are: number aptitude, verbal comprehension, perceptual speed, inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, spatial visualization, and memory.

  Jobs differ in the demands they place on incumbents to use their intellectual abilities. For example, the more information-processing demands that exist in a job, the more general intelligence and verbal abilities will be necessary to perform the job successfully. A careful review of the evidence demonstrates that tests that assess verbal, numerical, spatial, and perceptual abilities are valid predictors of job proficiency at all levels of jobs. New research in this area focuses on "multiple intelligences," which breaks down intelligence into its four sub-parts: cognitive, social, emotional, and cultural.

- **Physical Abilities:** Specific physical abilities gain importance in doing less skilled and more standardized jobs. Research has identified nine basic abilities involved in the performance of physical tasks. Individuals differ in the extenr to which they have each of these abilities. High employee performance is likely to be achieved when management matches the extent to which a job requires each of the nine abilities and the employees' abilities.

The Ability-Job Fit: Employee performance is enhanced when there is a high ability-job fit. The specific intellectual or physical abilities required depend on the ability requirements of the job. For example, pilots need strong spatial-visualization abilities. Directing attention at only the employee's abilities, or only the ability requirements of the job, ignores the fact that employee performance depends on the interaction of the two.

When the fit is poor, employees are likely to fail. When the ability-job fit is out of sync because the employee has abilities that far exceed the requirements of the job, performance is likely to be adequate, but there will be organizational inefficiencies and possible declines in employee satisfaction. Abilities significantly above those required can also reduce the employee's job satisfaction when the employee's desire to use his or her abilities is particularly strong and is frustrated by the limitations of the job.

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2.4 PERSONALITY

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Personality factors are extremely important in organisational setting. While perception, learning, motivation, etc, deal with some specific aspects of human behaviour, personality takes the whole man concept because it affects the various psychological processes.

The term personality is the role which the person (actor) displays in the public domain at large. Personality is a dynamic concept describing the growth and development of a person's whole psychological system-it looks at some aggregate whole that is greater than the sum of the parts. For psychologists, personality includes:

i) Eternal appearances and behaviour

ii) The inner awareness of self as a permanent organizing force, and

iii) The particular organization of measurable traits, both inner and outer.

Concept of Personality:

The term personality has been derived from Latin word 'personare', which means 'to speak through'. Thus personality is used in terms of influencing others through external appearance. Personality is an internalized system which includes all those aspects of a person that are inherited as well as those that are learned. Personality can be defined as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, arid behaviours in various situations.

According to Gordon Allport, "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment."

According to Schiffman & Kanuk, "Personality can be defined as those inner psychological characteristics that both determine and reflect how a person responds to his or her environment."

According to Cattell (1965) 'that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation.'

J.B Kolasa (1978) defines personality as - "Personality is a broad, amorphous designation relating to fundamental approaches of persons to others and themselves. To most psychologists and students of behaviour, this term refers to the study of the characteristic traits of an individual, relationships between these traits and the way in which a person adjusts to other people and situations".

According to Gluck (1968) - "Personality is a pattern of stable states and characteristics of a person that influences his or her behaviour toward goal achievement. Each person has unique ways of protecting these states".

James D Thompson and Donald Van Houten (1967) define personality as -"a very diverse and complex psychological concept. The word 'personality' may mean something like outgoing, invigorating interpersonal abilities ... but we must also recognize and explain the fact that development results in man acquiring a distinctiveness or uniqueness which gives him identity that enables him and us to recognize him as apart from others. These distinguishing characteristics are summarized by the term 'personality'.

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

Nature of Personality:

Personality has some characteristics which are observed in the behaviour of employees. These are as follows:

1) **Personality Traits:** Personality is the sum of different traits of a person. It is the composition of physical appearance, emotional attributes, sociability,

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objectivity, friendliness, thoughtfulness and so on. Personality is characterized by major trait dimensions such as restraint, emotional stability, objectivity, personal relations, etc.

2) **Personality reflects individual differences:** Many individuals tend to be similar in terms of single personality characteristics. Many people can be described as high in sociability while others can be described as low in sociability. Personality is a useful concept because it enables us to categorize consumers into different groups on the basis single trait.
3) **Personality can change:** Personality can change under certain circumsrances. An individual personality may be altered by major life events such as the birth of a child, the death of a loved one, a divorce, or a major career promotion.
4) **Personality is consistent and enduring:** The stable nature of personality such as that it is unreasonable for marketers to attempt to change consumer's personalities to confirm to certain products. Personality characteristics influence consumer responses and attempt to obtain to relevant traits inherent in their target group of consumers.

Importance of personality

A consideration of personality differences of focal persons is important for following three reasons:

1) Many people arouse hostility and aggression in their associates while some others invoke sympathy and supportive responses because of their personality features/ traits. In the same way, some people encourage while others discourage free and open communication in view of their personality traits as perceived by their subordinates and associates.
2) Personality characteristics tend to produce different emotional reactions to stress. Some people tolerate severely stressful situations while others are overwhelmed with tensions under similar circumstances.
3) Individual personality leads to individual differences in styles of coping with stress.

Factors affecting personality:

The factors affecting personality development are illustrated below:

1) **Heredity:** The relationship of heredity with personality is a well-accepted fact. Traits like physique, eye color, hair color, height, temperament, energy level, intelligence, reflexes, etc. are generally referred to describe the influence of heredity in developing personality. The heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual's personality is the molecular structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes. Robbins (2003) has argued that the three different streams of research lend some credibility to the argument that heredity plays an important part in determining an individual's personality. The first looks at the genetic underpinnings of human behavior and temperament among young children. The second addresses the study of twins who were separated at birth and the third examines the consistency in job satisfaction over time and across situations.
2) **Environment:** Environment comprises of culture, family, social and situational factors. The environmental factors influence personality of an individual since they provide the basis of certain experiences: which determine the individual's view about life, both positive and negative.
3) **Culture:** Culture establishes norms, attitudes and values that are passed on from generation to generation and create consistencies over time. Every culture expects and trains its members to behave in the ways that are acceptable to the group. People from different cultural groups have different attitudes

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towards independence, aggression, competition, cooperation, artistic talent, etc. However, on the basis of culture, an individual's personality cannot be always assessed, since individuals within the same culture (but from different family and sub-cultural background) have been seen to differ in their behaviour. To a marked degree, the child's cultural group defines the range of experiences and situations he is likely to encounter and the values and personality characteristics that will be reinforced and hence learned." Culture requires both conformity and acceptance from its members.

4) **Family:** One of the most important determinants of the personality of a person is the immediate family. Families influence the behaviour of a person especially in the early stages of life. The nature of such influence will depend upon the socio-economic level of the family, family size, race, religion, parent's educational level and geographic location.

   The parents play an especially important part in the identification process, which is important to the person's early development. According to Mischel, the process can be examined from three different perspectives.

   i. Identification can be viewed as the similarity of behaviour including feelings and attitudes between child and model, the parents being the first model.
   ii. Identification can be looked at as the child's motives or desires to be like the model.
   iii. It can be viewed as the process through which the child actually takes on the attribures of the model.

   From all three perspectives, the identification process is fundamental ro the understanding of personality development.

5) **Situation:** Situational factors also play a crucial role in determining the personality of a person. Every individual goes through different type of experiences and events in his/her life. Some of the events and experiences, which an individual goes through in his/her life, can serve as important determinants of his/her personality. A trauma suffered by a person in the childhood can sometime change the structure of his/her own personality.

6) **Social Factors:** There is increasing recognition given to the role of other relevant persons, groups and especially organizations, which greatly influence an individual's personality. This is commonly called the socialization process. Socialization involves the process by which a person acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioral potentialities that are open to him or her, those that are ultimately synthesized and absorbed. Socialization starts with the initial contact between a mother and her new infant. After infancy, ether members of the immediate family - father, brothers, sistets and close relatives or friends, then the social group: peers, school friends and members of the work group - play influential roles.

Theories of Personality

Psychoanalytic Theory / Freudian Theory: Psychoanalytic theory is based on belief that man is motivated more by unseen forces than he is controlled by conscious and rational thought. Freud, the father of psychoanalytic theory, proposed that every individual's personality is the product of a struggle among three interacting forces - the id, the ego and the super ego.

1) **The ID:** The id is the source of psychic energy and seeks immediate gratification for biological or instinctual needs. Freud believed that instinct could be classified under life instincts and death instincts. Example of life instincts are hunger thrust and sex. The energy involved in their activity is the libido. The id operates on what is called the **pleasure principle** i.e. it acts to avoid tension and seeks immediate pleasure.

2) **The Ego**: The Ego is the conscious and logical part of human personality and it is associated with the **loyalty principle.** The ID represents the unconscious part on the other hand, ego is the conscious part. It operates on what is called the reality principle, which is capable of postponing the release of tension until that time when it will be effectively directed at coping up with external environment. Out of the functioning of the id and ego, many conflicting situation arises because id wants immediate pleasure, while ego dictates denial or postponement to more appropriate time and place. In order to dissolve a conflict the ego gets support from the super ego.
3) **The super ego**: The super ego represents social and personal norms and serves as an ethical constraint on behaviour. The super ego provides norms to ego to determine what is wrong and what is right.

The psychoanalytic theory of Freud is based on the theoretical conception, rather than a measurable item for scientific variation. This theory is not very relevant from behavioural science point of view because it does not give a total picture of behaviour emerging from the personality.

Socio-psychological Theory / Non Freudian Personality Theory: Socio-psychological personality theory recognizes the interdependence of the individual and society. The individual attempts to meet the needs of the society, while society helps the individual to attain his goal.

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

The theorists accept that socio-psychological factors determine personality; however there is no general agreement as to the relative importance of social variables. For Example: Fromm emphasised the importance of social context, while Sullivian and Horney stressed interpersonal behaviour, and Alder employed different variables. Horney's model suggests that human behaviour results from three predominant interpersonal orientations- complaint, aggressive, and detached.

1. Complaint people are dependent on other people and move towards others.
2. Aggressive are motivated by the need for power and move toward others.
3. Detached people are self- sufficient and move away from others.

Socio-psychological theory offers, to a very great extent, the answer to the problems of emergence of personality, particularly in terms of the influence of social factors in shaping personality. The managers in the organisations can take clue from this theory in shaping the behaviour of their employees.

Trait Theory: A trait theory is defined as "any distinguishing, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another". Trait factor theory presents a quantitative approach to the study of personality. Trair theorists advocated that personality tests will indicate the individual differences in terms of specific traits. There are basically three assumption of this theory:

1. Traits are common to many individuals and vary in absolute amounts between individuals.
2. Traits are relatively stable and exert fairly universal effects on behaviour. Thus, a consistent functioning of personality variables is predictive of a wide variety of behaviours.
3. Traits can be inferred from the measurement of behavioural indicators.

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

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Self Theory: The psychoanalytic, socio-psychological, and trait theories of personality represent rhe more traditional approaches to explaining the complex human personality. Self- theory, also termed as organismic or field theory, emphasises the totality and interrelatedness of all behaviours. This theory treats the organism as a whole to a greater degree than do any of the other theoretical formulations. The Carl Roger's self theory of personality is very relevant in organisation behaviour. He defines the self concept as organised consistent, conceptual, gestalt composed of perceptions of the "I' or "me" and the perceptions of the relationships of the "I" or "me" to others and to various aspects of life, together with the values attached to these perceptions. There are four factors in self concept, these are as follows:

1. **Self-image:** The self-image is the way one sees one-self. Every person has certain beliefs about who or what he is; taken together, these beliefs are a person's self-image or identity.
2. **Ideal-self:** The ideal-self denotes the way one would like to be. The ideal self is different from self-image in the fact that the self- image indicates the reality of the person as perceived by him, while ideal-self indicates the ideal position as perceived by him.
3. **Looking glass-self:** The looking glass-self is the perception of the person about how others perceive his qualities and characteristics. This is the perception of others perception. In simple words, the way one thinks people perceive about him and not the way people actually see him.
4. **Real-self:** The real self is what one really is. The first three aspects of the self-concept are the functions of the individual perception and they may be same as real-self or different from it.

LEARNING

Introduction:

Learning is a continuous process. It occurs all the time. Learning is a relatively change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience. We can say that changes in the behaviour indicate that learning has taken place and that learning is a change in behaviour. Learning may be defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour as a result of prior experiences.

Definition:

According to E.R. Hilgard, "Learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of prior experience." It can be said that change in behaviour indicates that learning has taken place and that learning is a change in behaviour.

According to W. McGehee, "Learning has taken place if an individual behaves reacts; respond as a result of experience in a manner different from the way he formerly behaved."

Characteristics of learning:

1) **Strength of learning:** What is required to bring about a strong and long-lasting learned response? Advertisements of most brands hammer into the customet the benefits and qualities of their respective brands so that the customer does not forget them. The strength of learning is heavily influenced by four factors: importance, reinforcement, repetition and imagery.
   1. **Importance** refers to the value that the consumer places on the information to be learned.
   2. **Reinforcement** is anything, which increases the likelihood that a given response will be repeated in the future.
   3. **Repetition** increases the strength and speed of learning. Very simply, the more times we are exposed to information, or practice a certain kind of behaviour, the more likely we are to learn it.

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4. Imagery refers to the images created by words. These words may either be a brand name or a corporate name.

2) **Extinction:** Marketers basically want consumers to learn and remember positive features, feelings and behaviours associated with their brands. However, extinction or forgetting as it is more commonly termed occurs when the reinforcement for the learned response is withdrawn. For instance, if the advertisements for a particular brand are withdrawn for a considerable period of time, both from the print and the electronic media, the probability of the brand being forgotten by the consumers is very high.

3) **Stimulus Generalization:** Stimulus generalization, often referred to as the rub-off effect occurs when a response to one stimulus is elicited by a similar but distinct stimulus. Thus, a consumer who has learnt over repeated use the surf detergent is effective and washes the best will assume that their surf excel will also be very effective. Thus, the consumer has engaged in stimulus generalization.

4) **Stimulus Discrimination:** Stimulus discrimination refers to the process of learning to respond differently to somewhat similar stimuli.

5) **Response Environment:** It appears that consumers generally learn more information than they are able to retrieve. That is, we frequently have relevant information stored in memory that we cannot access when desired. One factor that influences our ability to retrieve stored information is the strength of the original learning. The stronger the original learning the more likely relevant information will be retrieved when required.

Principal Elements of Learning:

Consumers learn in several ways. Primarily, there are four elements of learning:

1. **Motive:** Motives arouse individuals, thereby increasing their readiness to respond. This arousal function is essential, since it activates the energy needed to engage in learning activity. In addition, any success at achieving the motivating goal, or avoiding some unpleasant situation, tends to reduce arousal. Because this is reinforcing, such activity will have a greater tendency to occur again in similar situations. Thus, marketers strive to have their brand or its name available when relevant consumer motives are aroused because it is expected that consumers will learn a connection between the product and motive.
2. **Cues:** A cue may be viewed as a weak stimulus not strong enough to arouse Consumers, but capable of providing direction to motivated activity. That is, it influences the manner in which consumers respond to a motive. The shopping environment is packed with cues, such as promotions and product colours, which consumers can use to choose between various response options in a learning situation. For example, when we are hungry we are guided by certain cues, such as restaurant signs and the aroma of food cooking, because we have learned that these stimuli are associated with food preparation and consumption.
3. **Response:** A response may be viewed as a mental or physical activity the consumer makes in reaction to a stimulus situation. Responses appropriate to a particular situation are learned over time through experience in facing that situation. The occurrence of a response is not always observable. Therefore, it must again be emphasized that our inability to observe responses does not necessarily mean that learning is not taking place.
4. **Reinforcement:** The most widely acceptable view of reinforcement is anything that follows a response and increases the tendency fot the response to reoccur in a similar situation. Because reinforced behaviour tends to be repeated. Consumers can learn to develop successful means of responding to their needs of changing conditions.

Theories of Learning:

When we act, we learn. Learning induces changes in our behaviour arising from experience. Most human behaviour is learned, although much learning is incidental. Learning theorists believe that learning is produced through the interplay of drives (motives), stimuli, cues, responses, and reinforcement. Two popular approaches to learning are **classical conditioning** and **operant conditioning**.

Learning theory teaches marketers that they can build demand for a product by associating it with strong drives, using motivating cues, and providing positive reinforcement. A new company can enter the market by appealing to the same drives that competitors use and by providing similar cues, because buyers are more likely to transfer loyalty to similar brands (generalization); or the company might design its brand to appeal to the different set of drives and offer strong cue inducements to switch (discrimination).

1. Classical conditioning:

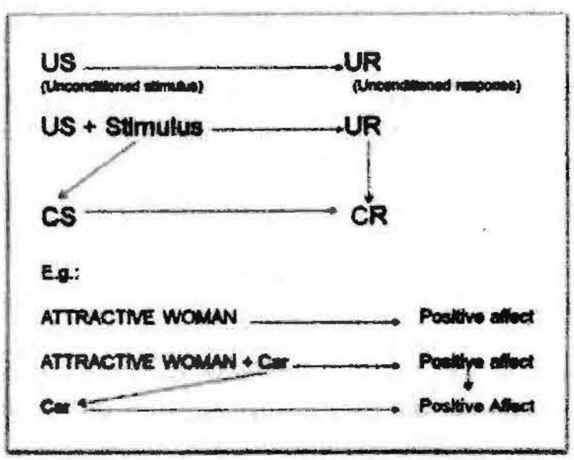
Classical Conditioning is a type of conditioning in which an individual responds to some stimulus that would not ordinarily produce such a response. Classical conditioning has some important implications to understand human behaviour. Since higher-order conditioning for learning by human-beings is important, its implication must be recognized. Another implication of higher-order conditioning is that reinforcement can be acquired. A conditioned stimulus becomes reinforcing under higher-order conditioning.

Classical conditioning is passive. Something happens and we react in a specific way. It is voluntary rather than reflexive. For example, employees choose to arrive at work on time, ask their boss for help with problems, or "good off" when no one is watching. The learning of those behaviours is better understood by looking at operant conditioning.

Pavlov's early work on dogs was known as classical conditioning. Pavlov discovered that when dogs were fed meat powder they salivated. Pavlov then discovered that if a bell were rung before the dogs were fed, the dogs would begin salivating in anticipation of being fed (this was efficient, since they could then begin digesting the meat powder immediately). Pavlov then found that after the meat had been "paired" with the meat powder enough times, Pavlov could ring the bell without feeding the dogs and they would still salivate.

In the jargon of classical conditioning, the meat powder was an unconditioned stimulus (US) and the salivation was, when preceded by the meat powder, an unconditioned response (UR). That is, it is a biologically "hard-wired" response to salivate when you are fed. By pairing the bell with the unconditioned stimulus, the bell became a conditioned stimulus (CS) and salivation in response to the bell (with no meat powder) became a conditioned response (CR).

Many modern day advertisers use classical conditioning in some way. Consider this sequence:

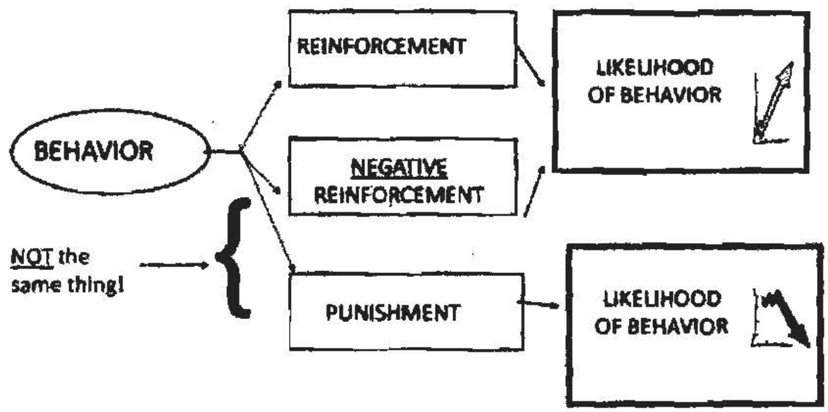


2) **Operant Conditioning:**

Operant Conditioning is a type of conditioning in which desired voluntary behaviour leads to a reward or prevents a punishment. People learn to behave to get something they want or to avoid something they don't want. Operant behaviour means voluntary or learned behaviour in contrast to reflexive or unlearned behaviour. The tendency to repeat such behaviour is influenced by the reinforcement or lack of reinforcement brought about by the consequences of the behaviour. Reinforcement, therefore, strengthens behaviour and increases the likelihood that it will be repeated.

Instrumental, or operant, conditioning, involves a different series of events, and this what we usually think of as learning. The general pattern is:

There are three major forms of operant learning. In ***positive reinforcement***, an individual does something and is rewarded. He or she is then more likely to repeat the behavior. For example, you eat a candy bar (behavior), it tastes good (consequence), and you are thus more likely to eat a similar candy bar in the future (behavioral change).



Punishment is the opposite. You eat what looks like a piece of candy (behavior), only to discover that it is a piece of soap with a foul taste (consequences), and subsequently you are less likely to eat anything that looks remotely like that thing ever again (changed behavior).

It should be noted that ***negative reinforcement*** is very different from punishment. An example of negative reinforcement is an obnoxious sales person who calls you up on the phone, pressuring you into buying something you don't want to do (aversive stimulus). You eventually agree to buy it (changed behavior), and the sales person leaves you alone (the aversive stimulus is terminated as a result of consequences of your behavior).

The Harvard psychologist B.F. Skinner did research for operant conditioning. Skinner argued that creating pleasing consequences to follow specific forms of behaviour would increase the frequency of that behaviour. People will most likely engage in desired behaviours if they are positively reinforced for doing so. Rewards are most effective if they immediately follow the desired response. In addition, behaviour that is not rewarded, or is punished, is less likely to be repeated. A simple example of the operant behaviour is the application of brake by a vehicle driver to avoid accident. Here, the possibility of accident without application of brake is stimulus situation, application of brake is the behaviour and avoidance of accident is the consequence of behaviour. Through this process, human beings learn what behaviours will be rewarding and they engage in those behaviours.

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The major differences between classical and operant conditioning can be summarized as follows:

Classical conditioning	Operant conditioning
Conditioning element is stimulus.	Conditioning element is reward/punishment.
Conditioning is implemented before response.	Conditioning is implemented after response.
First we produce a stimulus and then we expect the desired behaviour.	First we get a behaviour pattern and then either by reward or by avoidance of punishment we reinforce that behaviour.

3) **Cognitive Learning:**

Instead of viewing learning as the development of connections between stimuli and responses, cognitive theorists stress the importance of perception, problem solving, and insight. This viewpoint contends that much learning occurs not as a result of trial and error or practice but through discovering meaningful patterns which enable us to solve problems. Cognitive learning involves learning ideas, concepts, attitudes, and facts that contribute to our ability to reason, solve problems and learn relationships without direct experience or reinforcement. Cognitive learning can range from very simple information acquisition to complex, creative problem solving.

Various forms of cognitive learning could be:

i) **Iconic Rote Learning:** It involves learning the association between two or more concepts in the absence of conditioning.

ii) **Vicarious Learning/Modelling:** It is another important way in which consumer learning takes place. It is not necessary for consumers to directly experience a reward to learn. Instead, the consumer can observe the behavior of other and adjust that of his accordingly. Likewise, he may also use imagery to anticipate the outcome of various courses of action.

iii) **Reasoning:** It represents the most complex form of cognitive learning. In reasoning, individuals engage in creative thinking to restructure and recombine existing information as well as new information to form new associations and concepts.

4) **Social Learning Theory :**

People can learn through observation and direct experience. Much of what we have learned comes from watching models-presents, teachers, peers, motion picture and television performers, bosses and so forth.

Social-learning theory is an extension of operant conditioning-that is. It assumes that behaviour is a function of consequences it also acknowledges the existence of observational learning and the importance of perception in learning. Four processes to determine the influence that a model will have on an individual are:

i) **Attention processes:** People learn from a model only when they recognize and pay attention to its critical features. We tend to be most influenced by models that are attractive, repeatedly available, important to us, or similar to us in our estimation.

ii) **Retention processes:** A model's influence will depend on how well the individual remembers the model's action after the model is no longer readily available.

iii) **Motor Reproduction processes:** After a person has seen a new behaviour by observing the model, the watching must be converted into doing. This process then demonstrates that the individual can perform the modelled activities.

iv) **Reinforcement processes:** Individuals will be motivated to exhibit the modelled behaviour if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behaviours that are positively reinforced will be given more attention, learned better, and performed more often.

2.5 PERCEPTION

Introduction

"We don't see things as they are; we see things as we are." Perception can be defined as a process by which individuals select, organize and interpret their sensory impressions, so as to give meaning to their environment. Perception is a complex process and differs from person to person. People's behaviour is influenced by their perception of reality, rather than the actual reality.

"Perception is the process of receiving information and making sense of the world around us. It involves deciding which information to notice, how to categorize this information and how to interpret it within the framework of existing knowledge."

Kolasa defines perception as the

"Selection and organization of material which stems from the outside environment at one time or the other to provide the meaningful entity we experience."

According to **S.P. Robbins,** *"Perception may be defined as a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment."*

According to **Joseph Reitz,** *"Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment – seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling."*

Features of perception

Following are the some feature of perception, which are as under:

- Perception is a mental process, whereby an individual selects data or information from the environment, organizes it and draws significance or meaning from it.
- Perception is basically a cognitive or thinking process and an individual's activities, emotions, feelings etc. are based on his perception.
- Perception being an intellectual and cognitive process will be subjective in nature. This means that differenr people may perceive the same environment differently based on the effect of the environment.

Perception involves **five** sub processes. They are stimulus, registration, interpretation, feedback and consequence.

1. Perception initiates with the ptesence of a stimulus situation. In organizational settings the superior forms the stimulus situation for the subordinate's perceptual process.
2. Registration involves the physiological mechanism including both sensory and neural. Obviously, an individual's physiological ability to hear and see influence his perception.
3. Interpretation is a highly crucial sub-process. Other psychological processes assist in perceptual interpretation. For instance, in work settings, his motivation, personality and learning process determines an individual's interpretation of a stimulus situation.
4. Feedback is important for interpreting the perceptual event data. In work settings, the psychological feedback that is likely to affect a subordinate's perception may be in the form of a variation in the behaviour of superior.
5. Perception ends in reaction or response, which may be in the overt or covert form. As a consequence of perception, an individual responds to work demands. These sub- processes indicate the complexity of perception.

2.6 FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION

A number of factors operate to shape and sometimes distort perception. These factors can reside in the *perceiver*, in the object or *target* being perceived or in the context of the *situation* in which the perception is made.

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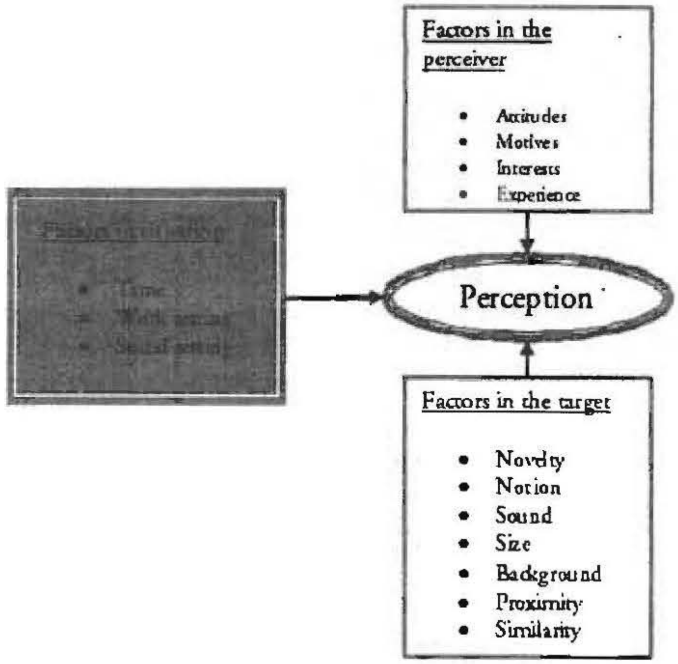


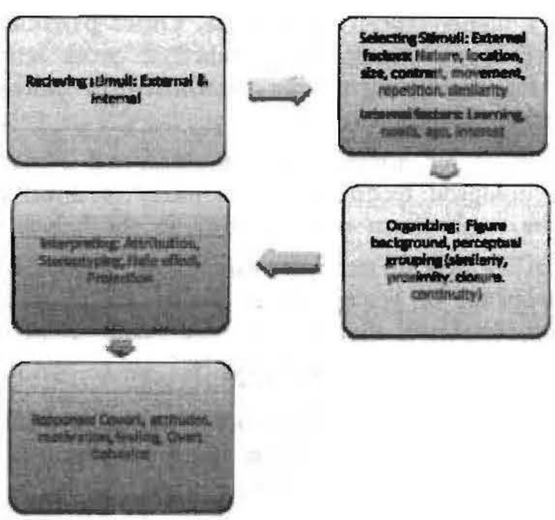
The Perceiver : When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she sees, the interpretation is heavily influenced by personal characteristics of the individual perceiver. Among the more relevant personal characteristics affecting perception are attitudes, motives, interests, past experiences and expectations.

The Target : The characteristics of the target being observed can effect the perception. Loud people are more likely to be noticed than the quiet ones. There are extremely attractive and unattractive individuals. Motion, Sounds, Size and other attributes of a target shape the way we see it.

The Situation : The context in which we see the objects or events is important. Elements in the surrounding environment influence our perception. One may not notice a 25 year old female in an evening gown and heavy makeup; yet the same woman, attired for management class would certainly catch attention.

PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

Perception is the process which involves seeing, receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting and giving meaning to the environment. This meaning is built on past experiences and accumulated values. The process involves input-throughput-output. There are various stimuli which act on a person which are cognitively processed by an individual and ultimately result in behaviour or action.



Check Your Progress

1. Define Personality?
2. What do you mean by the term Learning?
3. What is Perception?

1. **Stimuli:** The process of perception starts with a stimuli. Through our sensory organs we receive various stimuli. Stimuli take five forms we see things, we hear sounds, we smell, we taste and we touch things
2. **Selection:** Individuals are bombarded with enormous stimuli which are selectively accepted by them. They tend to pay attention to only these constitute of their environment which are consistent with or which reinforce their own expectations. The selection is not random, but depends on internal and external factors. Internal factors relate to personal profile, age, sex, interest etc. External factors which lead to selective selection are intensity of stimuli, its size, colour, movement, repetition and so on.
3. **Organization:** Stimuli are organized to give some meaning to them. There are three ways by which the selected stimuli's are organized. These ways are-grouping, closure, and simplification. Grouping is based on similarity and proximity of various perceived stimuli. Closure is used to fill the gaps in incomplete information to make them more meaningful. Simplification is used to make the information more meaningful and understandable. It can be said that, this is the process of placing selected perceptual stimuli into a framework for "storage".
4. **Interpretation:** The information collected and organized remains useless, until some meaning is attached to it. Interpretation is the most important element of the entire perceptual process. The information collected and organized makes no sense without interpretation. Interpretation is basically assigning meaning.
5. **Response:** It is last element in the perceptual process. It is the end resulr of entire perceptual process. The action may be positive or negative. Action may also be overt or covert. An overt action is easily visible and covert action relates to change in attitudes, opinions, feelings, impressions etc.

Frequently used shortcuts in judging others

1. Selective perception: People selectively interpret what they see on the basis of their interests, background, experience and attitudes. You are more likely to notice cars like your own or why some people may be reprimanded by their boss for doing something that, when done by another employee, goes unnoticed. Since we can't observe everything going on about us, we engage in selective perception.

   A group's perception of organizational activities is selectively altered to align with the vested interests they represent. In other words, when the stimuli are ambiguous, as in the steel company case, perception tends to be influenced more by an individual's base on interpretation (i.e., attitudes, interests and background) than by the stimulus itself.

   Selective perception allows us to "Speed-read" others, but not without the risk of drawing an inaccurate picture because we see what we want to see, we can draw unwarranted conclusions from an ambiguous situation. If there is a rumour going around the office that your company's sales are down and that large layoffs may be coming, a routine visit by a senior executive from headquarters might be interpreted as the first step in management's identification of people to be fired, when in reality such an action may be furthest thing from the mind of the senior executive.
2. Halo Effect: Drawing a general impression about an individual on the basis of a single characteristic. This phenomenon frequently occurs when students appraise their classroom instructor. Students may give prominence to a single trait such as enthusiasm and allow their entire evaluation to be tainted by how they judge the instructor on that one trait. Thus, an instructor may be quiet, assured, knowledgeable, and highly qualified, but if his style lacks zeal, those students would probably give him a low rating.

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3. **Contrast Effects:** Evaluations of person's characteristics that are affected by comparisons with other people recently encountered who rank higher or lower on the same characteristics. An illustration of how contrast effects operate is an interview situation in which one sees a pool of job applications. Distortions in any given candidate's evaluation can occur as a result of his or her place in the interview schedule. The candidate is likely to receive a more favourable evaluation if preceded by mediocre applicants and less favourable evaluation if preceded by strong applicants.
4. **Projection:** Attributing one's own characteristics to other people. If you are honest and trustworthy, so you take it for granted that other people are equally honest and trustworthy. People who engage in projection tend to perceive others according to what they themselves are like rather than according to what the person being observed is really like. When observing others who actually are like them, these observes are quiet accurate; not because they perceptive but because they always judge people as being similar to themselves. So when they do find someone who is like them, they are naturally correct.
5. **Stereo Typing:** Judging someone on the basis of one's perception of the group to which that person belongs. It's less difficult to deal with an unmanageable number of stimuli if we use stereotypes. As an example, assume you're a sales manager looking to fill a sales position in your territory. You want to hire someone who is ambitious and hardworking and who can deal well with adversity. You've had good success in the past by hiring individuals who participated in athletics during college. So you focus your search by looking for candidates who participated in collegiate athletics. In so doing, you have cut down considerably on your search time. Furthermore, to the extent that athletes are ambitious, hardworking, and able to deal with adversity, the use of this stereotype can improve your decision making. The problem is when we inaccurately stereotype. All college athletes are not necessarily ambitious, hardworking or good at dealing with adversity. In organizations, we frequently hear comments that represent stereotypes based on gender, age, race, ethnicity, and even weight. "Women won't relocate for a promotion", "men are not interested in child care", "old workers can't learn new skills", "Asian immigrants are hardworking and conscientious", "overweight people lack discipline." From a perceptual standpoint, if people expect to see these stereotypes, that are what they will perceive, whether they are accurate or not.

2.7 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PERCEIVER:

Several characteristics of the perceiver can affect perception. When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she stands: or, that interpretation is heavily influence by personal characteristics of the individual perceiver. The major characteristics of the perceiver influencing perception are:

a) **Attitudes:** The perceiver's attitudes affect perception. For example, suppose Mr. X is interviewing candidates for a very important position in his organization a position that requires negotiating contracts with suppliers, most of whom are male. Mr. X may feel that women are not capable of holding their own in tough negotiations. This attitude will doubtless affect his perceptions of the female candidates he interviews.

b) **Moods:** Moods can have a strong influence on the way we perceive someone. We think differently when we are happy. In addition, we remember information that is consistent with our mood state better than information that is inconsistent with our mood state. When in a positive mood, we form more positive impressions of others. When in a negative mood, we tend to evaluate others unfavorably.

c) **Motives:** Unsatisfied needs or motives stimulate individuals and may exert a strong influence on their perceptions. For example, in an organizational context, a boss who is insecure perceives a subordinate's efforts to do an outstanding job as a threat to his or her own position. Personal insecurity can be translated into the perception that others are out to "get my job", regardless of the intention of the subordinates.

d) **Self-Concept:** Another factor that can affect social perception is the perceivers' self-concept. An individual with a positive self-concept tends to notice positive attributes in another person. In contrast, a negative self-concept can lead a perceiver to pick out negative traits in another person. Greater understanding of self allows us to have more accurate perceptions of others.

e) **Interest:** The focus of our attention appears to be influenced by our interests. Because our individual interests differ considerably, what one person notices in a situation can differ from what others perceive. For example, the supervisor who has just been reprimanded by his boss for coming late is more likely to notice his colleagues coming late tomorrow than he did last week. If you are preoccupied with a personal problem, you may find it hard to be attentive in class.

f) **Cognitive Structure:** Cognitive structure, an individual's pattern of thinking, also affects perception. Some people have a tendency to perceive physical traits, such as height, weight, and appearance, more readily. Others tend to focus more on central traits, or personality dispositions. Cognitive complexity allows a person to perceive multiple characteristics of another person rather than attending to just a few traits.

g) **Expectations:** Finally, expectations can distort your perceptions in that you will see what you expect to see.

2.8 VALUES AND ATTITUDES

VALUES:

Value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conducts or end state of existence is Personally and socially preferable to the alternative modes of conduct or end states of existence. Once it is internalized, it becomes consciously or unconsciously, a standard or criterion for guiding action, for developing and maintaining attitudes toward relevant objects and situation, for justifying one's own and others actions and attitudes for morally judging oneself and others, and for comparing oneself with others. Value, therefore, is a standard or yardstick to guide actions, attitudes, evaluations and justifications of the self and others.

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

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

Individuals learn values as they grow and mature. They may change over the life span of an individual, as they develop a sense of self cultures, societies, and organizations shape values. Values are important to the study of organizational behavior because they lay the foundation for the understanding of attitudes and motivation and because they influence our perceptions.

1. **Formation of Values**

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

2. **Types of Values**

All Port and his associates categorized values into six types.

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

3. **Instrumental and Terminal Values**

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

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

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

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

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

TERMINAL VALUE	INSTRUMENTAL VALUE
1. Comfortable life (a prosperous life)	1. Ambitious (hardworking)
2. An exciting life (a stimulating, active a spiring life)	2. Broad-minded (open-minded)
3. A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)	3. Capable (competent effective)
4. A world of peace (free of war and conflict)	4. Cheerful (light-heated, joyful)
5. A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)	5. Clean (neat, tidy)
6. Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)	6. Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)
7. Family security (taking care of loved ones)	7. Forgiving (willing to pardon others)
8. Freedom(independence, free choice)	8. Helpful (working for the welfare of others)
9. Happiness (contentedness)	9. Honest (sincere. truthful)
10. Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)	10. Imaginative (daring, creative)
11. Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)	11. Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)
12. National security (protection from attack)	12. Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)
13. Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)	13. Logical (consistent, rational)
14. Salvation (saved, eternal life)	14. Loving (affectionate tender)

15. Self-respect (self-esteem)	15. Obedient (dutiful, respectful)
16. Social recognition (respect, admiration)	16. Polite (courteous, well mannered)
17. True friendship (close companionship)	17. Responsible (dependable, reliable)
	18. Self-controlled (restrained, self

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

1) **Achievement:** Achievement is a concern for the advancement of one's career. This is shown in such behaviors as working hard and seeking opportunities to develop new skills.
2) **Honesty:** Honesty is, accurately providing information and refusing to mislead others for Personnel gain.
3) **Fairness:** Fairness emphasizes impartiality and recognizes different points of view.

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

CONTEMPORARY ETHICAL ISSUES IN ORGANIZATIONS:

In contemporary organizations, people face ethical and moral dilemmas in many diverse areas. The key areas are:

i. **White-Collar Crime:** - Corporate criminal behaviors have resulted in big financial scandals. White-collar crime may occur in more subtle forms as well. Using work hours for conducting Personnel business, sending out Personnel mail using the company resources, inflating expenses, etc., is all practices some individuals would consider unethical. Whether the impact is large or small, white-collar crimes are important issues in organizations.

ii. **Employee Rights:** - Managing the rights of employees at work creates many ethical dilemmas in organizations. Some of those dilemmas are privacy issues, drug testing, etc. The use of employee data from computerized information systems presents many ethical concerns. Safeguarding employee's right to privacy and at the same time restricting access to sensitive data only to those who need it requires that the manager judiciously balances competing interests.

iii. **Sexual Harassment:** - Sexual harassment is unwelcome. Sexual attention, whether verbal or physical, that affects an employee's job conditions or creates a hostile working environment. Sexual harassment costs the company in the form of absenteeism, turnover, and loss of productivity. Companies may be required to pay damages to victims of sexual harassment. Besides, the company may face negative publicity because of sexual harassment cases.

iv. **Romantic Involvements:** - Hugging, kissing, sexual innuendos, and repeated requests for dates may constitute sexual harassment for some, but they are prelude to romance for others. This situation carries with it, a different set of ethical dilemmas for organizations. Conflicts occur within an organization when romantic involvements at work become disruptive. Moreover, employers are liable for acts of their employees and can thus be held liable for sexual harassment. Other employees might claim that the subordinate who is romantically involved with the supervisor gets preferential treatment. Romantic involvements at work can create a conflict of interest. A comprehensive

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policy should require anyone who might be experiencing a conflict of interest to report it to his or her manager. The policy should also include an explanation of how unwelcome romantic advances can turn into sexual harassment.

v. **Organizational Justice:** Another area in which moral and ethical dilemmas may arise for people at work concerns organizational justice, both distributive and procedural.

   a) **Distributive Justice:** Concerns the fairness of outcomes meted out to individuals.

   b) **Procedural Justice:** Concerns the fairness of the process by which outcomes is allocated.

The ethical questions here do not concern the just or unjust distribution of organizational resources. Rather, the ethical questions in procedural justice concern the process. Has the organization used the correct procedures in allocating resources? Have the right considerations such as competence and skill, been brought to bear in the decision process?

ATTITUDE

Meaning and Definition:

Attitude is a relatively permanent organizing or cognitive, perceptual, emotional, and motivational process with respect to some aspect of our environment. It is primarily a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object. Thus, an attitude is the way we think, feel and act toward some aspect of our environment. An attitude may be defined as a tendency to react positively or negatively in regard to an object. Attitudes are evaluative statements or judgments- either favourable or unfavourable- concerning objects, people or events.

According to Bem, 'Attitudes are likes and dislikes'.

According to Engel, 'Attitudes are an overall evaluation that allows one to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object or alternative'.

According to Allport, *Attitude is "learned predispositions to respond to an object or class of object in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way."*

A definition of attitude popularized by cognitively oriented social psychologists is, "an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive process with respect to some aspect of the individual's world.

Three Components of Attitudes:

According to above views, attitudes as being made up of three components:

1) Cognitive component.
2) Affective component and
3) Behavioral component.

   1) **Cognitive Component:** This component includes the beliefs an individual has about a certain person, object, or situation. The belief that "discrimination is wrong" is a value statement. Such an opinion is the cognitive component of an attitude. Learned beliefs, such as "you need to work long hours to get ahead in this job", lead to attitudes that have an impact on behavior in the workplace. The cognition component of an

attitude reflects a person's perceptions or beliefs. Cognitive elements are evaluative beliefs and are measured by attitude scales or by asking about thoughts. The statement "I believe Japanese workers are industrious," reflects the cognitive component of an attitude. The cognitive component sets the stage for the more critical part of attitude- its affective component.

2) **Affective Component:** This component refers to the person's feelings that result from his or her beliefs about a person, object or situation. A person who believes that hard work earns promotions may feel anger or frustration when he or she works hard but is not promoted. The affective component becomes stronger as an individual has more frequent and direct experience with a focal object, person or situation. 'Affect' is the emotional component of an attitude. It refers to an individual's feeling about something or someone. Statements such as "I like this" or "I prefer that" reflect the affective component of an attitude. Affect is measured by physiological indicators such as galvanic skin response (changes in electrical resistance of skin which indicate emotional arousal) and blood pressure. These indicators show changes in emotions by measuring physiological arousal. If an individual is trying to hide his or her feelings, this might be shown by a change in arousal.

3) **Behavioral Component:** This component refers to the individual's behavioral that occurs as a result of his or her feeling about the focal person, object or situation. An individual may complain, request a transfer, or be less productive because he or she feels dissatisfied with work. The behavioral component of an attitude refers to an intention to behave in a certain way toward someone or something. The behavioral component is the intention to behave in a certain way towards an object or person. For example, our attitudes towards women in management may be inferred from an observation of the way we behave toward a female supervisor. We may be supportive, passive or hostile depending on our attitude. The behavioral component of an attitude is measured by observing behavior or by asking a person about behavior or intentions.

Importance of Employee Attitudes:

- Employee attitudes are important to organizations. When attitudes are negative or unfavorable, they are symptom of the underlying problem, and a contributing cause of forthcoming difficulties in an organization.
- Declining attitudes may result in strikes, work slowdown, absenteeism, and employee turnover. They can be a part of grievances, low performance, poor product quality and shabby customer services, employee theft and disciplinary problems.
- The organizational costs associated with poor employee attitudes may severally reduce its bottom-line competitiveness.
- Favourable attitudes, on the other hand, are desired by management because they tend to be connected with some of the positive outcomes that managers want. Employee satisfaction along with high productivity is a hallmark of well-managed organizations.
- Effective behavioural management that continuously works to build a supportive human climate in the organization can help produce favourable attitudes.

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Characteristics of Attitudes:

1) **Attitudes have an Object:** Attitudes must have an object. That is, they must have a focal point whethet it be an abstract concept, such as "ethical behaviour", or a tangible item, such as a motorcycle. The object can be a physical thing, such as a product, or it can be an action, such as buying a lawnmower. In addition, the object can be either one item, such as a person, or a collection of items such as a social group.
2) **Attitudes have direction, degree and intensity:** An attitude expresses how a person feels towards an object. It expresses
   a) Direction- The person is either favorable or unfavorable toward, or for against the object.
   b) Degree- How much the person either likes or dislikes the object.
   c) Intensity- The level of sureness or confidence of expression about the object, or how strongly a person feels about his or her conviction.

   Although degree and intensity might seem the same and are related, they are not synonymous.
3) **Attitudes have structure:** Attitudes display organization, which means that they have internal consistency and possess inter-attitudinal centrality. They also tend to be stable, to have varying degrees of salience, and to be generalizable.
4) **Attitudes are learned:** Learning precedes attitude formation and change. Attitudes are also derived from both direct and indirect experiences in life.

Types of Attitudes:

1) **Job satisfaction:** The term job satisfaction refers to an individual's general attitude towards his or her job. A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes towards the job, while a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds negative attitudes about the job.
2) **Job involvement:** The degree, to which a person identifies with his or her job, actively participates in it and considers his or her performance important to self-worth.
3) **Organizational commitment:** The degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organization.

ATTITUDE FORMATION

Attitudes are basically learned. People are not born with specific attitudes; rather they acquire them through the "process of sources of attitudes is learning". Attitudes reflect a person's previous reinforcement history.

The sources of a person's attitude are a mixture of

1) **Personal Experiences:** People form attitudes by coming in directly contact with an attitude object. By the time a person goes for work in a specified organization, he holds many attitudes towards the type of the job that is acceptable to him, the expected pay, working conditions and supervision. Through job experiences they develop attitudes about such factors as salary, performance reviews, job design, work group, affiliation and managerial capabilities etc. Previous work experience can account for the individual differences in attitudes such as loyalty, commitments, performance etc. Many

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managers in work organizations frequently notice these differences in attitudes.

2) **Association:** People are highly influenced by the major groups or associations to which they belong. Geographic region, religion, educational background, race, sex, age and income-class all strongly influence attitudes. The nearer the group the stronger is the group influence on the attitudes of the individual.

3) **Family:** Family is the primary group that an individual belongs to. Family exerts influence on the initial core of attitudes held by an individual. Individuals develop certain attitudes from family members-parents, brothers, sisters etc. The family characteristics influence the individual's early attitude patterns. Researchers have found a high degree of relationship between parents and children in attitudes than they found between children and their peers. They also empirically observed low correlation between attitudes of the children and their teachers.

4) **Peer groups and society:** As people approach their adulthood, they increasingly rely on their peer groups for approval/attitude. How others judge an individual largely determine his self-image and approval-seeking behavior. Social class and religious affiliation also play vital role in forming attitudes of an individual. The culture, language, and the structure of society, all provide an individual with the boundaries of his initial attitudes.

5) **Models:** Some of the attitudes are developed through imitation of models. The process is something like this: In a particular situation, we see how another person behaves. We correctly or incorrectly interpret his behavior as representing certain attitudes and beliefs. If we identify with him and respect his judgment, we tend to accept his way of perceiving and feeling about the situation. Children are often quiet observant about how their parents react to different people and situations. They learn by watching whom their parent's respect, which they treat with condescension, whom they regard as friends, and whom they dislike. Such evaluations may be acquired without the child's directly interacting with such people.

6) **Institutional factors:** Many institutional factors function as sources and support of our attitudes and beliefs. For example, consider the description of a certain temple Aarti. When the people come into this temple, they bow down to pray, sit with heads bowed. Their clothes are clean and freshly washed. When the pujari signals and is with Aarti all start singing bhajan and clap. The entire process is devoted to ritual. From this we can get an idea as to the general character of the religious attitudes and beliefs. There is implicit attitude of reverence, an orientation toward a deity, a ritualized rather than spontaneous expression of feeling, a sharp differentiation between Pujari and devotees and so on. The different parts of the institution- the architecture, furnishes, people's clothing, and behavior- have a meaning which fits in with certain beliefs and attitudes. There are many other institutions in our society- schools, military organizations, and the like- which also function as sources and supports of attitudes and beliefs.

2.9 MOTIVATION

The word motivation is coined from the Latin word "movere", which means to move. Motivation is defined as an internal drive that activates behaviour and gives it direction. The term 'motivation theory' is concerned with the processes that describe why and how human behaviour is activated and directed. It is regarded as one of the most important areas of study in the field of organizational behaviour.

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Motivation is an art of stimulating people to get the desired things done. A motive is a need or desire which stimulates and directs human behaviour. It is possible only when their needs are satisfied through proper incentive or rewards. Human behaviour is thus, result of needs, desires and wants. Motivation involves the creation of a positive will and desire among the workers to do their work in the best manner. The term motivation has been defined by many eminent authors as follows.

Michael, J. Jucius, *"Motivation is the act of stimulating someone or oneself to get a desired course of action, to push the right button to get the desired reaction."*

Dale, S. Beach, *"Motivation can be defined as a willingness to expand energy to achieve a goal or a reward."*

D.E. Mc. Farland, *"The concept of motivation is mainly psychological. It relates to those forces operating within the individual employees or subordinates which compel them to act or not to act in certain ways."*

On the basis of analytical study of above definitions it may be concluded that motivation is a process which inspires the human efforts of an organization to perform their duties in the best possible manner so that the predetermined objectives of the enterptise may be achieved. Motivation is the emotion or desire of an employee that inspires him to act or not to act in certain ways.

Elements or characteristics of motivation:

1. **Incentive:** Motivation is the incentive of employees. It is a personal and natural feeling of the mind of the employees. This feeling arise in the mind of an individual. In fact an individual is inspired to make his efforts to satisfy the needs of his life.
2. **Unending Process:** Motivation is an unending process. Human needs are unlimited and people always feel a need. To satisfy these needs, the person must always be inspired with the incentives for work. Satisfaction of one need lead the feeling of another one and this process never ends.
3. **Psychological Concept:** Motivation is a psychological concept. It develops the mental and motivation power of an individual and motivates him to do more and better.
4. **Power to Act:** Motivation is a power to act. It inspires an individual to work. Feeling of a need creates tension and a person wants to work to satisfy his need. When the need is satisfied, the persons feel motivated to work for the achievement of common goals.
5. **Increase in Efficiency:** Motivation increases the efficiency of an individual. He uses his ability and efficiency to the best possible extent which increases his efficiency. Motivation increases the quantity and quality of production.
6. **Increase in Morale:** Morale is a group feeling. Motivation motivates the employees work with the co-operation of others. Thus, motivation is helpful in increasing the morale of the employees.

Aims or objectives of motivation:

1. To motivate the employees to do more work.
2. To satisfy the economic, social and psychological needs of the employees.
3. To develop human relations in the enterprise.
4. To increase the morale of employees.
5. To increase the efficiency of employees.

Check Your Progress

4. Explain the term Values and Attitude.
5. Define Motivation.
6. What do you mean by Job satisfaction?

6. To get the co-operation of employees.
7. To establish sweet relations between labour and capital.
8. To get the maximum exploitation of human resources.
9. To achieve the objectives of enterprise.

Factors affecting motivation:

Factors affecting motivation may be divided into following parts:

1. **Monetary Incentives:** Monetary incentives are direct incentives provided to the employees of an enterprise. It includes the following incentives: (a) Proper wage or salary (b) Bonus (c) Overtime (d) Monetary rewards and (5) Interests on investments. Monetary incentives satisfy the basic needs of employees.
2. **Non- Monetary Incentives:** Monetary incentives are not sufficient to ensure more and better work by employees. Non-Monetary incentives are also provided to them to motivate them in the right direction. Such incentives motivate them to do more and more work. Following factors are included under this category: (a) Safety of work (b) Appraisal of work (c) Honour of employees (d) Behavior with employees (e) Opportunities of promotion (f) Delegation of authorities (g) To increase the feelings and suggestions of employees (h) To launch welfare schemes for the employees like housing facilities, medical facilities, recreation facilities, education facilities, insurance etc. (i) Co-partnership in management.

Importance of motivation

Motivation is a very important for an organization because of the following benefits it provides:-

1. **Puts human resources into action** : Every concern requires physical, financial and human resources to accomplish the goals. It is through motivation that the human resources can be utilized by making full use of it. This can be done by building willingness in employees to work. This will help the enterprise in securing best possible utilization of resources.
2. **Improves level of efficiency of employees** : The level of a subordinate or a employee does not only depend upon his qualifications and abilities. For getting best of his work performance, the gap between ability and willingness has to be filled which helps in improving the level of performance of subordinates. This will result into-
    a. Increase in productivity,
    b. Reducing cost of operations, and
    c. Improving overall efficiency.
3. **Leads to achievement of organizational goals** : The goals of an enterprise can be achieved only when the following factors take place:
    i) There is best possible utilization of resources,
    ii) There is a co-operative work environment,
    iii) The employees are goal-directed and they act in a purposive manner,
    iv) Goals can be achieved if co-ordination and co-operation takes place simultaneously which can be effectively done through motivation.
4. **Builds friendly relationship** : Motivation is an important factor which brings

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employees satisfaction. This can be done by keeping into mind and framing an incentive plan for the benefit of the employees. In order to build a cordial, friendly atmosphere in a concern, the above steps should be taken by a manager. This would help in:

- Effective co-operation which brings stability,
- Industrial dispute and unrest in employees will reduce,
- The employees will be adaptable to the changes and there will be no resistance to the change,
- This will help in providing a smooth and sound concern in which individual interests will coincide with the organizational interests,
- This will result in profit maximization through increased productivity.

5. **Leads to stability of work force** : Stability of workforce is very important from the point of view of reputation and goodwill of a concern. The employees can remain loyal to the enterprise only when they have a feeling of participation in the management. The skills and efficiency of employees will always be of advantage to employees as well as employees. This will lead to a good public image in the market which will attract competent and qualified people into a concern. As it is said, "Old is gold" which suffices with the role of motivation here, the older the people, more, the experience and their adjustment into a concern which can be of benefit to the enterprise.

Motivation is important to an individual as:

- Motivation will help him achieve his personal goals.
- If an individual is motivated, he will have job satisfaction.
- Motivation will help in self-development of individual.
- An individual would always gain by working with a dynamic team.

Similarly, **motivation is important to a business as:**

- The more motivated the employees are, the more empowered the team is.
- The more is the team work and individual employee contribution, more profitable and successful is the business.
- During period of amendments, there will be more adaptability and creativity.
- Motivation will lead to an optimistic and challenging attitude at work place.

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

ABRAHAM MASLOW'S "NEED HIERARCHY THEORY"

One of the most widely mentioned theories of motivation is the hierarchy of needs theory put forth by psychologist Abraham Maslow. Maslow saw human needs in the form of a hierarchy, ascending from the lowest to the highest, and he concluded that when one set of needs is satisfied, this kind of need ceases to be a motivator.

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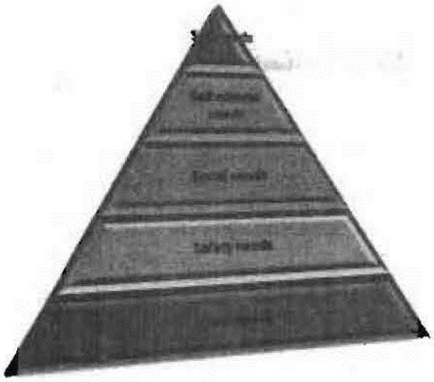


A. **Physiological needs:** These are important needs for sustaining the human life. Food, water, warmth, shelter, sleep, medicine and education are the basic physiological needs which fall in the primary list of need satisfaction. Maslow was of an opinion that until these needs were satisfied to a degree to maintain life, no other motivating factors can work.

B. **Security or Safety needs:** These are the needs to be free of physical danger and of the fear of losing a job, property, food or shelter. It also includes protection against any emotional harm.

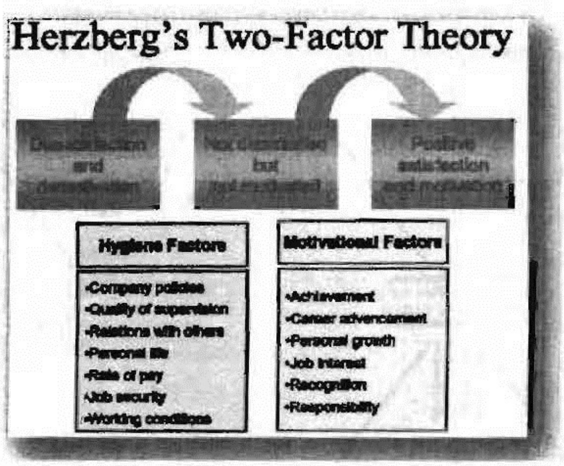
C. **Social needs:** Since people are social beings, they need to belong and be accepted by others. People try to satisfy their need for affection, acceptance and friendship.

D. **Esteem needs:** According to Maslow, once people begin to satisfy their need to belong, they tend to want to be held in esteem both by themselves and by others. This kind of need produces such satisfaction as power, prestige status and self-confidence. It includes both internal esteem factors like self-respect, autonomy and achievements and external esteem factors such as states, recognition and attention.

E. **Need for self-actualization:** Maslow regards this as the highest need in his hierarchy. It is the drive to become what one is capable of becoming, it includes growth, achieving one's potential and self-fulfillment. It is to maximize one's potential and to accomplish something.

2.10 FREDERICK HERZBERG'S MOTIVATION-HYGIENE THEORY

Frederick has tried to modify Maslow's need Hierarchy theory. His theory is also known as **Two-factor theory or Hygiene theory.** He stated that there are certain satisfiers and dissatisfies for employees at work.



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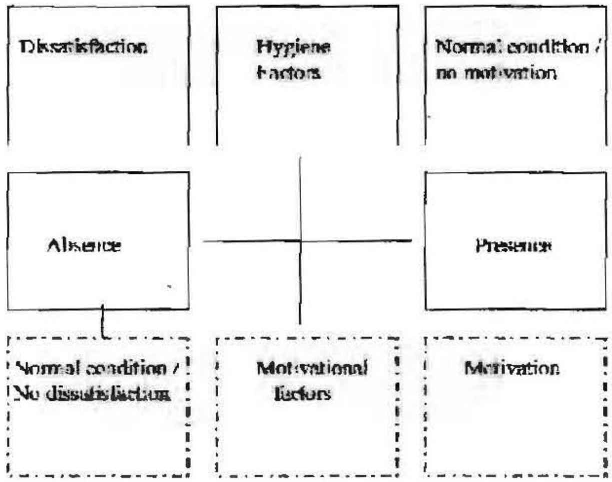
Intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors are associated with dissatisfaction. He devised his theory on the question: "What do people want from their jobs?" He asked people to describe in detail, such situations when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad. From the responses that he received, he concluded that opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction. **Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make** the job **satisfying**. He states that presence of certain factors in the organization is natural and the presence of the same does not lead to motivation. However, their non-presence leads to de-motivation. In similar manner there are certain factors, the absence of which causes no dissatisfaction, but their presence has motivational impact.

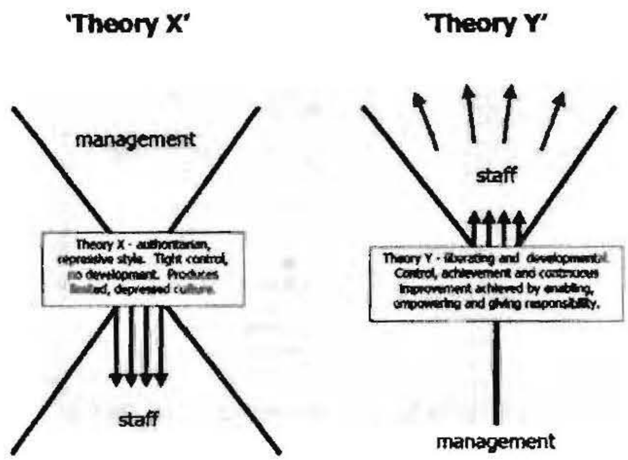


Examples of Hygiene factors are: Security, status, relationship with subordinates, personal life, salary, work conditions, relationship with supervisor and company policy and administration.

Examples of Motivational factors are: Growth prospectus job advancement, responsibility, challenges, recognition and achievements

"THEORY X AND THEORY Y" OF DOUGLAS MCGREGOR

McGregor, in his book "The Human side of Enterprise" states that people inside the organization can be managed in two ways. The first is basically negative, which falls under the category X and the other is basically positive, which falls under the category Y. After viewing the way in which the manager dealt with employees, McGregor concluded that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on a certain grouping of assumptions and that he or she tends to mold his or her behavior towards subordinates according to these assumptions.



Under the assumptions of theory X:

- Employees inherently do not like work and whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.
- Because employees dislike work, they have to be forced, coerced or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.
- Employees avoid responsibilities and do not work fill formal directions are issued.
- Most workers place a greater importance on security over all other factors and display little ambition.

In contrast under the assumptions of theory Y:

- Physical and mental effort at work is as natural as rest or play.
- People do exercise self-control and self-direction and if they are committed to those goals.
- Average human beings are willing to take responsibility and exercise imagination, ingenuity and creativity in solving the problems of the organization.
- That the way the things are organized, the average human being's brainpower is only partly used.

On analysis of the assumptions it can be detected that theory X assumes that lower-order needs dominate individuals and theory Y assumes that higher-order needs dominate individuals. An organization that is run on Theory X lines tends to be authoritarian in nature, the word "authoritarian" suggests such ideas as the "power to enforce obedience" and the "right to command." In contrast Theory Y organizations can be described as "participative", where the aims of the organization and of the individuals in it are integrated; individuals can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts towards the success of the organization.

Vroom's Valence x Expectancy theory

The most widely accepted explanation of motivation has been propounded by **Victor Vroom.**

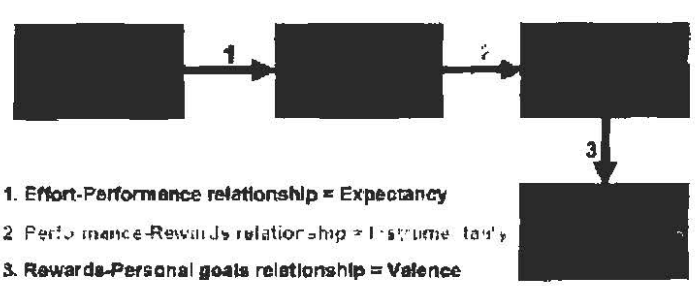
His theory is commonly known as *expectancy theory.* The theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a specific way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual to make this simple, expectancy theory says that an employee can be motivated to perform better when there is a belief that the better performance will lead to good performance appraisal and that this shall result into realization of personal goal in form of some reward. Therefore;

<u>Motivation = Valence x Expectancy</u>

This leads us to a conclusion that:

Expectancy Theory

(Vroom)



The theory focuses on three things:

- Efforts and performance relationship
- Performance and reward relationship
- Rewards and personal goal relationship

2.11 MOTIVATING EMPLOYEES IN ORGANIZATIONS

A number of motivation theories have been discussed above. Based on these theories, the following suggestions summarize the essence about motivating employees in organizations.

- Recognize individual differences - Employees have different needs. Therefore, managers need to understand what is important to each employee. This will allow individualizing goals, level of involvement, and rewards to align with individual needs.
- Use goals and feedback - Employees should have tangible and specific goals. Feedback should also be provided regularly to inform the employees about their performance in pursuit of those goals.
- Include employees in decision-making - Employees should be included in making decisions that affect them, for example, choosing their own benefits, solving productivity and quality problems.

2.12 MOTIVATIONAL TOOLS

Some of the most important motivational tools have been discussed below:

- **Management by Objective (MBO)** - Management by objectives emphasizes participatively set goals that are tangible, verifiable, and measurable. Four ingredients common to MBO programmes are: goal specificity, participative decision-making, an explicit time period, and performance feedback (Robbins, 2003).
- **Goal specificity** - The objectives in MBO should be concise statements of expected accomplishments.
- **Participative decision making** - The manager and employee jointly choose the goals and agree on how they will be measured. An explicit time period - Each objective has a specific time period in which it is to be completed.
- **Performance feedback** - Continuous feedback on progress toward goals is provided so that workers can monitor and correct their own actions.

MBO and Goal-Setting Theory are closely linked. Goal-setting theory proposes that tangible goals result in a higher level of individual performance than do easy goals. Feedback on one's performance leads to higher performance. MBO also directly advocates specific goals and feedback, implies that goals must be perceived as feasible and is most effective when the goals are difficult enough to require stretching.

EMPLOYEE RECOGNITION PROGRAMMES

Employee recognition programmes consist of personal attention, expressing interest, approval, and appreciation for a job well done. They can take numerous forms. Employee Recognition Programmes has close link with Reinforcement Theory. Both the concept advocates that rewarding a behavior with recognition would lead to its repetition. Recognition can take many forms, such as, personally congratulating an employee, sending a handwritten note or an e-mail message or declaring the employee as a valuable contributor to the organizational objective.

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EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT PROGRAMME

Employee involvement includes participative management, workplace democracy, empowerment, and employee ownership. Employees' involvement in the decision making would positively affect them and by increasing their autonomy and control over their work lives, employees will become more motivated, more committed to the organization, more productive, and more satisfied with their jobs.

Some forms of employee involvement have been discussed here: participative management, representative participation, quality circles, and employee stock ownership plans.

Participative management

Participative management is a process where subordinates share a significant degree of decision-making power with their immediate supervisors. The manager involves subordinates in decision making, consults with them about their views of the situation, asks for their suggestions, considers those suggestions in making a decision, and sometimes lets the subordinates make the decisions themselves.

The logic behind participative management is:

a) Managers often do not know everything their employees do.

b) Better decisions

c) Increased commitment to decisions

d) Intrinsically rewarding employees makes their jobs more interesting and meaningful.

The two most common forms of participative management are:

a) *Works councils* - They are groups of nominated or elected employees who must be consulted when management makes decisions. .

b) *Board representatives* - they are employees who sit on a company's board of directors and represent the interests of the firm's employees.

Quality circles (QC):

Quality Circles consist of a work group of eight to ten employees and supervisors who have a shared area of responsibility. Quality circles are small groups of employees who work voluntarily on company time to address quality-related problems such as quality control, cost reduction, production planning and techniques and even product design.

Key components of QC are (Robbins, 2003):

- They meet regularly on company time to discuss their quality problems, investigate causes of the problems, recommend solutions, and take corrective actions
- They take over the responsibility for solving quality problems and they generate and evaluate their own feedback.

Employee stock ownership plans (ESOPs):

Perhaps the ultimate reward to workers is for them, to own part of the organization. Employee stock ownership plans are company-established benefit plans in which employees acquire stock as part of their benefits ESOPs have the potential to increase employee job satisfaction and work motivation.

2.13 SPECIAL ISSUES IN MOTIVATION

Various groups of employees provide specific challenges in terms of motivation. Some of them are explained below

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1. **Motivating the Diversified Work Force:** Not everyone is motivated by money. The needs of women physically disabled and other diverse groups are not the same. If you are going to maximize your employees' motivation, you have got to understand and respond to this diversity. This can be done in the following ways:

   i) We should be ready to design work schedules, compensation plans, benefits, and physical work settings, etc., to reflect the employees' varied needs.

      - **Link rewards to performance** - Rewards should be contingent on performance and employees must perceive a clear linkage.

      - **Maintain equity** - Rewards should be perceived by employees as equating with the inputs they bring to the job, i.e.; experience, skills, abilities, effort, and other obvious inputs should explain differences in performance and, hence, pay, job assignments, and other obvious rewards.

   ii) Allowing employees who are going for further training to colleges to vary their work schedule.

   iii) Offering employees facilities like childcare, flexible work hours and job sharing for employees with family responsibilities.

   iv) For employees coming from other states /countries providing them flexible leave possibilities to enable them to go home for extensive periods.

2. **Motivating Temporary Workers:** Temporary workers may be motivated in the following ways:

   i) When there is a system whereby permanent employees are selected from a pool of temporary employees, the latter will often work hard in hopes of becoming permanent.

   ii) The ability of a temporary employee to find a new job is largely dependent on his or her skills. Therefore, temporary employees may be provided with the opportunity for training.

   iii) When temporary employees work alongside permanent employees who earn more pay for doing the same job, they are likely to be demotivated. Separating such employees might help to lessen this problem.

3. **Motivating Professionals:** Professionals have a strong and long-term commitment to their field of expertise. Their loyalty is more often to their profession than to their employer. These professionals receive a great deal of intrinsic satisfaction from their work. They may be motivated in the following ways:

   i) Their loyalty is towards their profession. To keep current in their fields, they need to regularly update their knowledge. Therefore, providing them opportunities for training and development is one sure way of motivating them. Reward them with educational opportunities - staging workshops, attending conferences - that allow them to keep current in their field.

ii) The chief reward of a professional is the job itself. They prefer challenging jobs. Therefore, provide them with ongoing challenging projects.

iii) Professionals want others to think what they are working-on is important. Therefore, ask questions and engage in other actions that demonstrate that you are sincerely interested in what they are doing.

2.14 JOB SATISFACTION:

Measuring Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the sense of fulfillment and pride felt by people who enjoy their work and do it well. For an organization, satisfied work force ensures commitment to high quality performance and increased productivity. Job satisfaction helps organizations to reduce complaints and grievances, absenteeism, turnover, and termination. Job satisfaction is also linked to a healthier work force and has been found to be a good indicator of longevity. And although only little correlation has been found between job satisfaction and productivity, it has also been found that satisfying or delighting employees is a prerequisite to satisfying or delighting customers, thus protecting the "bottom line (Brown, 1996).

The most important factors conductive to job satisfaction are:

i) **Mentally Challenging Work:** Employees tend to prefer jobs that give them opportunities to use their skills and abilities and offer a variety of tasks, freedom and feedback on how well they are doing. Under conditions of moderate challenge, most employees will experience pleasure and satisfaction.

ii) **Personality-Job Fit:** People with personality types congruent with their chosen vocations should find they have the right talents and abilities to meet the demands of their jobs; and because of this success, they have a greater probability of achieving high satisfaction from their work. It is important, therefore, to fit personality factors with job profiles.

iii) **Equitable** Rewards: Employees want pay systems and promotion policies that they perceive as being just, unambiguous, and in line with their expectations. When pay is seen as fair based on job demands, individual skill level, and industry pay standards, satisfaction is likely to result. Similarly, employees seek fair promotion policies and practices. Promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, more responsibilities and increased social status. Individuals who perceive that promotion decisions are made in a fair and just manner are likely to experience job satisfaction.

iv) **Supportive working conditions:** Employees prefer physical conditions that are comfortable and facilitate doing a good job. Temperature, light, noise and other environmental factors should not be extreme and provide personal comfort. Further, employees prefer working relatively close to home, in clean and relatively modern facilities and with adequate tools and equipment.

v) Supportive Colleagues: Employees have need for social interaction Therefore, having friendly and supportive co-workers and understanding supervisor's leads to increased job satisfaction. Most employees want their immediate supervisor to be understanding and friendly, those who offer praise for good performance, listen to employees' opinions and show a personal interest in them.

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vi) **Whistle blowing:** Whistle-blowers are employees who inform authorities of wrong-doings of their companies or co workers. Whistle blowing is important because committed organizational members sometimes engage in unethical behaviour in an intense desire to succeed. Organizations can manage whistle blowing by communicating the conditions that are appropriate for the disclosure of wrong-doing. Clearly delineating wrongful behavior and the appropriate ways to respond are important organizational actions.

vii) **Social Responsibility:** Corporate social responsibility is the obligation of an organization to behave in ethical ways in the social environment in which it operates. Socially responsible actions are expected of organizations. Current concerns include protecting the environment, promoting worker safety, supporting social issues, investing in the community, etc. Managers must encourage both individual ethical behaviour and organizational social responsibility.

Job enrichment

It is a deliberate upgrading of responsibility, scope, and challenge in the work itself. Job enrichment usually includes increased responsibility, recognition, and opportunities for growth, learning, and achievement. Large companies that have used job-enrichment programmes to increase employee's motivation and job satisfaction include AT&T, IBM, and General Motors (Daft, 1997).

Workers' role in job satisfaction

A worker should also take some responsibility for his or her job satisfaction. Everett (1995) proposed the following questions which employees ask themselves in regard to job satisfaction at the workplace.

1. When have I come closest to expressing my full potential in a work situation?
2. What did it look like?
3. What aspects of the workplace were most supportive?
4. What aspects of the work itself were most satisfying?
5. What did I learn from that experience that could be applied to the present situation?

The further suggestions can help a worker find personal job satisfaction:

1. Geek opportunities to demonstrate skills and talents.
2. Develop communication skills.
3. Acquire job related skills and try to implement them.
4. Demonstrate creativity and initiative.
5. Improve team building and leadership skill.
6. Learn to de-stress.

The ways of expressing job dissatisfaction

Job dissatisfaction is a negative feeling about one's job resulting from an evaluation of its characreristics. Job dissatisfaction is a reality in the workplace. The responses to job dissatisfaction according to Farrell (1983) are exit, voice, loyalty and neglect.

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In 2005, Robbins and Judge stated that job dissatisfaction is concerned with factors such as company policy, administration, supervision and salary. Since there are no perfect organizations, it is reasonable to state that high levels of dissatisfaction exist for some firms.

There are a number of ways in which employees can express dissatisfaction (Robbins, 2003). They are:

1. Exit 2. Voice
3. Loyalty 4. Neglect

1. **Exit**: Behaviour directed toward leaving the organization, actions like looking for a new position as well as resigning.
2. **Voice**: Actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions, including suggesting improvements, discussing problems with superiors, and some forms of union activity.
3. **Loyalty**: Passively, but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve, including standing up for the organization in the face of external criticism/ crisis, and reposing trust in the organization and its management to take the right decisions and set things in order.
4. **Neglect**: Passively allowing conditions to worsen, including chronic absenteeism or lateness, reduced effort, and increased error rate

CASE STUDY

Motivation is a complex subject, although it seems very interesting to all of us, but it has many facets for different people.

I have come across many such incidents during my tenure as HR professional at various companies. Some of them are very complicated and some are just the result of some or the other conflicts. If all the reader here have some knowledge on the topic of motivation, this case study would surely be of some value as well as interesting to read.

Motivation has many theories written by various authors, one such theory is Reward and Punishment theory also known as Theory X, another name of which is Carrot and stick. Here in this case our main focus will be on this THEORY X.

As a part of the company's Management Development Program, a group of managers from various functional areas have devoted several class sessions to a study of motivation theory and the relevence of such knowledge to the manager's responsbility for directing and controling the operations of his organizational unit.

One of the participant is Rohit sharma, who has been the supevisor of production department from last one year. During his past in the industrial unit he had no chance to attend any supevisory or development program and his duties have been concentrated on routine technical jobs.

The present plant mangager has seen Rohit grow from an apprentice to a supervisor and is yet to reconcile with the change of responsbilities and designation of Rohit Sharma.

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Rohit prepared the schedule on a particular day for all machines and on a specific machine, which was on a top priority from another established company. When Rohit came for his round he was surprised to find that the opretor had loaded some other job rather than the job of the company which is on priority.

Looking at this Rohit got annoyed and following conversation took place:

Rohit to operator – please do the job for the company that is on priority.

Operator – Plant manager has given me another job after that i will take up your work.

Rohit – I dont want to hear anything, plant manager has told me to stop everything else and take up the job of that company on priorty.

Operator – I have been taking up all the job immediately whenever you have asked. But what has been done regarding my increment which has been pending for over six months now.

Rohit - I'm not responsible for these problems related to increments, the Top Managment manages the decision on increment. I am helpless in this regard and suggest you to go and sort this problem with Plant Manager.

Operator - As a supervisor it is your duty to solve my problem as i report to you for all my work.

Rohit – Please do not tell me my duties and if you will not do this work on priority now, I would report this incidence as misbehaviour to the plant manager.

Operator replied in a threat to go on strike and complained about the less salary and increment he gets.

Now during a session of Motivation at Management Development Program, Rohit made the following comments:

"Motivation theory makes sense in general, but there is no opportunity for us to apply these concepts in job situation. After all our shop level employees are unionised and have job security. Motivation theories helps me get the work done from my kids, but in a working enviorment we are working with adults and it seems to me this reward and punishment thing smacks of manipulation that just would not go over with people".

So, now it has become a complicated situation as Rohit does not seems to be interested in the Motivational theories at all.

Does the incident that happened between Operator and Rohit Sharma left such a mark in his mind that he started feeling threatened with Unions and shop floor people??

2.15 SUMMARY:

- Behaviour is defined as the observable and measurable activity of human beings.
- The term personality is the role which the person (actor) displays in the public domain at large.

NOTES

- Personality is a dynamic concepr describing the growth and developmenr of a person's whole psychological system. It looks at some aggregate whole that is greater than the sum of the parts.
- Ability refers to an individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in a job.
- Learning is a continuous process. It occúrs all the time. Learning is a relatively change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience.
- Perception can be defined as a process by which individuals selecr, organize and interpret their sensory impressions, so as to give meaning to their environment.
- Attitude is a relatively permanent organizing or cognitive, perceptual, emotional, and motivational process with respect to some aspecr of our environment.
- Perception is the process which involves seeing, receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting and giving meaning to the environment. This meaning is built on past experiences and accumulated values.
- Motivation is defined as an internal drive that activates behaviour and gives it direction. The term 'motivation theory' is concerned with the processes thar describe why and how human behaviour is activated and directed.
- Job satisfaction is the sense of fulfilment and pride felt by people who enjoy their work and do it well. For an organization, satisfied work force ensures commitment to high quality performance and increased productivity.
- Job enrichment usually includes increased responsibility, recognition, and opportunities for growth, learning, and achievement.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Personality can be defined as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, arid behaviors in various situations.
2. Learning can be defined as a relatively permanent change in behavior as a result of prior experiences.
3. Perception is the process of receiving information, and making sense of world around us.
4. Value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally and socially preferable to the alternative modes of conduct or end states of existence. An attitude is the way we think, feel, and act towards some aspects of our environment.
5. Motivation is an art of stimulating people to get the desired things done.
6. Job satisfaction is the sense of fulfillment and pride felt by people who enjoy their work and do it well.

2.16 TEST YOURSELF :

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1) What Physiological factors affect an individual's behaviour?
2) Define Personality. Explain Freudian Theory of Personality.
3) What do you mean by Learning? Explain the chief Characteristics of learning.
4) What are principal elements of leaning?
5) Explain classical conditioning approach of learning.
6) What do you mean by operant conditioning approach of learning?
7) Explain Perception. What are general factors that influence individual's perception?
8) What do you understand by Attitude? What are the sources of person's attitude?
9) Define Motivation. What are the essential elements of motivation?
10) Explain Abraham Maslow's "Need Hierarchy Theory" of Motivation.

2.17 Reference

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2.18 FURTHER READING

- Organization Behaviour- L.M. Prasad.
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3 Emotional Intelligence

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The Chapter Covers :

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The study of emotional intelligence is gaining popularity in management literature because of its significant contribution to managerial effectiveness. According to the proponents of emotional intelligence, a person's emotional make-up largely determines his personal and professional success. They believe that emotional intelligence is the most important determinant of the extent of personal and professional success in life. They further argue that so many people with high mental intelligence fail whereas those with less intellectual endowment are extremely successful. This success is largely due to high emotional intelligence. Therefore, understanding of emotional intelligence and its application in organizations is essential for all those who want to understand the intricacies of dealing with people.

3.2 EMOTION:

In our day to day life we all come across the word "emotions". They are an important part of the human behavior and the interplay of emotions has a big impact on the organization behavior as well.

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These are the different emotions like joy, sorrow, excitement, disappointment, anger, love and fear, hope we often experience in our daily life, in the organization and can impel and direct people's behavior.

The word emotion is a composite formed from two Latin words, emote outward motion/movement, action, gesture. This classical formation refers to the motivational aspect that causes one to begin, continue, or end bodily movements from a source often hidden from conscious inspection though necessity even for rational actions. The scientific community applies the term to any creature's activity that exhibits complex response traits similar to that of a human. Alternatively some consider the outward movement to refer to immediacy of action rather than motivational source.

In general, the term 'emotion' is used to designate "a state of consciousness having to do with the arousal of feelings (Webster's New World Dictionary)." it is "distinguished from other mental states, cognition, volition, and awareness of physical sensation." Feeling refers to "any of the subjective reactions, pleasant or unpleasant" that one may experience in a situation.

Emotion is defined as subjective feelings accompanied by physiological change and usually associated with the change in perception, thinking and behavior.

Expressing and perception of emotions are quite important in our response to other people. When something untoward happens, a crisis or tragedy, people in the organization may not be able to work. Feeling anger, they may seek revenge or retribution.

Tone and other characteristics of the voice is also the channel fot the expression of emotions and the perception of emotion by others. Facial expressions are the most important non-verbal way in which emotions are manifested.

An emotion is a mental and physiological state associated with a wide variety of feelings, thoughts, and behavior. Emotions are subjective experiences, often associated with mood, temperament, petsonality, and disposition. The English word 'emotion' is derived from the French word emouvoir. This is based on the Latin emovere, where e- (variant of ex-) means 'out'.

1. A mental state that arises spontaneously rather than through conscious effort and is often accompanied by physiological changes; a feeling: The emotions of joy, sorrow, reverence, hate, and love.
2. A state of mental agitation or disturbance: spoke unsteadily in a voice that betrayed his emotion.
3. The part of the consciousness that involves telling; sensibility.

3.3 THEORIES OF EMOTION

The word emotion is a composite formed from two Latin words e(x)/out, outward + motion/movement, action, gesture. This classical formation refers to the motivational aspect that causes one to begin, continue, or end bodily movements from a source often hidden from conscious inspection though necessary even for rational actions. The scientific community applies the term to any creature's activity that exhibits complex response traits similar to that of a human. Alternatively some consider the outward movement to refer to immediacy of action rather than motivational source.

i. **James-Lange Theory** (1390) [cited in Taylor, 1999]: Subjective emotional responses are the result of physiological changes within human bodies. The brain perceives an event and, in turn, sends messages down its neural circuitry to other areas of the brain. This action ultimately produces motor, autonomic and endocrine responses. These responses elicit an emotional response, which in turn, is perceived by the brain. Therefore, it is a cyclical process. This theory argues that physiological behaviors precede the emotion.

ii. **Cannon-Barri theory** (1927') [cited in Taylor, 1999]: Emotion-provoking events induce the subjective emotional experiences and physiological arousal simultaneously. Through experiences, individuals begin to acquire certain expectations for every given situation. These expectations provide a filter and every situation is processed through this filter. During this process, brain produces the emotion and corresponding physiological behaviours at the same time.

iii. **Schachter-Singer theory** (1962): Both feedback from peripheral responses and a cognitive appraisal of what caused those responses produce emotions. How one interprets the peripheral response will determine the emotion he / she feel. Individuals label the emotional response depending on what we think is causing the response. For example, when someone interprets a stimulus as dangerous, it leads to physiological arousal. Then, this physiological arousal is interpreted to a particular emotion. It can be fear, surprise, excitement, and astonishment depending on how the arousal is labeled.

iv. **Lazarus' appraisal theory** (1980): An individual makes an initial and sometimes unconscious cognitive appraisal of the situation to decide, if there is a threat; coping action is taken if necessary; and the individual takes a closer look and identifies the emotions he or she is feeling.

v. **Weiner's: attribution theory** (1986, 1992): Certain attributions produce specific emotions. Once the initial evaluation has been made, the individual looks at what caused the event. These attributions of causality can modify the emotion felt. It is the interaction of the perceived internal and external causes, controllability and outcome that will determine the emotional responses. What are the basic emotions? Ortony and Turner (1990) collated a wide range of research as to what basic emotions are and the basis of including them as basic emotions and proposed a comprehensive description of basic emotions and corresponding reasons for inclusion.

Felt vs. Displayed Emotions (Hochschild, 1979, 1S83)

Felt emotions are an individual's actual emotions. Displayed emotions are those that are organizationally required and considered appropriate in a given job. They are learned. Felt and displayed emotions may be different. This is particularly true in organizations, where role demands and situations often require people to exhibit emotional behaviors that mask their true feelings.

3.4 CERTAIN ISSUES

Culture and emotion

There are two views of Culture and Emotion:

Universality - Emotions are part of human nature and in all cultures universally the same set of basic emotions. Based on his cross-cultural research, Ekman (1999) has found six emotions which are universally recognized and applicable. They are:

1. Anger
2. Fear
3. Sadness
4. Happiness
5. Disgust
6. Surprise.

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Physical responses

Attached to the idea of primary emotions as innate is the notion that each emotion causes a detectable physical response in the body. These responses are often perceived as sensation in the body; for example:

1. Fear is felt as a heightened heartbeat, increased "flinch" response, and increased muscle tension.
2. Anger, based on sensation, seems indistinguishable from fear.
3. Happiness is often felt as an expansive or swelling feeling in the chest and the sensation of lightness or buoyancy, as if standing underwater.
4. Sadness is often experienced as a feeling of tightness in the throat and eyes, and relaxation in the arms and legs.
5. Shame can be felt as heat in the upper chest and face.
6. Desire can be accompanied by a dry throat, heavy breathing, and increased heart rate.

In psychotherapy, practitioners of Re-evaluation Counseling propose that distressing emotions are relieved by emotional "discharge". Hence crying, laughing, sweating, shaking, and trembling. These actions commonly associated emotions, are thought to not be the original sensation, but instead nearly automatic responses that dispel the discomfort of disturbing feelings.

Cultural specificity - Human beings are like a tabula rasa (clean tablet) on which society writes its script. In other words, culture and traditions, normative patterns and value-orientations are responsible for not only our personality development, but also appropriate social and emotional development. This makes us functional entities in society. Each culture has a unique set of emotions and emotional responses; the emotions shown in a particular culture reflects the norms, values, practices, and language of that culture.

Alexithymia - emotional disorder

Some people have difficulty in expressing their emotions and understanding the emotions of others. Psychologists call this alexithymia. People who suffer from alexithymia rarely cry and are often seen by others as bland and cold. Their own feelings make them uncomfortable, and they are not able to discriminate among their different emotions. People, suffering from alexithymia, may be effective performers in jobs where little or no emotional labour. Alexithymic symptoms may be seen in people who experience:

1. Post-traumatic stress disorder
2. Certain brain injuries
3. Eating disorders (i.e., bulimia, ancexia, or binge-eating disorder)
4. Substance use dependence
5. Depression
6. Other mental health conditions

Check Your Progress

1. What is Emotions?
2. What are different theories of Emotions?

Relationship of gender with emotion

A number of research findings supports the view that women are more emotional than men (e.g., Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Widiger & Settle, 1987). Women are assumed to experience more frequent and intense emotions, whereas men are assumed to be emotionally inexpressive and to have less intense emotional experiences. However, researchers have argued that the stereotype of men as unemotional is more accurate for adult targets than for child targets because males learn to control their emotions as they get older (Fabes and Martin, 1991). Likewise, women and men may experience happiness in a similar way, but women have been taught that they can strongly express the emotion of happiness, whereas men have been taught to control it. The impact of socialization practices accumulate over time and, thus, these stereotypes are likely to apply more strongly to adult populations (Geer and Shields, 1996).

3.5 CONCEPT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:

The meaning of emotion is any agitation or disturbance of mind; any vehement or excited mental state. Thus, emotions refer to a feeling with its distinctive thoughts, psychological and biological states, and ranges of propensity to act. Daniel Goleman, one of the early proponents of emotional intelligence, has defined emotional intelligence as follows:

"Emotional intelligence refers to emotional awareness and emotional management skills which provide the ability to balance emotion and reason so as to maximize long-term happiness."

Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability to identify, assess, and control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups. Various models and definitions have been proposed of which the ability and trait EI models are the most widely accepted in the scientific literature. Criticisms have centered on whether the construct is a real intelligence and whether it has incremental validity over IQ and the Big Five personality dimensions.

History

The earliest roots of emotional intelligence can be traced to Charles Darwin's work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and, second, adaptation. In the 1900s, even though traditional definitions of intelligence emphasized cognitive aspects such as memory and problem-solving, several influential researchers in the intelligence field of study had begun to recognize the importance of the non-cognitive aspects. For instance, as early as 1920, E.L. Thorndike used the term social intelligence to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people.

Similarly, in 1940 David Wechsler described the influence of non-intellective factors on intelligent behavior, and further argued that our models of intelligence would not be complete until we could adequately describe these factors. In 1983, Howard Gardner's *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences* introduced the idea of multiple intelligences which included both *interpersonal intelligence* (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and *intrapersonal intelligence* (the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations). In Gardner's view, traditional types of intelligence, such as IQ, fail to fully explain cognitive ability. Thus, even though the names given to the concept varied, there was a common belief that traditional definitions of intelligence were lacking in ability to fully explain performance outcomes.

The first use of the term "emotional intelligence" is usually attributed to Wayne Payne's doctoral thesis, *A Study of Emotion: Developing Emotional Intelligence* from 1985. However, prior to this, the term "emotional intelligence" had appeared in Leuner (1966). Greenspan (1989) also put forward an EI model, followed by Salovey and Mayer (1990), and Daniel Goleman (1995). The distinction between trait emotional intelligence and ability emotional intelligence was introduced in 2000.

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3.6 MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Currently, there are three main models of EI:

- Ability EI model
- Mixed models of EI (usually subsumed under trait EI)
- Trait EI model

Different models of EI have led to the development of various instruments for the assessment of the construct. While some of these measures may overlap, most researchers agree that they tap different constructs.

3.7 ABILITY MODEL

Salovey and Mayer's conception of EI strives to define EI within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence. Following their continuing research, their initial definition of EI was revised to "The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth."

The ability-based model views emotions as useful sources of information that help one to make sense of and navigate the social environment. The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviors. The model claims that EI includes four types of abilities:

1. **Perceiving emotions** – the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts—including the ability to identify one's own emotions. Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.
2. **Using emotions** – the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.
3. **Understanding emotions** – the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.
4. **Managing emotions** – the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

The ability EI model has been criticized in the research for lacking face and predictive validity in the workplace.

Measurement of the ability model

The current measure of Mayer and Salovey's model of EI, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is based on a series of emotion-based problem-solving items. Consistent with the model's claim of EI as a type of intelligence, the test is modeled on ability-based IQ tests. By testing a person's abilities on each of the four branches of emotional intelligence, it generates scores for each of the branches as well as a total score.

Central to the four-branch model is the idea that EI requires attunement to social norms. Therefore, the MSCEIT is scored in a consensus fashion, with higher scores indicating higher overlap between an individual's answers and those provided by a worldwide sample of respondents. The MSCEIT can also be expert-scored, so that the amount of overlap is calculated between an individual's answers and those provided by a group of 21 emotion researchers.

Although promoted as an ability test, the MSCEIT is unlike standard IQ tests in that its items do not have objectively correct responses. Among other challenges, the consensus scoring criterion means that it is impossible to create items (questions) that only a minority of respondents can solve, because, by definition, responses are deemed emotionally "intelligent" only if the majority of the sample has endorsed them. This and other similar problems have led some cognitive ability experts to question the definition of EI as a genuine intelligence.

In a study by Follesdal, the MSCEIT test results of 111 business leaders were compared with how their employees described their leader. It was found that there were no correlations between a leader's test results and how he or she was rated by the employees, with regard to empathy, ability to motivate, and leader effectiveness. Follesdal also criticized the Canadian company Multi-Health Systems, which administers the MSCEIT test. The test contains 141 questions but it was found after publishing the test that 19 of these did not give the expected answers. This has led Multi-Health Systems to remove answers to these 19 questions before scoring, but without stating this officially.

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3.8 MIXED MODELS

The model introduced by Daniel Goleman focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines four main EI constructs:

1. Self-awareness – the ability to read one's emotions and recognize their impact while using gut feelings to guide decisions.
2. Self-management – involves controlling one's emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.
3. Social awareness – the ability to sense, understand, and react to others' emotions while comprehending social networks.
4. Relationship management – the ability to inspire, influence, and develop others while managing conflict.

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies. Goleman's model of EI has been criticized in the research literature as mere "pop psychology" (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008).

Measurement of the Emotional Competencies (Goleman) model

Two measurement tools are based on the Goleman model:

1. The Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), which was created in 1999, and the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI), which was created in 2007.
2. The Emotional Intelligence Appraisal, which was created in 2001 and which can be taken as a self-report or 360-degree assessment.

Check Your Progress

3. Define Emotional Intelligence?
4. Name different models of Emotional Intelligence.

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3.9 BAR-ON MODEL OF EMOTIONAL SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE (ESI)

Bar-On defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Bar-On posits that EI develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy. Bar-On hypothesizes that those individuals with higher than average EQs are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also notes that a deficiency in EI can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Problems in coping with one's environment are thought, by Bar-On, to be especially common among those individuals lacking in the subscales of reality testing, problem solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person's general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one's potential to succeed in life. However, doubts have been expressed about this model in the research literature (in particular about the validity of self-report as an index of emotional intelligence) and in scientific settings it is being replaced by the trait emotional intelligence (trait EI) model discussed below.

Measurement of the ESI model

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) is a self-report measure of EI developed as a measure of emotionally and socially competent behavior that provides an estimate of one's emotional and social intelligence. The EQ-i is not meant to measure personality traits or cognitive capacity, but rather the mental ability to be successful in dealing with environmental demands and pressures. One hundred and thirty three items (questions or factors) are used to obtain a Total EQ (Total Emotional Quotient) and to produce five composite scale scores, corresponding to the five main components of the Bar-On model. A limitation of this model is that it claims to measure some kind of ability through self-report items (for a discussion, see Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2001). The EQ-i has been found to be highly susceptible to faking (Day & Carroll, 2008; Grubb & McDaniel, 2007).

3.10 TRAIT EI MODEL

Soviet-born British psychologist Konstantin Vasily Petrides ("K. V. Petrides") proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability based model and a trait based model of EI and has been developing the latter over many years in numerous scientific publications. Trait EI is "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality." In lay terms, trait EI refers to an individual's self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. This definition of EI encompasses behavioral dispositions and self perceived abilities and is measured by self report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait EI should be investigated within a personality framework. An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy.

The trait EI model is general and subsumes the Goleman and Bar-On models discussed above. The conceptualization of EI as a personality trait leads to a construct that lies outside the taxonomy of human cognitive ability. This is an important distinction in as much as it bears directly on the operationalization of the construct and the theories and hypotheses that are formulated about it.

Measurement of the trait EI model

There are many self-report measures of EI, including the EQ-i, the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT), and the Schutte EI model. None of these assess intelligence, abilities, or skills (as their authors often claim), but rather, they are limited measures of trait emotional intelligence. One of the more comprehensive and widely researched measures of this construct is the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue), which was specifically designed to measure the construct comprehensively and is available in many languages.

The TEIQue provides an operationalization for the model of Petrides and colleagues that conceptualizes EI in terms of personality. The test encompasses 15 subscales organized under four factors: Well-Being, Self-Control, Emotionality, and Sociability.

The psychometric properties of the TEI Que were investigated in a study on a French-speaking population, where it was reported that TEIQue scores were globally normally distributed and reliable.

The researchers also found TEIQue scores were unrelated to nonverbal reasoning (Raven's matrices), which they interpreted as support for the personality trait view of EI (as opposed to a form of intelligence). As expected, TEIQue scores were positively related to some of the Big Five personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness) as well as inversely related to others (alexithymia, neuroticism). A number of quantitative genetic studies have been carried out within the trait EI model, which has revealed significant genetic effects and heritabilities for all trait EI scores. Two recent studies (one a meta-analysis) involving direct comparisons of multiple EI tests yielded very favorable results for the TEIQue.

Criticisms of the theoretical foundation of EI:

EI cannot be recognized as a form of Intelligence

Goleman's early work has been criticized for assuming from the beginning that EI is a type of intelligence. Eysenck (2000) writes that Goleman's description of EI contains unsubstantiated assumptions about intelligence in general, and that it even runs contrary to what researchers have come to expect when studying types of intelligence:

"Goleman exemplifies more clearly than most the fundamental absurdity of the tendency to class almost any type of behaviour as'intelligence'... If these five 'abilities' define 'emotional intelligence', we would expect some evidence that they are highly correlated; Goleman admits that they might be quite uncorrelated, and in any case if we cannot measure them, how do we know they are related? So the whole theory is built on quicksand: there is no sound scientific basis."

Similarly, Locke (2005) claims that the concept of EI is in itself a misinterpretation of the intelligence construct, and he offers an alternative interpretation: it is not another form or type of intelligence, but intelligence—the ability to grasp abstractions—applied to a particular life domain: emotions. He suggests the concept should be re-labeled and referred to as a skill.

The essence of this criticism is that scientific inquiry depends on valid and consistent construct utilization, and that before the introduction of the term EI, psychologists had established theoretical distinctions between factors such as abilities and achievements, skills and habits, attitudes and values, and personality traits and emotional states. Thus, some scholars believe that the term *EI* merges and conflate such accepted concepts and definitions.

EI has little predictive value

Landy (2005) claimed that the few incremenral validity studies conducted on EI have shown that it adds little or nothing to the explanation or prediction of some common outcomes (most notably academic and work success). Landy suggested that the reason why some studies have found a small increase in predictive validity is a methodological fallacy, namely, that alternative explanations have not been completely considered:

"EI is compared and contrasted with a measure of abstract intelligence but not with a personality measure, or with a personality measure but not with a measure of academic intelligence." Landy (2005)

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Similarly, other researchers have raised concerns about the extent to which self-report EI measures correlate with established personality dimensions. Generally, self-report EI measures and personality measures have been said to converge because they both purport to measure personality traits. Specifically, there appear to be two dimensions of the Big Five that stand out as most related to self-report EI – neuroticism and extroversion. In particular, neuroticism has been said to relate to negative emotionality and anxiety. Intuitively, individuals scoring high on neuroticism are likely to score low on self-report EI measures.

The interpretations of the correlations between EI questionnaires and personality have been varied. The prominent view in the scientific literature is the Trait EI view, which re-interprets EI as a collection of personality traits.

Criticisms of measurement issues

Ability EI measures measure conformity, not ability

One criticism of the works of Mayer and Salovey comes from a study by Roberts et al. (2001), which suggests that the EI, as measured by the MSCEIT, may only be measuring conformity. This argument is rooted in the MSCEIT's use of consensus-based assessment, and in the fact that scores on the MSCEIT are negatively distributed (meaning that its scores differentiate between people with low EI better than people with high EI).

Ability EI measures measure knowledge (not actual ability)

Further criticism has been leveled by Brody (2004), who claimed that unlike tests of cognitive ability, the MSCEIT "tests knowledge of emotions but not necessarily the ability to perform tasks that are related to the knowledge that is assessed". The main argument is that even though someone knows how he should behave in an emotionally laden situation, it doesn't necessarily follow that the person could actually carry out the reported behavior.

Ability EI measures measure personality and general intelligence:

New research is surfacing that suggests that ability EI measures might be measuring personality in addition to general intelligence. These studies examined the multivariate effects of personality and intelligence on EI and also corrected estimates for measurement error (which is often not done in some validation studies). For example, a study by Schulte, Ree, Carretta (2004), showed that general intelligence (measured with the Wonderlic Personnel Test), agreeableness (measured by the NEO-PI), as well as gender had a multiple R of .81 with the MSCEIT. This result has been replicated by Fiori and Antonakis (2011), they found a multiple R of .76 using Cattell's "Culture Fair" intelligence test and the Big Five Inventory (BFI); significant covariates were intelligence (standardized beta = .39), agreeableness (standardized beta = .54), and openness (standardized beta = .46). Antonakis and Dietz (2011a), who investigated the Ability Emotional Intelligence Measure found similar results (Multiple R = .69), with significant predictors being intelligence, standardized beta = .69 (using the Swaps Test and a Wechsler scales subtest, the 40-item General Knowledge Task) and empathy, standardized beta = .26 (using the Questionnaire Measure of Empathic Tendency)—see also Antonakis and Dietz (2011b), who show how including or excluding important controls variables can fundamentally change results—thus, it is important to always include important controls like personality and intelligence when examining the predictive validity of ability and trait EI models.

Self-report measures are susceptible to faking

More formally termed socially desirable responding (SDR), faking good is defined as a response pattern in which test-takers systematically represent themselves with an excessive positive bias (Paulhus, 2002). This bias has long been known to contaminate responses on personality inventories (Holtgraves, 2004; McFarland & Ryan, 2000; Peebles & Moore, 1998; Nichols & Greene, 1997; Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987), acting as a mediator of the relationships between self-report measures (Nichols & Greene, 1997; Ganster et al., 1983).

It has been suggested that responding in a desirable way is a response set, which is a situational and temporary response pattern (Pauls & Crost, 2004; Paulhus, 1991). This is contrasted with a response style, which is a more long-term trait-like quality. Considering the contexts some self-report EI inventories are used in (e.g., employment settings), the problems of response sets in high-stakes scenarios become clear (Paulhus & Reid, 2001).

There are a few methods to prevent socially desirable responding on behavior inventories. Some researchers believe it is necessary to warn test-takers not to fake good before taking a personality test (e.g., McFarland, 2003). Some inventories use validity scales in order to determine the likelihood or consistency of the responses across all items.

Claims for the predictive power of EI are too extreme

Landy distinguishes between the "commercial wing" and "the academic wing" of the EI movement, basing this distinction on the alleged predictive power of EI as seen by the two currents. According to Landy, the former makes expansive claims on the applied value of EI, while the latter is trying to warn users against these claims. As an example, Goleman (1998) asserts that "the most effective leaders are alike in one crucial way: they all have a high degree of what has come to be known as emotional intelligence. ...emotional intelligence is the sine qua non of leadership". In contrast, Mayer (1999) cautions "the popular literature's implication—that highly emotionally intelligent people possess an unqualified advantage in life—appears overly enthusiastic at present and unsubstantiated by reasonable scientific standards." Landy further reinforces this argument by noting that the data upon which these claims are based are held in "proprietary databases", which means they are unavailable to independent researchers for reanalysis, replication, or verification. Thus, the credibility of the findings cannot be substantiated in a scientific way, unless those datasets are made public and available for independent analysis.

In an academic exchange, Antonakis and Ashkanasy/Dasborough mostly agreed that researchers testing whether EI matters for leadership have not done so using robust research designs; therefore, currently there is no strong evidence showing that EI predicts leadership outcomes when accounting for personality and IQ. Antonakis argued that EI might not be needed for leadership effectiveness (he referred to this as the "curse of emotion" phenomenon, because leaders who are too sensitive to their and others' emotional states might have difficult to take decisions that would result in emotional labor for the leader or followers). A recently-published meta-analysis seems to support the Antonakis position. In fact, Harms and Credé found that

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overall (and using data free from problems of common source and common methods), EI measures correlated only r = .11 with measures of transformational leadership. Interestingly, ability-measures of EI fared worst (i.e., r = .04); the WLEIS (Wong-Law measure) did a bit better (r = .08), and the Bar-On measure better still (r = .18). However, the validity of these estimates does not include the effects of IQ or the big five personality, which correlate both with EI measures and leadership. In a subsequent paper analyzing the impact of EI on both job performance and leadership, Harms and Credé found that the meta-analytic validity estimates for EI dropped to zero when Big Five traits and IQ were controlled for.

EI, IQ and job performance

Research of EI and job performance shows mixed results: a positive relation has been found in some of the studies, in others there was no relation or an inconsistent one. This led researchers Cote and Miners (2006) to offer a compensatory model between EI and IQ, that posits that the association between EI and job performance becomes more positive as cognitive intelligence decreases, an idea first proposed in the context of academic performance (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004). The results of the former study supported the compensatory model: employees with low IQ get higher task performance and organizational citizenship behavior directed at the organization, the higher their EI.

CASE STUDY

Background

A large Indian retail organization with many different sub-companies and brands was moving to a shared services model. Large-scale change projects were being facilitated with the assistance of iconic professional service firms to centralize operational functions such as IT, Finance and Human Resources. As can happen with these types of transformation projects, the announcement and commencement of them drove down employee engagement, talent retention and performance, and drove up fear, resistance and negative behaviors amongst employees potentially derailing some of the projects.

The generous Solution

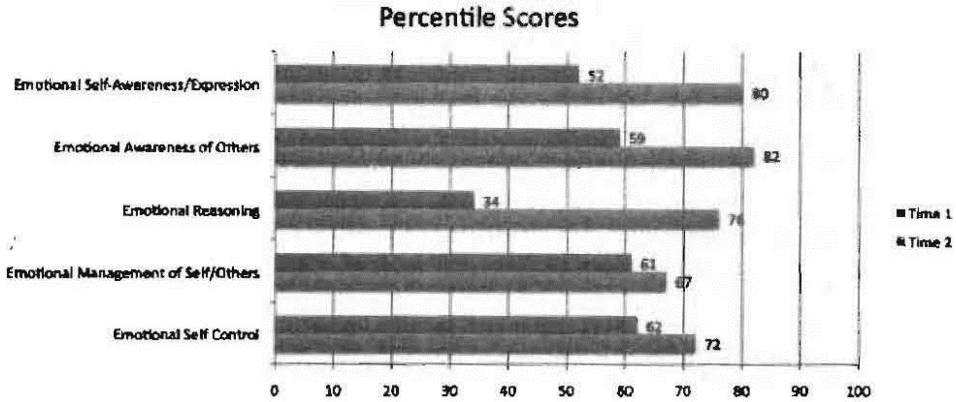
Generous designed a leadership development program to improve project team leaders capacity to positively influence others, manage resistance to change and improve employee engagement.

Based on the Generous model of Emotional Intelligence the program involved:

1. A Time 1, 360-degree assessment of each leader's emotional intelligence and levels of employee engagement amongst their direct reports at the outser
2. One full day and two half day workshops on how to utilize emotional intelligence skills to positively influence others and manage resistance to change
3. Seven one-on-one coaching sessions to improve leaders capacity to perceive, understand, express and create positive emotions in the workplace
4. A Time 2, 360-degree assessment of each leader's emotional intelligence and levels of employee engagement amongst their direct reports to help determine the return on investment of the program

Results

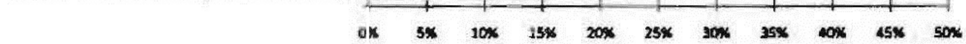
As can be seen in the graph below leaders emotional intelligence improved on all dimensions of the Generous model.



At the conclusion of the program the participating leaders were more self-aware of the impact their behavior had on others. They were better at expressing their own emotions and therefore being perceived as more genuine and trustworthy. They were also reasoning better with emotional information and managing and controlling emotions more effectively. The largest improvement occurred on the emotional reasoning dimension.

Before the program leaders were thinking rationally, making decisions based mostly on facts and figures. Indeed the solutions they were trying to execute were right, but how they were executing them was driving resistance and disengagement. At the conclusion of the program leaders results showed they were combining this strength with more emotional reasoning, making decisions based on facts and taking into account how people were feeling or likely to feel about decisions made and how to communicate them on that basis. They were consulting their staff more and making people feel more included and how best to implement the change initiatives.

What was the impact on employee engagement? As shown below employee engagement improved in a number of areas.



As a result of experiencing more emotionally intelligent leadership, employees felt the team's interpersonal effectiveness had improved, as had their ability to organize and plan work. The survey also showed improvements in employees' perceptions about the quality and timeliness of their work. People were less likely to leave and felt more valued by the broader business. Indeed the program ensured change projects in the area were delivered on time and on budget with much less talent attrition and stress.

3.11 SUMMARY

- 'Emotion' is used to designate 'a state of consciousness having to do with the arousal of feelings." It is "distinguished from other mental states, from cognition, volition, and awareness of physical sensation." Feeling refers to "any of the subjective reactions, pleasant or unpleasant" that one may experience in a situation
- There are many theories of emotion. James-Lange Theory proposes that subjective emotional responses are the result of physiological changes within human bodies. Cannon-Bard theory proposes that emotion-provoking events in-

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duce the subjective emotional experiences and physiological arousal simultaneously. Schachter-Singer theory proposes that both feedback from peripheral responses and a cognitive appraisal of what caused those responses produce emotions. How one interprets the peripheral response will determine the emotion he / she feel. According to Lazarus' appraisal theory, an individual makes an initial and sometimes unconscious cognitive appraisal of the situation to decide, if there is a threat; coping action is taken if necessary; and the Individual takes a closer look and identifies the emotions he or she is feeling. Weiner, in his theory, proposes that certain attributions produce specific emotions.

- Emotional intelligence is an aggregate of individuals' cognition of own and others' emotions, feeling, intetpretation and action as per environmental demand to manipulate the consequence, which in turn, results in superior performance and better human relationship.
- The most popular and accepted mixed model of emotional intelligence is the one proposed by Goleman. He viewed emotional intelligence as a total of personal and social competences.
- Personal competence determines how we manage ourselves, whereas social competence determines how we handle our interpersonal relationships. Assuming that emotional intelligence is important, the question of assessment and measurement becomes particularly pressing.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. An emotion is a mental and physiological state associated with a wide variety of feelings, thoughts, and behavior.
2. Theories of Emotion: James Lange Theory, Cannon Barri theory, Schachter-Singer theory, Lazarus' appraisal theory, Weiner's attribution theory.
3. Emotional Intelligence refers to emotional awareness and emotional management skills which provide the ability to balance emotion and reason so as to maximize long term happiness.
4. Models of Emotional Intelligence- Ability Emotional Intelligence Model, Mixed models of Emotional Intelligence, Trait Emotional Intelligence Model.

3.12 TEST YOURSELF :

1) Explain the term Emotion.
2) State different theories of Emotion.
3) Discuss concept of Emotional Intelligence.
4) What are different models of Emotional Intelligence?

3.13 Reference

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3.14 FURTHER READING

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BLOCK – II

4 Foundations of Group Behavior

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The Chapter Covers :

4.1 Introduction and Meaning of Group:

A group consists of two or more persons who interact with each other, consciously for the achievement of certain common objectives. Group is close association of two or more individuals interacting among themselves for the accomplishments of similar goals. Its important elements are group interaction and common goals. Group is formed to satisfy the needs of an organisation. Team is a group that is formed formally by the organisation for fulfilment of common goals.

A Person joins any company as an individual and after that he joins a group or forms a group. It is done as to satisfy the needs of an organisation. These needs can be psychological, social, safety, economic and cultural needs which may not be fulfilled by the organisation. Therefore, A group can be defined in terms of perceptions, motivation, organization, interdependencies, and interactions. A group is defined as two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives.

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According to Marvin Shaw, "A group is two or more persons who interact with one another such that each person influences and is influenced by each other person."

Another definition of group is, "an organized system of two or more individuals who are interrelated so that the system performs some function, has a standard set of role relationships among its members, and has a set of norms that regulate the function of the group and each of its members."

According to Harold H. Kelley and J.W. Thibaut, A group is -

"A collection of individuals, the members accept a common task, become interdependent in their performance, and interact with one another to promote its accomplishment"

4.2 Features of a group

- In order to form a group, there must be at least two persons who are called the members. There cannot be any specific limit on the maximum number of members in a group.
- A number of members of any group depend upon the circumstances, objectives to be achieved, attitudes and aptitudes of the people joining the group.
- In the organizational context, there are certain rules and regulations which control the activities of the groups.
- It is also found that the groups influence their member's attitudes and behaviours.
- There is a group structure with hierarchical status system. Some type of leader followership relationship develops.
- There are different types of group's e.g. formal groups and informal groups, friendship groups, intellectual groups, religious groups etc.
- Members of a group interact among themselves in one way or other. The communication can take place face to face, in writing, over the telephones, across a computer network etc
- Because of the shared goals, certain normative behavioural patterns are established based on norms and values. The members are expected to follow this norms, values and rules.

Types of group

Groups may be classifies into different types. The basis of differentiation may be purpose, extent of structuring, process of formation, and size of the group membership. However, the most important type of group in organization formal and informal group.

1. **Primary and secondary groups:** A primary group is characterized by intimate, face to face association and cooperation. The membership of such a group is small and is based on intimate relationships. For example: family, and peer group.

   Secondary groups are characterized by large size and individuals' identification with values and belief prevailing in them rather than actual interaction. For example: Occupational association and ethnic groups.

2. **Membership and reference groups:** Membership groups are ones to which the individual actually belongs. For example: Clubs, cooperative societies, workers union, etc.

   Reference groups are the ones with which an individual identifies or to which he would like to belong.

3. **Command and task groups:** Command groups are composed of the subordinates who report directly to a common superior. For example: A college principal and teachers.

   Task group is comprised of the employees who work together to complete a particular task or project.

4. **In-groups and out groups:** In-groups represents a clustering of individuals holding prevailing values in a society or at least having a dominant place in social functioning. For example: Members of a team.

   Out-groups are the masses or conglomerate viewed as subordinate or marginal in the culture. It is usually referred to as the minority group even though in certain instances. For example: Street performers for an office worker.

5. **Formal and informal groups:** A formal group is one that is deliberately created to perform a specific task. Members are usually appointed by the organization, but it may not always be the case. A number of people assigned to a specific task from a formal group. One example of such group is a committee and other examples are work units, such as a small department, a research and development laboratory. A distinctive feature is of formal groups is that a hierarchy of authority exists, with specified member of rules. Rules, regulations, incentives and sanctions guide the behavior of small groups, brings out the contributions of formal groups.

   Informal groups, on the other hand, are created in the organization because of operation of social and psychological forces operating at the work place. Members create such groups for their own satisfaction and their working is not regulated by the general framework of organizational rules and regulations.

4.3 GROUP DYNAMICS

Group dynamics is the study of groups, and also a general term for group processes. Relevant to the fields of psychology, sociology, and communication studies, a group is two or more individuals who are connected to each other by social relationships. Because they interact and influence each other, groups develop a number of dynamic processes that separate them from a random collection of individuals.

These processes include norms, roles, relations, development, need to belong, social influence, and effects on behavior. The field of group dynamics is primarily concerned with small group behavior. Groups may be classified as aggregate, primary, secondary and category groups. In organizational development (OD), or group dynamics, the phrase "group process" refers to the understanding of the behavior of people in groups, such as task groups, that are trying to solve a problem or make a decision. An individual with expertise in 'group process, such as a trained facilitator, can assist a group in accomplishing its objective by diagnosing how well the group is functioning as a problem-solving or decision-making entity and intervening to alter the group's operating behavior. Because people gather in groups for reasons other than task accomplishment, group process occurs in other types of groups such as personal growth groups (e.g. encounter groups, study groups, prayer groups). In such cases, an individual with expertise in group process can be helpful in the role of facilitator.

Well researched but rarely mentioned by professional group workers, is the social status of people within the group (i.e., senior or junior). The group leader (or facilitator) will usually have a strong influence on the group due to his or her role of shaping the group's outcomes. This influence will also be affected by the leader's sex, race, relative age, income, appearance, and personality, as well as organizational structures and many other factors.

Why do people work in groups?

- **Security:** By joining a group, individuals can reduce the insecurity of "standing alone."People feel stronger, have fewer self-doubts, and are more resistant to threats when they are part of a group.
- **Status:** Inclusion in a group that is viewed as important by others provides recognition and status for its members.
- **Self-Esteem:** Groups can provide people with feelings of self-worth. That is, in addition to conveying status to those outside the group, membership can also give increased feelings of worth to the group members themselves.
- **Power:** What cannot be achieved individually often becomes possible through group action. There is power in numbers.
- Goal **Achievement:** There are times when it takes more than one person to accomplish a particular task; there is a need to pool talents, knowledge, or power in order to complete a job.

4.4 GROUP FORMATION

Groups are formed to satisfy both organizational and individual needs. They form in organizations because managers expect people working together in groups will be better able to complete and coordinate organizational tasks. Organizations of all types are forming teams to improve some aspect of the work, such as productivity or quality. Hence, Group formation has certain objectives. The purpose behind group formation may be task achievement problem-solving, proximity or others socio-psychological requirements. Group formation is based on activities, interactions and sentiments.

1) **Task accomplishment:** The basic purpose of group formation is the achievement of certain objectives through task performance. Individuals come closer in order to understand the tasks and decide on the procedures of performance. In any organization, task accomplishment is the reason for which different groups such as engineering group; marketing group, foreman's group and personnel group are formed for achievement of the organization's goals. When an organization faces some procedural difficulties, concerned groups discuss them and evolve new techniques of production, marketing and other functions.
2) **Problem solving:** When people anticipate or face certain problems, they unite to solve the problems. Unity has strength. A group provides strength to members who are willing to challenge any problem. Group behavior gives more strength to come down heavily on problems.
3) **Proximity:** People form groups because of proximity and attraction towards each other. The group formation theory is based on proximity, which means that individuals affiliate because of spatial or geographical proximity. They

interact frequently with each other on many topics, because this interactive communication is rewarding.

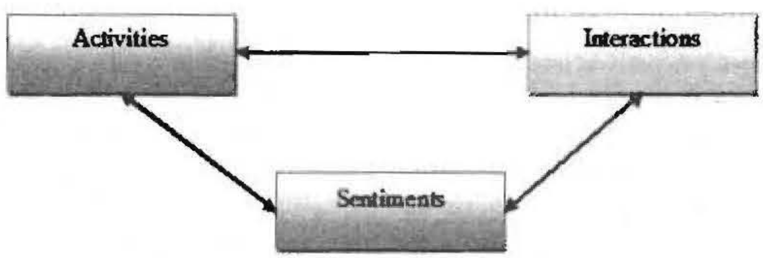
4) **Socio-psychological factors:** Sentiments and action-uniformities bring people closer. They also form groups for safety, security and social achievements. People cooperate with members of the group on social as well as economic grounds to reach satisfactory levels.

Theories of Group formation

This has been stated for understanding the reasons behind the formation of informal groups. These theories are explained in brief.

A. **Propinquity Theory:** The meaning of the term propinquity means nearness. In the organizational context, employees working together come close to form a group with certain objectives with others. Thus, according to this theory, the group formation process of informal groups is based on nearness factor. Nearness is only a facilitating factor for group formation and cannot be a reason for group formation. This theory does not take into consideration the reasons for which the groups are formed.

B. **Interaction theory of Homans:** Three elements which have been considered by Homans in stating his theory are activities, interactions, and sentiments. These three are inter-related. George C. Homans states that more the individuals share their activities, more they will interact with each other and more strong would be their sentiments for each other and vice-versa. Nearness factor is not merely considered, but accomplishmenr of group goals is also given importance. This theory helps to understand the group formation process by making clear the important elements behind forming the groups.



C. **Balance theory: Theodore Newcomb** stated the balance theory. According to Newcomb, "Persons are attracted to one another on the basis of similar attitudes rowards commonly relevant objectives and goals. Once a relationship is formed, it strives to maintain a symmetrical balance between attraction and the common attitudes. If an imbalance occurs, attempts are made ro restore the balance. If the balance cannot be restored, the relationship dissolves". This theory no doubt is very simple and explains the motives behind the forming of groups. But it does not explain various other causes of formation of group. Both propinquity and interaction play a role in the balance theory. Thus, the balance theory is addictive in nature in the sense that it introduces the factor of 'balance' to the propinquity and interaction factors. There must be a balance between in the relationship between the group members for the group to be formed and for its survival. As shown in figure below, Mr. X will interact with Mr. Y and form a group because of some common attitudes and values such as authority, work, life style, religion, policies, etc. they will strive to maintain a symmetrical balance between the attraction and the common attitudes. If they fail in their efforts, the group will get dissolved.

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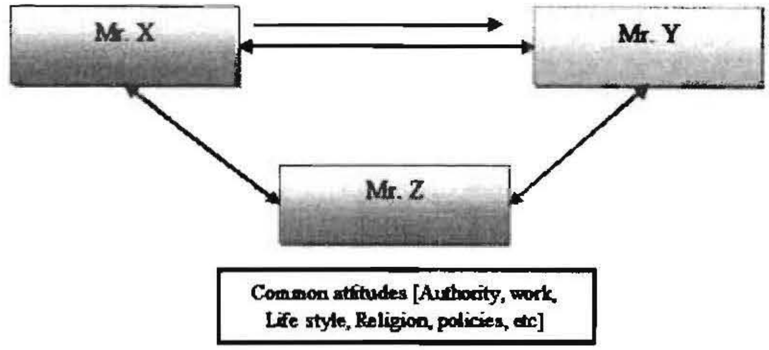
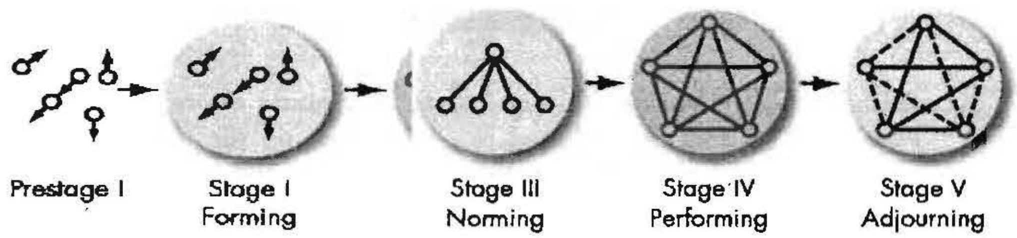


D. **Exchange Theory:** John W. Thibaut and Harold H. Kelley proposed this theory. It is based upon 'REWARD-COST outcomes of interaction'. Rewards should be greater than costs of an outcome must be there for affiliation or attraction to take place. In the Exchange Theory, it is suggested that an individual joins a group on the basis of the outcomes of rewards and costs. If the cost is more than the reward, he will not join the group. Satisfaction of needs with more rewards than cost is important reason for individuals to join groups. It is true in respect to formal as well as informal. There is an element of truth in each theory stated above. Thus, no theory throws light on all the factors which affect the formation of GROUPS.

Group Development: The Five-Stage Model

The five stages perspective is probably the best-known theory of how groups develop over time. The five stage group development model given by **Tuckman and Jensen** characterizes groups as proceeding through five distinct stages: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning.



<u>Stage 1: Forming</u>

In the Forming stage, personal relations are characterized by dependence. Group members rely on safe, patterned behavior and look to the group leader for guidance and direction. Group members have a desire for acceptance by the group and a need to know that the group is safe. Rules of behavior seem to be to keep things simple and to avoid controversy. Serious topics and feelings are avoided.

The major task functions also concern orientation. Members attempt to become oriented to the tasks as well as to one another. To grow from this stage to the next, each member must give up the comfort of non-threatening topics and risk the possibility of conflict.

Stage 2: Storming

The next stage, called Storming, is characterized by competition and conflict in the personal-relations. As the group members attempt to organize for the task, conflict certainly results in their personal relations. Individuals have to bend and mold their feelings, ideas, attitudes, and beliefs to suit the group organization. Because of "fear of exposure" or "fear of failure," there will be an increased desire for structural clarification and commitment. Although conflicts may or may not surface as group issues, they do exist.

Questions will arise about who is going to be responsible for what, what the rules are, what the reward system is, and what criteria for evaluation are. These reflect conflicts over leadership, structure, power, and authority. There may be wide fluctuations in members' behavior based on emerging issues of competition and hostilities. Because of the discomfort generated during this stage, some members may remain completely silent while others attempt to dominate.

In order to progress to the next stage, group members must move from a "testing and proving" mentality to a problem-solving mentality. The most important trait in helping groups to move on to the next stage seems to be the ability to listen.

Stage 3: Norming

In the Norming stage, interpersonal relations are characterized by cohesion or consistency. Group members are engaged in active acknowledgment of all members' contributions, community building and maintenance, and solving of group issues. Members are willing to change their preconceived ideas or opinions on the basis of facts presented by other members, and they actively ask questions of one another. Leadership is shared, and cliques dissolve. When members begin to know-and identify with-one another, the level of trust in their personal relations contributes to the development of group cohesion. It is during this stage of development (assuming the group gets this far) that people begin to experience a sense of group belonging and a feeling of relief as a result of resolving interpersonal conflicts.

The major task function of stage three is the data flow between group members: They share feelings and ideas, solicit and give feedback to one another, and explore actions related to the task. Creativity is high. If this stage of data flow and cohesion is attained by the group members, their interactions are characterized by openness and sharing of information on both a personal and task level. They feel good about being part of an effective group.

The major drawback of the norming stage is that members may begin to fear the inevitable future breakup of the group; they may resist change of any sort.

Stage 4: Performing

The Performing stage is not reached by all groups. If group members are able to evolve to stage four, their capacity, range, and depth of personal relations expand to true interdependence. In this stage, people can work independently, in subgroups, or as a total unit with equal facility. Their roles and authorities dynamically adjust to the changing needs of the group and individuals. Stage four is marked by interdependence in personal relations and problem solving in the realm of task functions. By now, the group should be most productive. Individual members have become self-assuring, and the need for group approval is past. Members are both highly task oriented and highly people oriented. There is unity: group identity is complete, group morale is high, and group loyalty is intense. The task function becomes

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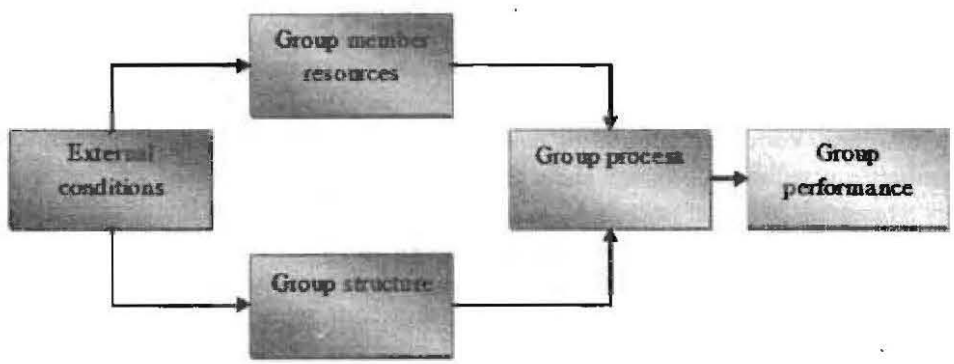
genuine problem solving, leading toward optimal solutions and optimum group development. There is support for experimentation in solving problems and an emphasis on achievement. The overall goal is productivity through problem solving and work.

Stage 5: Adjourning

The final stage, adjourning, involves the termination of task behaviors and disengagement from relationships. A planned conclusion usually includes recognition for participation and achievement and an opportunity for members to say personal goodbyes. Concluding a group can create some apprehension - in effect, a minor crisis. The termination of the group is a regressive movement from giving up control to giving up inclusion in the group. The most effective interventions in this stage are those that facilitate task termination and the disengagement process.

GROUP BEHAVIOR

In the context of groups, it happens that some groups perform well and generate synergy wheteas some groups do not perform well and result into social loafing. This happens because there are several factors, both within groups and outside these, which affect group performance. Such factors have been presented below:



External conditions

A group is not an independent identity but it is created by an organization to perform certain specified work. Thus, a group has to work within the framework provided by the organization. The work group is a subsystem embedded in a larger system. It does not exist in isolation, but are a part of the larger organization. External conditions are imposed on a work group. External conditions include:

- An organization's overall strategy, generally given by top management, which outlines the organization's goals and the means for attaining these goals.
- The strategy will influence the power of various work groups which will determine the resources that the organization's top management is willing to allocate to it for performing its tasks.
- Organizations have authority structures that define who reports to whom, who makes decisions, and what decisions individuals or groups are empowered to make.
- Organizations create rules, procedures, policies, job descriptions, and other forms of formal regulations to standardize employee behavior.
- The performance evaluation and reward system. Group members' behavior will be influenced by how the organization evaluates performance and what behaviors are rewarded.

- Every organization has an unwritten culture that defines standards of acceptable and unacceptable behavior for employees. Members of work groups have to accept the standards implied in the organization's dominant culture if they are to remain in good standing.
- The physical work setting creates both barriers and opportunities for work group interaction.

Group member resources

Group performance depends, to considerable extent, on the resources that its individual member brings into the group. This comprises of:

1) **Abilities of members:** The performance of a group may be influenced by the task relevant intellectual abilities of each of its members. Research evidence indicates that individual who hold crucial abilities for attaining the group's task tend to be more involved in group activity, generally contribute more, and more likely to emerge as the group leaders, and are more satisfied if their talents are effectively utilized by the group. Further, intellectual ability and task relevant ability have both been found to be related to overall group performance. However, the correlation between abilities of members and group performance is subject to the impact of such variables as size of the group, the nature of the task, the action of its leader and the level of intra group conflict or cooperation.
2) **Personality characteristics:** The personality traits of group members can shape group attitudes and behavior. The attributes that have a positive connotation tend to be positively related to group productivity, morale and cohesiveness. These include traits such as authoritarianism, dominance, and manipulation tends to have effect on group performance in the long run.

4.5 GROUP STRUCTURE

Group structure is a pattern of relationships among members that hold the group together and help it achieve assigned goals. A group is not an unorganized mob of few individuals. It is a conscious and purposive creation. Therefore, the group must have structure just like an organization has structure. Structure can be described in a variety of ways. Among the more common considerations are group size, group roles, group norms, and group cohesiveness.

Group Composition

Group composition is most often defined in terms of homogeneity or heterogeneity of the group members. A group is homogeneous if the members are similar in one or several ways that are critical to the work of the group, such as age, work experience, education, technical specialty etc. In a heterogeneous group, the members differ in one or more ways that are critical to the work of the group. Whether homogeneous or heterogeneous group should be created depends on the type of task of the group is expected to perform. In certain types of tasks, homogeneous groups are more appropriate while in other types of tasks, heterogeneous groups are more appropriate as shown below:

Homogenous groups suitable for	Heterogeneous groups are suitable for
Simple tasks	Complex tasks
Sequential tasks	Collective tasks
Tasks that require cooperation	Tasks that require creativity
Tasks that must be done quickly	Tasks that need not be done quickly

GROUP SIZE

Group size can vary from 2 people to a very large number of people. Small groups of two to ten are thought to be more effective because each member has sufficient opportunity to participate and become actively involved in the group. Large groups may waste time by deciding on processes and trying to decide who should participate next. Group size will affect not only participation but satisfaction as well. Evidence supports the notion that as the size of the group increases, satisfaction increases up to a certain point. In other words, a group of six members has twice as many opportunities for interaction and participation as a group of three people. Beyond 10 or 12 members, increased size of the group results in decreased satisfaction. It is increasingly difficult for members of large groups to identify with one another and experience cohesion. While the large group has an advantage over a small group in terms of idea generation and availability of resources, a smaller group may be effective in terms of interaction and communication among group members but lacks ability to handle complex tasks.

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4.6 GROUP ROLES

In formal groups, roles are usually predetermined and assigned to members. A role is the pattern of behaviors expected of a person occupying a particular position in a social unit. Each role will have specific responsibilities and duties. There are, however, emergent roles that develop naturally to meet the needs of the groups. These emergent roles will often replace the assigned roles as individuals begin to express themselves and become more assertive. Group roles can then be classified into work roles, maintenance roles, and blocking roles.

Work roles are task-oriented activities that involve accomplishing the group's goals. They involve a variety of specific roles such as initiator, informer, clarifier, summarizer, and reality tester. The initiator defines problems, proposes action, and suggests procedures. The informer role involves finding facts and giving advice or opinions. Clarifiers will interpret ideas, define terms, and clarify issues for the group. Summarizers restate suggestions, offer decisions, and come to conclusions for the group. Finally, reality testers analyze ideas and test the ideas in real situations.

Maintenance roles are social-emotional activities that help members maintain their involvement in the group and raise their personal commitment to the group. The maintenance roles are harmonizer, gatekeeper, consensus tester, encourager, and compromiser. The harmonizer will reduce tension in the group, reconcile differences, and explore opportunities. Gatekeepers often keep communication channels open and make suggestions that encourage participation. The consensus tester will ask if the group is nearing a decision and test possible conclusions. Encouragers are friendly, warm, and responsive to other group members. The last maintenance role is the compromiser. This role involves modifying decisions, offering compromises, and admitting errors.

Check Your Progress

1. What is Group?
2. What do you mean by the term Group Dynamics?

Blocking roles are activities that disrupt the group. They make take the form of dominating discussions, verbally attacking other group members, and distracting the group with trivial information or unnecessary humor. Often times the blocking behavior may not be intended as negative. Sometimes a member may share a joke in order to break the tension, or may question a decision in order to force group members to rethink the issue. The blocking roles are aggressor, blocker, dominator, comedian, and avoidance behavior. The aggressor criticizes members' values and makes jokes in a sarcastic or semi-concealed manner.

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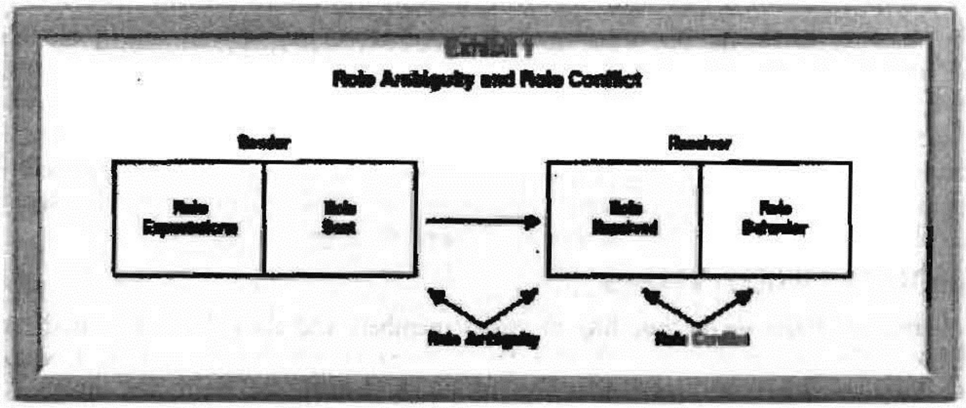
Role Ambiguity and Role Conflict



Role Ambiguity and Role Conflict

Role ambiguity concerns the discrepancy between the sent role and the received role, as shown in figure above. Supervisors, directors, or other group leaders often send (assign) roles to group members in formal groups. Group members receive roles by being ready and willing to undertake the tasks associated with that role. Ambiguity results when members are confused about the delegation of job responsibilities. This confusion may occur because the members do not have specific job descriptions or because the instructions regarding the task were not clear. Group members who experience ambiguity often have feelings of frustration and dissatisfaction, which ultimately lead to turnover.

Role conflict occurs when there is inconsistency between the perceived role and role behavior. There are several different forms of role conflict. Interrole conflict occurs when there is conflict between the different roles that people have. For example, work roles and family roles often compete with one another and cause conflict. Intrarole conflict occurs when individuals must handle conflicting demands from different sources while performing the tasks associated with the same role.

4.7 GROUP NORMS

Norms are acceptable standards of behavior within a group that are shared by the members of the group. Norms define the boundaries of acceptable and unacceptable behavior. They are typically created in order to facilitate group survival, make behavior more predictable, avoid embarrassing situations, and express the values of the group. Each group will establish its own set of norms that might determine anything from the appropriate dress to how many comments to make in a meeting. Groups exert pressure on members to force them to conform to the group's standards. The norms often reflect the level of commitment, motivation, and performance of the group.

Performance norms determine how quickly members should work and how much they should produce. They are created in an effort to determine levels of individual effort. They can be very frustrating to managers because they are not always in line with the organization's goals. Members of a group may have the skill and ability to perform at higher levels but they don't because of the group's performance norms. For example, workers may stop working a production machine at 20 minutes before quitting time in order to wash up, even though they produced fewer items that day than management intended.

Reward-allocation norms determine how rewards are bestowed upon group members. For example, the norm of equality dictates equal treatment of all members. Every member shares equally so rewards are distributed equally to everyone.

Equity norms suggest that rewards are distributed according to the member's contribution. In other words, members who contribute the most receive the largest share of the rewards. Members may contribute through effort, skill, or ability.

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Social responsibility norms reward on the basis of need. Members who have special needs therefore receive the largest share of the reward.

The majority of the group must agree that the norms are appropriate in order for the behavior to be accepred. There must also be a shared understanding that the group supports the norms. It should be noted, however, that members might violate group norms from time to time. If the majority of members do not adhere to the norms, then they will eventually change and will no longer serve as a standard for evaluating behavior. Group members who do not conform to the norms will be punished by being excluded, ignored, or asked to leave the group.

GROUP COHESIVENESS

Cohesiveness refers to the bonding of group members and their desire to remain part of the group. Many factors influence the amount of group cohesiveness. Generally speaking, the more difficult it is to obtain group membership the more cohesive the group. Groups also tend to become cohesive when they are in intense competition with other groups or face a serious external threat to survival. Smaller groups and those who spend considerable time together also tend to be more cohesive.

Cohesiveness in work groups has many positive effects, including worker satisfaction, low turnover and absenreeism, and higher productivity. However, highly cohesive groups may be harmful to organizational performance if their goals are misaligned with organizational goals. Cohesiveness groups are often powerful and their members act united whenever the group faces threat from external threat.

Features of cohesive group

i) The members share the group goals and norms and have common interest and backgrounds.

ii) The number of members is small.

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

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

v) The members stand themselves glued to the group as they feel that their needs would be satisfied by the group.

vi) The group has a history of past success.

The group develops maturity and becomes cohesive or interconnected with the passage of time. Cohesiveness in a group is achieved when the group appears to be very attractive to its group members. In such type of cohesiveness, individuals value their group membership and have a very strong enthusiasm and motivation to remain members of the group. Group cohesiveness can be described as the attractiveness of a group to its members. A highly cohesive group appeals a lot to its members. The cohesiveness of a group plays important role in the performance and effectiveness of the group.

There are a large number of factors that influence cohesiveness level of a group. Those important factors can be broadly categorized into five types. They are:

- **Size of the Group:** As we know the fact that small family is more cohesive or interconnected and so is the group. The smaller the group, the more will be cohesiveness and more will be their satisfaction. The larger group will deliver dissatisfaction to its members and will be having cohesiveness. In large groups, it is normally observed that only few members of the groups try to dominate everything such as suggestion, opinion, routine functioning. It does not give other members opportunity to be part of this decision-making process. So, the large groups are more prone to conflict, members develops incompatibility with each other than small or medium size group in terms of cohesiveness.

- **Homogeneous Character of Group Members:** The greater amount of similarity felt by group members with each other's helps in building bonds of faith, trust and satisfaction among them. It enhances communication in group members. The group can be considered to be most cohesive when its members are more homogenous in terms of age, sex, education, marital status etc. The members also share certain attitudes, values, experiences and other characteristics that are common to each other. Groups whose members have different interests and backgrounds are often less effective in promoting their interests.
- **Success of Group:** The success of the group makes it cohesive. The sense of realization is developed among group members to avoid differences for accomplishing group goals. The groups become s attractive to its members when the groups become successful in achieving its goals. This further enhances cohesiveness in the group.
- **Competition with Other Groups:** Group cohesiveness is increased in the organisation when competition between groups increases. The growing competition among groups in an organization motivates members of each group to come together for achieving group goals. This is the one basic reason where organizations promote group cohesiveness by having work groups competition in the organisation between /among groups over sales target, zero defect production, minimization of wastages; etc. The recognition of group names and publicizing gives them encouragement and also encourages healthy competition. It maintains good quality and maintains extra ordinary working levels among the groups.
- **Exclusiveness:** The group exclusiveness states the status of the group in the organisation. It implies to the superiority and selectiveness of a group that it possesses to appoint its members. It is also the extent where an outsider looks up to its ground members. It also provides special rights and privileges to its group members. The cohesive group members become more active participants in the group activities. It also increases the level of communication within the group. The cohesive group members share a common goal and develop high group loyalty and unit together to fight out any threat. The flow of information is very fast in cohesive work group.

Benefits of group cohesiveness

There are many benefits to group cohesiveness. Here are just four general benefits:

- The communication within the group is much more extensive. In other words, people who like each other communicate better and more frequently with each other.
- Groups that are more cohesive have positive interactions with one another. People are friendlier and there is an increased feeling of the group as a whole. As a result, the group acts as a whole not as individuals.
- A group that has a high level of group cohesiveness is much more successful in achieving their goal. The feeling of togetherness in the group motivates members to achieve the desired goal and their efforts increase.
- The members in groups that are cohesive are much more satisfied with that group. As a result, they are more willing to stay in the group longer and often recommend the group to others.

Group Cohesiveness, performance norms and Productivity

Group cohesiveness and productivity do not seem to be related. Highly cohesive groups need not necessarily be highly productive or vice versa. Researches also could not establish any relationship, positive or negative, between these two variables. However it has usually been observed that a cohesive group is more productive than a less cohesive group, the group's attitude favors the goals of the organization. As the members of the group they follow the guidelines prepared by the group.

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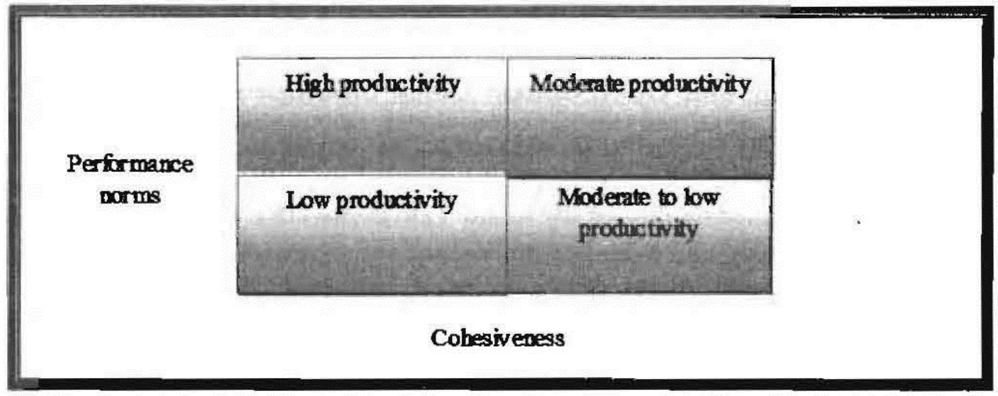
If the group supports the organizational goals, the members will tend to produce more. On the other hand, where cohesiveness is high but the group does not favor the organizational goals, productivity of the member's declines. Where the group norms are not supportive of performance, cohesive groups are less productive. When resistance to organizational changes is greater and where proper leadership is not provided, such groups can affect productivity severely. If management wishes to minimize productivity, it must build cohesiveness, which does not directly influence productivity but only indirectly depending upon the alignment of group goals with the organizational goals. Thus, relationship of cohesiveness and productivity of the group depends on the alignment of the group's attitude towards the organizational goals (setting performance norms). This relationship has been presented below in the figure.



4.8 OBSTACLES TO GROUP PRODUCTIVITY

Managers should be aware of the obstacles to group productivity so that they can look for ways to overcome them. The obstacles are:

1) **Breakdown in Role Development:** - Breakdowns in role development may result in the ambiguity, role conflict or role overload. Any of these conditions can be an obstacle to group productivity.

   a) **Role Ambiguity:** - Role ambiguity means the prescribed behavior of the employee is not clear. Whether a group is formal or informal, many of the group's role expectations typically have not been put in whiting, nor are they explicitly communicated. In new situations or under changing conditions, there may not even be implicit sent roles because no one in the group is sure of appropriate roles in certain group situations. When a sent role is unclear or incomplete, the result is role ambiguity or uncertainty about the content of an expected role.

   b) **Role Conflict:** When an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations, the result is role conflict. It exists when an individual finds that compliance with one role requirement may make more difficult the compliance with another. At the extreme, it would include situations in which two or more role expectations are mutually contradictory. Role conflict may take the form of person- role conflict, intra-role conflict and inter-role conflict.

      i. **Person-role Conflict:** - Person-role conflict means the requirements of a person's role violate his or her Personnel values, needs, and attitudes.

      ii. **Intra-role Conflict:** - Arises when different people expectations for a role are incompatible. In other words, if an employee satisfies one person's view of his or her role, the employee will fall short of another person's expectations. This type of conflict is more likely for roles with a complex set of expectations.

iii. **Inter-role Conflict:** - Occurs when the multiple roles performed by a person involve incompatible expectation. A common type of inter-role conflict involves the competing demands of being a wife, a mother and an employee.

Role conflict, like other forms of conflict, can be a major source of stress. Therefore, effective groups limit role conflict.

c) **Role Overload:** - Role overload is a situation where expected roles exceed a group member's abilities. Role overload arises not from the nature of a particular role but from the number of roles a person takes on. Thus, an employee who is manager in a firm, has a demanding wife, has three small children and also serves on several committees could well suffer from role overload. To be effective, groups seek to avoid role overload. They can do this in pail by matching assignments to group members' abilities.

2) **Group think:** - According to **Irving Janis**, group think is "a deterioration of mental ability, reality testing, and moral judgment resulting from in-group pressures". Thus, the overemphasis on consensus; was agreement leads members to be unwilling to evaluate group members ideas critically. This hinders decision-making and becomes an obstacle to group productivity. Certain conditions favor the development of groupthink.

   a) The first condition is high cohesiveness. Cohesive groups tend to avoid conflicts and to demand conformity.

   b) The second is other antecedents including directive leadership, high stress, insulation of the group and lack of methodical procedures for developing and evaluating alternatives.

Symptoms of Group think and how to prevent it: - A group suffering from group think displays recognizable symptoms.

- Illusions of invulnerability: - Group members feel they are above criticism. This symptom leads to excessive optimism and risk taking.
- Illusions of group morality: - Group members feel they are moral in their actions and therefore above reproach. This symptom leads the group to ignore the ethical implications of their decisions.
- Illusions of unanimity: - Group members believe there is unanimous agreement on the decisions. Silence is misconstrued as consent.
- Rationalization: - Group members concoct explanations for their decisions to make them appear rational and correct. The results are that other alternatives are not considered, and there is an unwillingness to reconsider the group's assumptions.
- Stereotyping the enemy: - Competitors are stereotyped as evil or stupid. This leads the group to underestimate its opposition.
- Self-censorship: Members do not express their doubts or concerns about the course of action. This prevents critical analysis of the decisions.
- Peer pressure: Any members who express doubts or concerns are pressured by other group members, who question their loyalty.
- Mind guards: Some members take it upon themselves to protect the group from negative feedback. Group members are thus shielded from information that might lead thorn to question their action.

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Guidelines for Preventing Group think:-

- Ask each group member to assume the role of a critical aviator by actively voicing objections or doubts.
- Have the leader avoid stating his or her position on the issue prior to the group decision.
- Create several groups that work on the decision simultaneously.
- Bring in outside experts to evaluate the group process.
- Appoint a devil's advocate to question the group's course of action consistently.
- Evaluate the competition carefully, posing as many different motivations and intentions as possible.
- Once consensus is reached, encourage the group to rethink its position by re-examining the alternatives.

3) **Social Loafing:** - Social loafing occurs when one or more group members rely on the efforts of other group members and fail to contribute their own time, effort, thoughts or other resources to a group.

This may create a real drag on the group's efforts and achievements. When a group carries out a task, it is harder to attribute the group's output to individual contributions. Some group members may engage in social loafing, or doing less than their share of the work on the assumption that group's results will not indicate the individual's failure to contribute.

A number of methods for countering social loafing exist, such as having identifiable individual contributions to the group product and member self-evaluation systems. For example, if each group member is responsible for a specific input to the group, a members' failure to continue will be noticed by everyone. If members must formally evaluate their contributions to the group, they are less likely to loaf.

Production Blocking: Production blocking is limiting another person's output by getting in his or her way. Production blocking occurs when too many employees are trying to work in a given amount of space or when the organization has poorly planned the use of its facilities. It can also occur when the organization assigns more than the optimal number of employees to carry out a task.

UNDERSTANDING GROUP PRODUCTIVITY

The most important factor that can influence group productivity is the motivation of group members, group cohesiveness and the group's communication structure.

1) **Member Motivation:** - Effectively enhancing the motivation of group members can improve group productivity. This is the key to getting individual group members to improve their own as well as group productivity. Individual group members need Io be motivated to work toward group objectives that are in line with organizational objectives.

2) **Group Goals:** - A group as a whole will be motivated if its members shate a belief that the group can achieve its objectives. They are most likely to believe this if the necessary resources are available, group members receive performance feedback, and the group has a history of successful performance.

3) **Reward Structure:** - Another factor in group motivation is the way the organization structures its reward system. There are two types of reward system:

- ***Cooperative group reward*** is the one that tied to the group's overall performance, with each group member receiving the same reward. This

Check Your Progress

3. What is Group structure?
4. Briefly describe the term Group norms?
5. Define Group cohesiveness.

type of reward does not recognize differences in the extent to which each individual contributes to the group's success. However, when the nature of the task makes contributions highly interdependent, cooperative group rewards play an important role in fostering the necessary cooperation and coordination.

- ***Competitive group reward*** is a system of rewarding individual group members for successfully performing as individuals within the group. The system tries to structure rewards equitably to reflect each person's actual contributions to the group's success. Underlying this system is an assumption that for the group to do its best each member must do his or her best and this performance should be recognized and rewarded.

4) **Membership as a Motivator:** - If group members strongly identify with a group, they will be motivated to adhere to its norms. If the group's norms support effective and efficient performance, the organization benefits.

5) **Cohesiveness:** - Cohesiveness enhances productivity only when the group's norms are consistent with the organization's norms. If a group has low productivity norms, the organization is better off if the group is not cohesive. If a manager observes that a group has high productivity norms, the manager should foster cohesiveness. This basically entails making group participation rewarding. Giving the group recognition for its successes can reinforce pride or belonging to the group. Encouraging frequent interaction among group members helps build understanding and closeness within the group. When appropriate, cooperative group rewards can further strengthen cohesiveness.

6) **Communication Structure:** - A group's communication structure includes the directions in which communications flow within the group and the media used for sending messages. Managers can improve group performance by providing access to communication media that facilitates communication among group members and by fostering a communication network suited to the group's tasks. To make the most of these efforts, managers must create an environment that encourages and recognizes communication from employees regardless of individual differences.

4.9 MANAGEMENT CAN ADOPT TWO APPROACHES:

1. **Structural Approach:** - Structural approach deals with designing the formal organization in such a way as to be sympathetic to informal organization. This can be achieved in the following ways:
   - The work should be assigned in terms of "meaningful end-products". This will enable group members to see their contributions directly and encourage them to associate themselves more closely with the work.
   - People with all the skills necessary to complete the assigned work should be placed as close as possible to the point of action.
   - An operating unit should be supplied with full facts on, its work. Since the unit receives the information promptly on its progress and has full authority to make changes, its members may become so engrossed with the result that they will avoid other social groups.
2. **Behavioral Approach:** - Managements can adopt flexible and accommodating approach towards informal organization rather than a strong repressive approach to solve a problem arising out of its functioning. This can be achieved in the following ways:

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- Management should reassure people that it is not against the informal organization.
- While making decisions like creating committees, changing work structure, etc., influence of informal organization should be taken into account.

Management can refrain from taking such action or creating the sort of environment, which is unnecessarily threatening to the informal organization.

4.10 GROUP PROCESSES

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

Social Facilitation

Social facilitation refers to the influence of the presence of others persons on one's performance.

The term social facilitation refers to a psychological theory that people are more successful at completing simple, familiar tasks if they are working within a group or in front of an audience. The theory also states that people are less successful at completing complicated, unfamiliar tasks under the same conditions. This tendency was first noted in the late 1800s by **Norman Triplett** and confirmed through experimentation.

Try to recall your own behavior. When you are performing an easy task or something which you know very well, there is a possibility that other group members such as parents or teachers will evaluate your work, and you try to show your best performance. On the other hand, such awareness interferes with your ability to perform when the task is complex and your performance decreases.

Social facilitation theory attempts to identify the effects of a social environment on a person's task performance. When a person is given a familiar or simple task to complete in social setting, such as working in a group, the presence of others seems to have a positive effect and improves performance. This positive outcome, called the **social facilitation effect,** also occurs if the person has an audience watching for the whole time or just part of it. The promise of someone stopping in to check on the worker also improves performance.

The theory of social facilitation identifies a change in the behavior when the attempted task is more complicated or unfamiliar. In these instances, the presence of others, such as observers or those working along with the person given the task, actually has a negative effect. The person will actually perform worse with others around than alone.

Norman Triplett first noticed the phenomenon among bicycle racers, and tested it by having children perform the simple task of winding thread using a fishing rod and reel. He found that when children worked together, they went much faster than if each completed the task alone. Over the next few decades, it was found that the social facilitation effect occurred regardless of competition, but that it actually harmed performance on complex tasks.

Because of operation in social facilitation effect and effect of group factors, two types of features may appear in groups: synergy in group and social loafing.

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Synergy in group

Synergy is a term used in biology that refers to "an action of two or more substances that results in an effect that is different from the individual summation of the substances." The concept of synergy is quite popular in strategic management and it is defined as follows:

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

Synergy usually happens when two persons with different complimentary skills co-operate. You don't get just the benefit of 2 persons but it multiplies exponentially to the extent of receiving at minimum 4 times the feedback of individuals. Corporate synergy incorporates two distinct results:

- increased revenue through combined efforts of all employees of the company
- and in terms of management the outcome being team building and the working together and combined effort of individuals as participants of the team.

There can be positive or negative synergy outcomes. Positive synergy is the effect of "social facilitation" to the benefit of the company or person. Negative energy would have an outcome of "social loafing".

Social loafing

Social loafing is the phenomenon of people making less effort to achieve a goal when they work in a group than when they work alone. This is seen as one of the main reasons groups are sometimes less productive than the combined performance of their members working as individuals.

The main explanation for social loafing is that people feel unmotivated when working with a team, because they think that their contributions will not be evaluated or considered.

According to the results of a meta-analysis study, social loafing is a pervasive phenomenon, but it does not occur when team members feel that the task or the team itself is important. It can occur when the person feels underappreciated within their team or group.

Social loafing occurs in a group situation in which the presence of others causes relaxation instead of arousal. When individuals relax their performance, they are able to fade into the crowd, which is especially appealing to people when they know they are not going to be accountable for their actions or performance.

GROUP TASKS

The group's task is to get the job done. People who are concerned with the task tend to make suggestions as to the best way to proceed or deal with a problem; attempt to summarize what has been covered or what has been going on in the group; give or ask for facts, ideas, opinions, feelings, feedback, or search for alternatives and keep the group on target; prevent going off on tangents. Relationship means how well people in the group work together. People who are concerned with relationship tend to be more concerned with how people feel than how much they know. They help others to get into the discussion, try to reconcile disagreements and encourage people with friendly remarks and gestures. A group member who can play a variety of tasks sand relationship roles and can avoid self-oriented roles will be most helpful to the group

The size-performance relationship is moderated by the group's task requirements. Factors effecting group effectiveness when performing tasks:

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- The impact of group processes on the group's performance and member satisfaction is also moderated by the tasks that the group is doing.
- The evidence indicates that the complexity and interdependence of tasks influence the group's effectiveness.
- Tasks can be generalized as either simple or complex. Complex tasks are ones that tend to be novel or non-routine.
- The more complex the task, the more the group will benefit from discussion of alternatives.
- If there is a high degree of interdependence among the tasks that group members must perform, they will need to interact more.
- For simple tasks that are routine and standardized, group members can rely on standardized operating procedures for doing the job.
- Tasks that have higher uncertainty—those that are complex and interdependent—require more information processing.

4.11 GROUP DECISION MAKING

Group decision making is an activity on the old adage, "two heads are better than one." It permits many persons simultaneously to interact and to arrive at a decision. Thus group decision making has following features:

- Group decision making is a type of participatoty process in which multiple individuals acting collectively, analyze problems or situations, consider and evaluate alternative courses of action, and select from among the alternatives a solution or solutions.
- The number of people involved in group decision-making varies greatly, but often ranges from two to seven. The individuals in a group may be demographically similar or quite diverse.
- Decision-making groups may be relatively informal in nature, or formally designated and charged with a specific goal.
- The process used to arrive at decisions may be unstructured or structured.
- The nature and composition of groups, their size, demographic makeup, structure, and purpose, all affect their functioning to some degree. The external contingencies faced by groups (time pressure and conflicting goals) impact the development and effectiveness of decision-making groups as well.

In organizations many decisions of consequence are made after some form of group decision-making process is undertaken. However, groups are not the only form of collective work arrangement. Group decision-making should be distinguished from the concepts of teams, teamwork, and self managed teams. Although the words teams and groups are often used interchangeably, scholars increasingly differentiate between the two. The basis for the distinction seems to be that teams act more collectively and achieve greater synergy of effort.

Katzenbach and Smith spell out specific differences between decision making groups and teams:

- The group has a definite leader, but the team has shared leadership roles
- Members of a group have individual accountability; the team has both individual and collective accountability.

- The group measures effectiveness indirectly, but the team measures performance directly through their collective work product.
- The group discusses, decides, and delegates, but the team discusses, decides, and does real work.

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4.12 GROUP DECISION MAKING METHODS

There are many methods or procedures that can be used by groups. Each is designed to improve the decision-making process in some way. Some of the more common group decision-making methods are brainstorming, dialectical inquiry, nominal group technique, and the Delphi technique.

Brainstorming

Brainstorming involves group members verbally suggesting ideas or alternative courses of action. The "brainstorming session" is usually relatively unstructured. The situation at hand is described in as much detail as necessary so that group members have a complete understanding of the issue or problem. The group leader or facilitator then solicits ideas from all members of the group. Usually, the group leader or facilitator will record the ideas presented on a flip chart or marker board.

The "generation of alternatives" stage is clearly differentiated from the "alternative evaluation" stage, as group members are not allowed to evaluate suggestions until all ideas have been presented. Once the ideas of the group members have been exhausted, the group members then begin the process of evaluating the utility of the different suggestions presented.

Brainstorming is a useful means by which to generate alternatives, but does not offer much in the way of process for the evaluation of alternatives or the selection of a proposed course of action.

One of the difficulties with brainstorming is that despite the prohibition against judging ideas until all group members have had their say, some individuals are hesitant to propose ideas because they fear the judgment or ridicule of other group members. In recent years, some decision-making groups have utilized electronic brainstorming, which allows group members to propose alternatives by means of e-mail or another electronic means, such as an online posting board or discussion room. Members could conceivably offer their ideas anonymously, which should increase the likelihood that individuals will offer unique and creative ideas without fear of the harsh judgment of others.

Dialectical inquiry

Dialectical inquiry is a group decision-making technique that focuses on ensuring full consideration of alternatives. Essentially, it involves dividing the group into opposing sides, which debate the advantages and disadvantages of proposed solutions or decisions. A similar group decision-making method, devil's advocacy, requires that one member of the group highlights the potential problems with a proposed decision. Both of these techniques are designed to try and make sure that the group considers all possible ramifications of its decision.

Nominal group technique

The nominal group technique is a structured decision making process in which group members are required to compose a comprehensive list of their ideas or proposed alternatives in writing. The group members usually record their ideas privately. Once finished, each group member is asked, in turn, to provide one item from their list until all ideas or alternatives have been publicly recorded on a flip chart or marker board.

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Usually, at this stage of the process verbal exchanges are limited to requests for clarification—no evaluation or criticism of listed ideas is permitted. Once all proposals are listed publicly, the group engages in a discussion of the listed alternatives, which ends in some form of ranking or rating in order of preference. As with brainstorming, the prohibition against criticizing proposals as they are presented is designed to overcome individuals' reluctance to share their ideas. Empirical research conducted on group decision making offers some evidence that the nominal group technique succeeds in generating a greater number of decision alternatives that are of relatively high quality.

Delphi technique

The Delphi technique is a group decision-making process that can be used by decision-making groups when the individual members are in different physical locations. The technique was developed at the **Rand Corporation**. The individuals in the Delphi "group" are usually selected because of the specific knowledge or expertise of the problem they possess.

In the Delphi technique, each group member is asked to independently provide ideas, input, and/or alternative solutions to the decision problem in successive stages. These inputs may be provided in a variety of ways, such as e-mail, fax, or online in a discussion room or electronic bulletin board. After each stage in the process, other group members ask questions and alternatives are ranked or rated in some fashion. After an indefinite number of rounds, the group eventually arrives at a consensus decision on the best course of action.

Advantages and disadvantages of group decision making

The effectiveness of decision-making groups can be affected by a variety of factors. Thus, it is not possible to suggest that "group decision making is always better" or "group decision making is always worse" than individual decision-making. In general, this research suggests that demographic diversity can sometimes have positive or negative effects, depending on the specific situation.

The following section summarizes the major pros and cons of decision making in groups.

Advantages of group decision making

- Group decision-making, ideally, takes advantage of the diverse strengths and expertise of its members. By tapping the unique qualities of group members, it is possible that the group can generate a greater number of alternatives that are of higher quality than the individual. If a greater number of higher quality alternatives are generated, then it is likely that the group will eventually reach a superior problem solution than the individual.
- Group decision-making may also lead to a greater collective understanding of the eventual course of action chosen, since it is possible that many affected by the decision implementation actually had input into the decision.
- This may promote a sense of "ownership" of the decision, which is likely to contribute to a greater acceptance of the course of action selected and greater commitment on the part of the affected individuals to make the course of action successful.

Disadvantages of group decision making

- There are many potential disadvantages to group decision-making. Groups are generally slower to arrive at decisions than individuals, so sometimes it is difficult to utilize them in situations where decisions must be made very quickly. One of the most often cited problems is **groupthink**. Irving Janis, in his 1972 book Victims of Groupthink, defined the phenomenon as the "deterioration of mental efficiency, reality testing, and moral judgment resulting from in-group pressure." Groupthink occurs when individuals in a group feel pressure to conform to what seems to be the dominant view in the group. Dissenting views of the majority opinion are suppressed and alternative courses of action are not fully explored.

- Research suggests that certain characteristics of groups contribute to groupthink. In the first place, if the group does not have an agreed upon process for developing and evaluating alternatives, it is possible that an incomplete set of alternatives will be considered and that different courses of action will not be fully explored. Many of the formal decision-making processes (e.g., nominal group technique and brain-storming) are designed, in part, to reduce the potential for groupthink by ensuring that group members offer and consider a large number of decision alternatives. Secondly, if a powerful leader dominates the group, other group members may quickly conform to the dominant view. Additionally, if the group is under stress and/ or time pressure, groupthink may occur. Finally, studies suggest that highly cohesive groups are more susceptible to groupthink.
- **Group polarization** is another potential disadvantage of group decision-making. This is the tendency of the group to join on more extreme solutions to a problem. The "risky shift" phenomenon is an example of polarization; it occurs when the group decision is a riskier one than any of the group members would have made individually. This may result because individuals in a group sometimes do not feel as much responsibility and accountability for the actions of the group as they would if they were making the decision alone.

Decision-making in groups is a fact of organizational life for many individuals. Because so many individuals spend at least some of their work time in decision-making groups, groups are the subjects of hundreds of research studies each year. Despite this, there is still much to learn about the development and functioning of groups. Research is likely to continue to focus on identifying processes that will make group decision-making more efficient and effective. It is also likely to examine how the internal characteristics of groups (demographic and cognitive diversity) and the external contingencies faced by groups affect their functioning.

CASE STUDY

Hindustan Lever Research Centre (HLRC) was set up in the year 1967 at Mumbai. At that time the primary challenge was to find suitable alternatives to the edible oils and fats that were being used as raw materials for soaps. Later, import substitution and export obligations directed the focus towards non-edible oil seeds, infant foods, perfumery chemicals, fine chemicals, polymers and nickel catalyst. This facilitated creation of new brands which helped build new businesses.HUL believes in meritocracy and has a comprehensive performance management system, which ensures that people are rewarded according to their performance and abilities. Almost 47% of the entire managerial cadres are people who have joined us through lateral recruitment. Over the years many break through innovations have taken place. Hindustan Lever Research gained eminence within Unilever Global R&D and became recognized as one of the six global R&D Centers of Unilever with the creation of Unilever Research India in Bangalore in 1997.At Bangalore R&D center, a team of 10 scientists were appointed for a project on 'shampoo' line. Suranjan Sircar heading the team as Principal Research Scientist with the support of Vikas Pawar, Aparna Damle, Jaideep Chatterjee, Amitava Pramanik as Research Scientists. Suresh Jayaraman & Punam

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Bandyopadhyay were Research Associates.Vikas Pawar came up with an idea of pet shampoos during brainstorming with the team."Hey, why don't we target the pet care segment because in India, pet industry is being seriously looked at as a growing industry. I had been working on this concept for a few weeks & have done some initial research as well", said Vikas. "I think we should just focus on the dog segment & bring out a range of shampoos that are breed specific", contributed by Aparna Damle, who was a new unmarried scientist in the company. "Ohthat's a really great idea, a breakthrough" said Jaideep & Amitava appreciating Aparna.The idea given by Aparna got support from both colleagues & head.Vikas was although not comfortable with his credit being taken away. He also felt that creating brand specific shampoos would not be a profitable innovation thus, no point concentrating efforts on that. With this in mind he put his point forward but couldn't gather consensus. After the discussion, Jaideep & Amitava being friends to Vikas, consoled him & showed confidence in his plan & thoughts. "We understand what you are going through. The idea was yours & Aparna took all your credit. Don't worry we are with you & be careful from next time."

Nevertheless, in the meeting Aparna presented her proposal for the idea mentioning requirements & chemical details. The meeting began with motivational speech & plan of action by the head of the team. A lot was discussed in detail & tasks were allotted alongwith deadlines. Immediately after the presentation Jaideep & Amitava approached Aparna & eulogized her research & proposal reiterating the importance of breed specific range of shampoos.Vikas lay aside his ego & went ahead with full dedication & commitment, however during the tenure of the research he noticed poor attitude of team members. Punam was not regular with deadlines; she submitted her research on breeds four days after deadline.Suresh was asked to coordinate with members looking into chemical research but Vikas observed him most of the times in the recreation room, so he asked him "Hi, so what's the progress in chemical research so far?" Suresh replied that he had done whatever hewas asked to do by senior scientist. He report this lack of commitment & proactive attitude to Suranjan Sircir & asked for an action against them. "Hmm... I know what's happening in the team. I have worked for 20 years in this industry & from my experience I know what to do & when to do", he retorted back. Finally the project got completed 4 months after deadline. Vikas went back to the lab; sitting & wondering at the flaws in the group.

Q1 Analyze group behavior of the team. Study the informal & formal groups In this case

.Q2 Point out flaws in the group & recommend solutions to overcome them.

4.13 SUMMARY:

- A group consists of two or more persons who interact with each other, consciously for the achievement of certain common objectives. Group is close association of two or more individuals interacting among themselves for the accomplishments of similar goals.
- In organizational development (OD), or group dynamics, the phrase "group process" refers to the understanding of the behavior of people in groups, such as task groups, that are trying to solve a problem or make a decision.
- The purpose behind group formation may be task achievement problem-solving, proximiry or others socio-psychological requirements.

- The five stages perspective is probably the best-known theory of how groups develop over time. The five stage group development model given by Tuckman and Jensen characterizes groups as proceeding through five distinct stages: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning.
- Group structure is a pattern of relationships among members that hold the group together and help it achieve assigned goals.
- Group composition is most often defined in terms of homogeneity or heterogeneity of the group members.
- A group is homogeneous if the members are similar in one or several ways that are critical to the work of the group, such as age, work experience, education, technical specialty etc.
- In a hererogeneous group, the members differ in one or more ways that are critical to the work of the group.
- Norms are acceptable standards of behavior within a group that are shared by the members of the group. Norms define the boundaries of acceptable and unacceptable behavior.
- Cohesiveness refers to the bonding of group members and their desire to remain part of the group.
- Synergy is a term used in biology that refers to "an action of two or more substances that results in an effect that is different from the individual summation of the substances."
- Social loafing is the phenomenon of people making less effort to achieve a goal when they work in a group than when they work alone.
- Group decision-making methods are brainstorming, dialectical inquiry, nominal group technique, and the Delphi technique.
- Brainstorming involves group members verbally suggesting ideas or alternative courses of action. The "brainstorming session" is usually relatively unstructured.
- Dialectical inquiry is a group decision-making technique that focuses on ensuring full consideration of alternatives. Essentially, it involves dividing the group into opposing sides, which debate the advantages and disadvantages of proposed solutions or decisions.
- The nominal group technique is a structured decision making process in which group members are required to compose a comprehensive list of their ideas or proposed alrernatives in writing.
- The Delphi technique is a group decision-making process that can be used by decision-making groups when the individual members are in different physical locations.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. A group consists of two or more persons who interact with each other, consciously for the achievement of certain common objectives.
2. Group dynamics is the study of groups and also a general term for group processes.
3. Group structure is a pattern of relationships among members that hold the group together and help it to achieve assigned goals.
4. Norms are acceptable standard of behavior within a group that is shared by

the members of the group.

5. Cohesiveness refers to the bonding of group members and their desire to remain part of group.

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4.14 TEST YOURSELF :

1) What do you mean by Group? Explain features and types of group.
2) Write a short note on Group Dynamics.
3) What is the purpose behind group formation?
4) What are different theories of Group formation?
5) Explain Five-Stage Model of Group Development.
6) What factors affect the performance of group?
7) What do you mean by Group cohesiveness?
8) Explain methods of Group decision making

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5 Power and Politics and Employee Empowerment

The Chapter Covers :

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Power is the ability to make things happen in the way an individual wants, either by self or by the subordinates. The essence of power is control over the behaviour of others (French & Raven, 1962). Managers derive power from both organizational and individual sources. These sources are called position power and personal power, respectively. Power also refers to a capacity that A has to influence the behaviour of B, so that B acts in accordance with A's wishes. The greater B's dependence on A, the greater is A's power in the relationship. Therefore, power is a function of dependency (Robbins, 2003).

In short, the term 'Power' may be defined as the capacity to apply influence over others. If the person has power, it means that he is able to influence the behavior of other individuals. The essence of power is control over the behavior of others.

According to Anonymous, "The degree of influence an individual or group has in decision-making, without being authorized by the organization to do so."

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According to P. Robbins, "Power is define as the ability to influence and control anything that is of value of others."

Power refers to the potential or actual ability to indigence others in a desire direction. As an exchange relationship, power occurs in transaction between an agent and a target. The agent is the poison using the power and the target is the recipient of the attempt to use power. Different individuals and groups within and outside the organization can exit power. Individual employees, including top and middle management, technical analysts and specialists, support staff, and other non managerial workers can influence the actions an organization takes to reach its goals. Formal groups of employees, such as various departments work teams, management councils, task forces, or employee unions, as well as informal groups such as those workers with offices near each other or those who see each other socially, can similarly exercise power non-employees may also try to influence the behavior of an organization and its members. Owners, supplier clients, competitions, employed unions, the general public and directors of the organization may exert power that affects the organization. Thus, ***we may define power as the ability of a person (or group A) to induce another person (or group B) to behave in a way that the former desires.***

Because power is ability, individuals can learn to use it effectively. Influence the process of affecting the thoughts, behavior and feelings of another person. Authority is the right to influence another person. It is important to understand the subtle differences between these terms. For example a .manager may have affix but no power. He or she may have the right, by virtue of his or her position as boss, to tell someone what to do. But he or she may not have the skill or ability to influence other people.

Power is used not only in getting a certain result achieved but it includes impact on negative decisions, or the action of not deciding also. Therefore power is not only one's influence over the decision making, but also one's capability of limiting the scope of actual decision making.

5.2 Characteristics of power

1. Power can be potential or enacted.
2. Power represents the capacity, ability or potential to influence the behavior of other people to achieve a certain goal.
3. Leaders exercise power to accomplish goals of an organization.
4. Leaders have only as much power as others allow them to have.
5. Sometimes appearing to be powerful is just as important as being powerful.
6. Power is nether completely neither formal nor informal. It is rather a judicious mixture of two.

5.3 Importance of Power

Power is a crucial factor influencing the behavior in organizations. The importance of power can be analyzed in two ways:

1. **Necessary for coordinating activities:** Power is required for the effective performance of the activities of the people in the organization. Without power there may be chaos which is undesirable because:
    a. People become upset and feel unsecure in the presence of chaos
    b. Chaos prevents the synergistic benefits that are gained from effective organizations.

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People may be willing to obey the power, although without any legitimacy. It has been observed that "A person may like success more than he dislikes being controlled by another's power."

2. **Basis for authority and responsibility:** Power is commonly recognized as the basis of authority and responsibility. In other words, authority can be viewed as one of the prerequisites of power.

   Power is also the basis of responsibility. Responsibility is the obligation to carry out any function or discharge a duty. In formal organizations, responsibility is fixed on the basis of allocation of activities through the process of organizing.

Responses to the use of power

The possible responses to the use of power may vary along a continuum as shown in figure below:

I. **Resistance:** The target person on whom the power is exercised may resist the influence and may not behave in accordance to influencer's wishes. The attempt of influence may be frustrated by the person.

II. **Obedience:** The person may surrender to influence though he would rather not. When people are forced to behave against their wishes, it is referred to as obedience.

III. **Compliance:** The person may comply with the desire of the influencer. Compliance refers to a person's acceptance of influence because he is expected to be rewarded for responding to a request or punished for not responding to it.

IV. **Conformity:** The person may conform to the influencer's desire. Conformity refers to acceptance of influence because people desire to be in mainstream of social behavior. Often, people who are free to behave in different ways, will simply do what they see others doing.

V. **Commitment:** The person may show commitment to the desire of the influencer. This is the most desirable outcome from the use of power as there is enthusiastic release of energy and talent to satisfy the influencer's requests.

5.4 Power and authority

Power and authority are so closely linked that both are used ro denote the same meaning, at least, in practice. However, there is difference between the two, in order to understand this difference, let us first define authority and identify its features. The term authority is defined in various ways in management literature.

As per the classical analysis:-

"Authority may be defined as the power to make decisions which guide the actions of another. It is the relationship between the two individuals; one superior, another subordinate."

"Authority is - the willing and unconditional compliance of people, resting upon their belief that it is legitimate for superior to impose his will on them and illegitimate for them to refuse to obey."

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In modern organizations, authority exists in the context of relationship among various positions.

"Authority in the organization is the power in a position (and through it, the person occupying the position) to exercise discretion in making decisions affecting others."

Based on the definition of authority, we can identify the features of authority which are as follows:

1) There is existence of right in authority. This right is given to a manager in an organization by his superior. This right puts a manager in opposition by which he regulates the behavior of his subordinates to act or not to act in certain ways.
2) The right of giving of order is legitimate. Unless there is an environment of legitimacy- meaning socially and ethically acceptable to all concerned- authority cannot be meaningful and operational.
3) Authority gives right of decision making because a manager can give order only when he decides what is to be or not to be done by his subordinates. As Teray has pointed out, the authority is exercised by making decisions and seeing that they are carried out.
4) The basic objective behind the use of authority is to influence the behavior of the subordinates in terms of doing right things at right time so that organizations objectives are achieved.
5) The use of authority may control the negative aspects of behavior. This behavior may be governed by persuasion, sanctions, request, coercion, constraints, force, etc.
6) Authority in itself is an objective thing but it's exercise is always subjective. The use of authority is determined by the personality factors of its possessor and the persons or group of persons in whose context this is made.

Let us look at the following analysis:

S.no	Basis	Authority	Power
i)	Nature	Authority is the right to command.	Power is the ability to exercise influence.
ii)	Association with position	Authority of a person is associated with the position in the formal organization.	Power has no relation with position.
iii)	Relationship	The structure of an organization merely shows authority – responsibility relationships.	The authority – responsibility relationships are modified by power politics in the organization.
iv)	Flow	Authority is a downward flowing concept.	Power flows in all direction.
v)	Pervasiveness	Authority rests with important positions in the organization.	An informal leader may be more powerful than a department head.
vi)	Formal/ Informal	Authority is inherent in the official positions in the organizations and so it is always formal.	Power can be either formal or informal.

5.5 Sources of power /Bases of Power

Understanding the bases of power is important because these generate different types of power and a particular type of power is effective in a particular situation. Having

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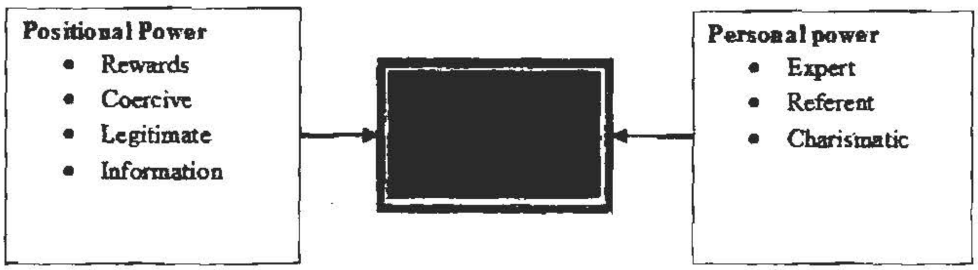
power and using power are two different things. For example, imagine a manager who has the power to reward or punish employees. When the manager makes a request, he or she will probably be obeyed even though the manager does not actually reward the employee. The fact that the manager has the ability to give rewards and punishments will be enough for employees to follow the request. Raven has identified power bases into two broad categories: Positional and personal power. Within each category there are different types of power as shown in figure below:



Positional Power

This power is also known as formal power. Positional power emerges from the position that an individual hold in an organization. Thus, it is similar to authority that vests in a position. The power of position remains the same irrespective of who holds the position. Positional power may be of four types: legitimate, reward, coercive, and information.

A. **Legitimate Power:** Legitimate power is based on agreemenr and commonly held values allowing one person to have power over another person. It comes from one's organizarional role or position. Such legitimacy can be either formal, as is the case with the organization, or may be informal, as is the case with social units.

   For example, a boss can assign projects, a policeman can arrest a citizen, and a teacher assigns grades. Others obey with the requests these individuals make because they accept the legitimacy of the position, whether they like or agree with the request or not.

   Steve Jobs has enjoyed legitimate power as the CEO of Apple. He could set deadlines and employees meet the terms even if they think the deadlines were overly ambitious. Start-up organizations often have founders who use their legitimate power to influence individuals to work long hours week after week in order to help the company survive.

B. **Reward Power:** Reward power is the ability to grant a reward, such as an increase in pay, a perk, or an attractive job assignment. It is based on one's control and allocation of material resources and rewards. This power is based on old saying that '**wealth is power**'. Reward power tends to accompany legitimate power and is highest when the reward is scarce. Anyone can exercise reward power, however, in the form of public praise or giving someone something in exchange for their obedience. People comply with this power because they get benefits out of their compliance. The symbolic rewards may be in the form of prestige, affection, esteem, etc.

   When Steve Jobs ran Apple, he had reward power in the form of raises and promotions. Another example of reward power comes from Bill Gross, founder of Idealab, who has the power to launch new companies or not. He created his company with the idea of launching other new companies as soon as they could develop viable ideas.

Check Your Progress

1. What is Power?
2. What are different sources of Power?

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C. **Coercive Power:** Coercive power is the opposite of reward power. It is the ability to take something away or punish someone for noncompliance. It is the power which rests upon the application or the threat of application of physical sanctions. Coercive power often works through fear and it forces people to do something that ordinarily they would not choose to do. The most extreme example of coercion is government dictators who threaten physical harm for noncompliance. Parents may also use coercion such as grounding their child as punishment for noncompliance. Steve Jobs has been known to use coercion—yelling at employees and threatening to fire them.

D. **Information Power:** Information power comes from access to and control of information. People in organization who have information that others need can make those dependent on them. For example, persons who have access to sensitive information like organization's future course of action, confidential financial data, etc., can use this information to influence subordinates behavior in a particular way. It is similar to expert power but differs in its source. Experts tend to have a vast amount of knowledge or skill, whereas information power is distinguished by access to specific information. For example, knowing price information gives a person information power during negotiations. Within organizations, a person's social network can either isolate them from information power or serve to create it.

5.6 Personal Power

Personal power is informal and resides with a person, regardless of his position in the organization. Since personal power lacks organizational authority, an individual's personal power emerges from his qualities that are unique. These qualities help him persuading others to follow him willingly. Because of followers' willingness, an individual with personal power can inspire greater loyalty and dedication in followers than someone who has only positional power. There are three bases of personal power: expert power, referent power, and charismatic power.

A. **Expert Power:** Expert power is based on the famous proverb '**knowledge is power**'. This power comes from knowledge, experience or some special skill. This power occurs when the expert threatens to withhold his knowledge or skill. The implication of expert power is important in the sense that this is related with the individual's personal characteristics. Since more organizations are falling under the category of high technology, they will have to utilize the services of these individuals. Steve Jobs has expert power from his ability to know what customers want—even before they can articulate it. Others who have expert power in an organization include long-time employees, such as a steelworker who knows the temperature combinations and length of time to get the best yields.

B. **Referent Power:** Referent power stems from the personal characteristics of the person such as the degree to which we like, respect, and want to be like them. Referent power is based on identification. Identification is the process of learning wherein a person copies the behavior of other person whom he takes as an ideal. This may occur in the context of power also. Thus, this power is based on identification. The target of the influence feels attracted towards the person having power because of his personality characteristics and tries to behave accordingly.

C. **Charismatic Power:** Charismatic power emerges from an individual's charisma, a quality that is unique. It is the ability to attract others, to win their admiration, and hold them spellbound. Because of this charisma, the indi-

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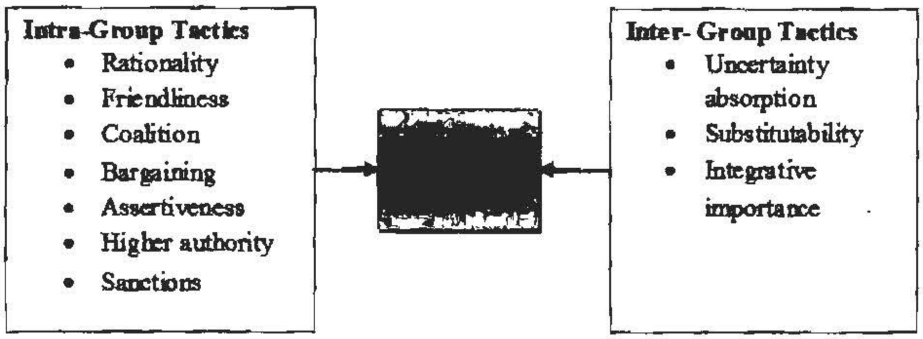
vidual can articulate attractive visions, take personal risk, demonstrate environmental sensitivity, and is willing to engage in behavior that most others consider unusual. Charismatic power has been more popular in political fields and some great persons like Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King, etc., had much higher influence without having any significant position in the political party than those having such positions.

Tactics to gain power

People use different tactics to gain power. Power tactics are used by individuals on their own, within groups (intra-group), and between groups (inter group) in order to influence people and events. Influence can be used in positive or negative way. When used positively, we can expect beneficial outcomes.



5.7 Individual and Inter-Group tactics

i. **Rationality:** Use of facts and data to make a logical or rational presentation of ideas.

ii. **Friendliness:** Use of flattery, creation of goodwill, acting humble and being friendly prior to making a request.

iii. **Coalition:** Getting the support of other people in the organization to back up the request.

iv. **Bargaining:** Use of negotiation through the exchange of benefits or favors.

v. **Assertiveness:** Use of direct and forceful approach such as demanding compliance with requests, repeating reminders, ordering individuals to do what is asked, and pointing out that rules require compliance.

vi. **Higher authority:** Gaining the support of higher levels in the organization to back up requests.

vii. **Sanctions:** Use of organizationally derived rewards and punishments such as preventing or promising a salary increase, threatening to give an unsatisfactory performance evaluation, or withholding a promotion.

5.8 Inter-Group Power tactics

i) **Uncertainty absorption:** There are entail expert groups, industrial relations, for example, in organizations whose services can be used in times of need. When used, such expert group gains power over the users of its service.

ii) **Sub-suitability:** In the above example cited above, if the user of the service can find a substitute provider (e.g., an outside consultant), then the power of the specialist can be reduced or eliminated. However, external providers are usually not substituted for internal experts, provided such groups exist.

iii) **Integrative importance:** Integrative importance arises when a group's services are needed by other groups within the organization in order that the latter can function effectively.

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Tactics to use power

We can now turn our attention to how people use their power, that is, they translate their power bases into specific actions. Research study suggests that managers hold different tactics to influence their targets. These are as follows:

	Upward action	**Downward action**
Most Popular ↕ **Least Popular**	Reason Coalition Friendliness Bargaining Assertiveness Higher authority	Reason Assertiveness Friendliness Coalition Bargaining Higher authority Sanctions

The research study states that people do not rely on these tactics equally. Since power can be applied upward (when subordinates attempt to influence superior) and downward (when superiors attempt to influence subordinates), relative use of various tactics differs in two directions.

It can be seen from the figure that reason is the most popular tactics to use power in both upward and downward directions. Sanctions which can be used only in downward direction are the least popular.

5.9 Organizational Politics

Meaning and definition of Organizational Politics

Politics is universal phenomenon. Politics relates to the way a person is able to get power over others and the way in which he uses power over others.

Political behavior is not limited to those who hold public positions. It is found in every organization. Organizational politics are informal, unofficial, and sometimes hidden efforts to sell ideas, influence an organization, increase power, or achieve other targeted objectives.

Organizational politics is a natural part of organizational life. Organizations that are driven by unhealthy levels of political behavior suffer from lowered employee organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and performance as well as higher levels of job anxiety and depression.

According to Stephen P. Robbins, "Politics in organization are those activities that are not required as part of one's formal role in the organization, bit that influence, the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organization."

According to Farrell and Peterson, "Politics in an organization refers to those activities that are not required as part of one's formal role in the organization, but that influence or attempt the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organization."

Politics is defined as those activities that are not required as part of one's formal tole in the organization, but that influence, or attempt to influence, the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organization.

Organizational politics is the management of influence to obtain ends not sanctioned by the organization or to obtain sanctioned ends through non-sanctioned means and the art of creative compromise among competing interests. The above definition clearly points out the following:

a. Political behaviour fall outside the ambit of one's specified job requirements.

b. It includes efforts to influence the goal, criteria, or processes employed for decision-making.

c. It includes a variety of political behaviours such as, withholding vital information from decision makers, whistle-blowing, spreading rumors, leaking confidential information, etc.

In this context, it is necessary to make a distinction between legitimate and illegitimate power dimensions within organizational contexts.

Features of Politics

1) Political behavior involves some kind of power either directly or indirectly. Power can be exercised by those who are in formal positions and enjoy authority. It can also be influenced by other persons close to those who hold formal authority.

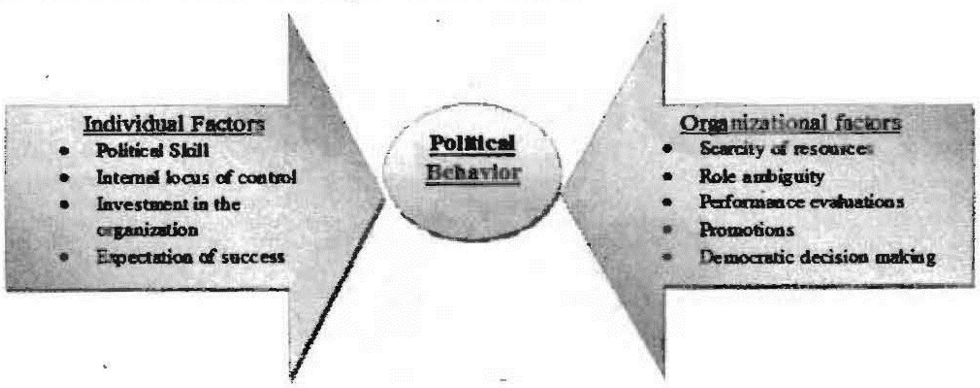
2) Politics involves behavior that is self-serving. It suggests that either organizational resources are used for personal benefits or benefits to be given to one person are given to another. In both the cases, the decision is not rational from organization's point of view.

3) Politics takes place when an individual recognizes that achievement of his goals is influenced by the behavior of others. In such case, politics involves the elimination of adversaries by the influential maneuvers of a member of the organization.

4) All self-serving behaviors which do not involve use of power or threat of use of power cannot be termed as politics. For example, an employee's asking for a rise is not political behavior, but the uses of threat unionize to obtain to obtain a pay rise amounts to political behavior.

Factors Influencing Political behavior

A number of factors are responsible for political behavior. These factors are grouped into individual factors and organizational factors:



5.10 Individual factors

- Political skill refers to peoples' interpersonal style, including their ability to relate well to others, self-monitor, alter their reactions depending upon the situation they are in, and inspire confidence and trust. Researchers have found that individuals who are high on political skill are more effective at their jobs or at least in influencing their supervisors' performance ratings of them.

- Individuals who are **high in internal locus of control** believe that they can make a difference in organizational outcomes. They do not leave things to destiny. Therefore, those people who are high in internal locus of control

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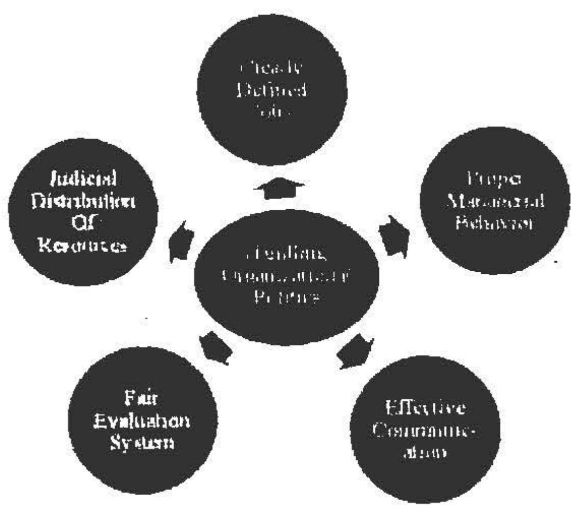
engage in more political behavior. Research shows that these individuals perceive politics around them to a greater degree.

- **Investment in the organization** is also related to political behavior. If a person is highly invested in an organization either financially or emotionally, they will be more likely to engage in political behavior because they care deeply about the fate of the organization.
- Finally, **expectations of success** also matter. When a person expects that they will be successful in changing an outcome, they are more likely to engage in political behavior.

5.11 Organizational factors

- Politics arises from scarcity of **resources**. When resources such as monetary incentives or promotions are limited, people see the organization as more political.
- Any type of uncertainty can relate to greater organizational politics. For example, **role ambiguity** allows individuals to negotiate and redefine their roles. This freedom can become a political process. Research shows that when people do not feel clear about their job responsibilities, they perceive the organization as more political.
- Ambiguity also exists around **performance evaluations and promotions**. These human resource practices can lead to greater political behavior, such as impression management, throughout the organization. As you might imagine, democratic decision making leads to more political behavior. Since many people have a say in the process of making decisions, there are more people available to be influenced.

5.12 Handling Organization Politics



1) **Clearly defined jobs:** The top management should clearly define duties to recognize individual contributions. This will enable employees to know what they are expected to accomplish and provide a criterion for evaluation.
2) **Proper managerial behavior:** The managers should demonstrate proper behaviors because subordinates are often perceptive and follow their example. They should not support directly or indirectly and political behavior of the subordinate. It managers are perceived to be insecure, incapable, or irresponsible; it's an invitation to political planning by subordinates.
3) **Effective communication:** There should be two-way communication throughout the organization. The top management must know the perceptions of

the subordinates on various behaviors. If management is responsive to the needs and aspirations of the employees, undesirable political behavior will be reduced to a great extent.

4) **Fair evaluation system:** There should be an objective system of performance appraisal of subordinates. The scope for bias in appraisal should be reduced to the minimum. Moreover, performance should be the only basis of rewards such as increments, promotion, etc.

5) **Judicial distribution of resources:** Within an organization, various factions compete for financial and human resources. A systematic approach for allocating resources according to justifiable criteria is advantageous and has the potential of reducing excessive political behavior.

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5.13 EMPOWERMENT

Empowerment is the process by which managers help others to acquire and use the power required to make decisions affecting both themselves and their work. Moreover, today, managers in progressive organizations are expected to be competent at empowering the people with whom they work. Rather than concentrating power only at higher levels as found in the traditional "pyramid" of organizations, this concept views power to be shared by all working in flatter and more collegial structures.

The concept of empowerment is part of the decentralized structures which are found in today's corporations. Corporate staff is being cut back; layers of management and being eliminated; the number of employees is being reduced as the volume of work increases. The trend clearly is towards creating leaner and more responsive organizations which are flexible and capable of taking faster decisions with minimum bottlenecks created out of power struggles, typical of bureaucratic tall structures. The need clearly is towards having fewer managers who must share more power as they go about their daily tasks. Hence, empowerment is a key foundation of the increasingly popular self-managing work teams and other creative worker involvement groups.

The term empowerment refers to the increased involvement of employees in organizational processes and decision-making. In simple terms, "empowerment involves giving employees power and authority to make decisions on their own". People experience a feeling of helplessness when they lack the power to control their destiny. Some employees feel that their performance in the job is dependent on others in the organization and their own efforts have little impact on their performance. Such helplessness on the part of employees leads to a lowering of their self-efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to the conviction in an employee that he has the ability to successfully perform his job and make meaningful contributions towards the growth and success of the organization.

Managers in organizations should make concerted efforts to enhance the self efficacy levels of employees. Employees with low self-efficacy lack motivation and focus on their weaknesses rather than their strengths. Empowerment is one way to raise self-efficacy levels of employees. Empowerment, thus, is the process of identifying and removing the causes for low self-efficacy in employees.

Check Your Progress

3. Define Authority.
4. What organizational politics?
5. Explain the term Empowerment.

Strategies of empowering Employees: There are four major ways in which managers can empower employees in an organization. They are -

i) Provide employees with proper training, coaching and guidance to enable them ro master the skills required for their job.

ii) Draw the attention of employees to those who have attained remarkable success in the job so that they can observe the working style of their more successful colleagues. Thus, they have good role models in their colleagues.

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iii) Raise the confidence of employees through social reinforcement techniques like appreciation, encouragement and positive feedback.

iv) Provide the employees with a clear definition of their roles and with assistance when required as well as genuine concern for them, so that their stress and anxiety are reduced.

In these ways, managers can help make employees feel competent and important to the organization. One of the major approaches for empowering employees is the use of participative programmes.

In the context of industrial relations, empowerment can be practiced through the following committees and councils

These are also commonly referred to as the forms of Participation:

- Works Committee
- Joint Management Councils also known as JMC
- Worker Director
- Shop and Joint Councils
- Quality Circle

(1) **Works Committees** (1947):

The Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, provides for the setting up of bipartite works committees as a scheme of workers participation in management that consists of representatives of employers and employees.

The Act provides for these bodies in every undertaking employing 100 or more workmen.

The aim of setting up of these bodies is to promote measure for maintaining harmonious relations in the workplace and to sort out differences of opinion in respect of matters of common interest to employers and employees. Now that is an important role.

The Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, also provides for these bodies, but under the provisions of this Act they can be set up only in units that have a recognized union and they are called joint committees. The workers directly elect their representatives where there is a union.

Their functions include discussion of conditions of work like:

- Lighting
- Ventilation
- Temperature
- Sanitation
- Water supply for drinking purpose
- Provision of canteens
- Medical services
- Safe working conditions
- Administration of welfare funds
- Educational and recreational activities
- Encouragement of thrift and savings

(2) **Joint Management Councils** (JMCS 1958):

The Second Five-Year Plan recommended the setting up of joint councils of management consisting of representatives of workers and management.

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The Government of India deputed a study group (1957) to study the schemes of workers' participation in management in countries like UK, France, Belgium and Yugoslavia. The report of the study group was considered by the Indian Labour Conference (ILC) in its 15th session in 1957 and it made certain recommendations.

a. Workers participation in management schemes should be set up in selected undertakings on a voluntary basis.

b. A sub-committee consisting of representatives of employers, workers and government should be set up for considering the details of workers' participation in management schemes.

It was also recommended that the committee should select the undertakings where workers' participation in management schemes would be introduced on an experimental basis.

The objectives of Joint Management Councils are as follows:

i. To increase the association of employers and employee thereby promoting cordial industrial relations;

ii. To improve the operational efficiency of the workers;

iii. To provide welfare facilities to them

iv. To educate workers so that they are well prepared to participate in these schemes; and

v. To satisfy the psychological needs of workers.

The requirements are:

i. The unit must have 500 or more employees

ii. It should have a fair record of industrial relations

iii. It should have a well-organized trade union

iv. The management and the workers should agree to establish JMCs

v. Employers (in case if private sector) should be members of the leading Employers' Organization

vi. Trade Union should be affiliated to one of the Central Federations.

Functions:

The following are the important functions of JMCs:

a. To be consulted on matters like standing orders, retrenchment, nationalization, closure, reduction of operations etc.

b. To receive information to discuss and offer suggestions.

c. To accept administrative responsibilities like maintaining welfare measures, safety measures, training schemes, working hours, payment of rewards etc.

(3) Worker Directors (1970):

After the nationalization of banks, the Government advised all nationalized banks to appoint employee directors to their Boards - one representing employees and the other representing officers - having tenure of 3 years.

The scheme required verification of Trade Union Membership, identification of the representative union and the selection of a worker director who is chosen out of a panel of three names furnished to the Govt, by the representative union within a prescribed period.

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(4) **Shop and Joint Councils (1975 and 1977):**

The 1975 scheme has come into existence after the emergency has declared in June 1975. It has envisaged the setting up of shops councils at the shop/departmental level and joint councils at the enterprise level.

These were to be introduced in manufacturing and mining units employing 500 or more workers - whether in public, private or co-operative sector.

It was decided that the Council shall function for two years and will meet regularly to discuss matters relating to the following factors:

- Safety
- Discipline
- Physical working conditions
- Welfare measures
- Productivity norms and targets
- Absenteeism
- Flow of communications etc.

It was also decided that the joint Council having a tenure of 2 years - shall be constituted for an enterprise consisting of representatives of both the management and the labour.

The Chief Executive shall be the Chairman of the Council and the representatives of workers shall nominate the Vice Chairman.

The Council will meet once in a quarter to discuss matter that remains unsolved by shop councils including:

- Schedules of working hours,
- Holidays,
- Optimum use of material,
- Productivity standards,
- Training facilities to develop skills of workers,
- Awards to workers for creative suggestions,
- General health,
- Safety and welfare of workers, etc.

(5) **Quality Circles (QC):**

Quality circle is made up of a small group of people belonging to the same department of an organization, who after receiving training take up solving quality and productivity related problems of their units. In Japan, a QC is a group of about ten employees within a Single company department. QC is a good example of group work and WPM to increase the per-capita productivity and for making better quality and human relations in any work environment.

CASE STUDY

Mr Kanha was working I a Administration Department as officer Administration. He was responsible for keeping account of all the Vehicles of the company apart from other arrangements including the guesthouse of the company. Mr Kanha has been working in the company for 6 years in the same grade without promotions. He was supposed to be very honest in his job. Once the GM of the factory Mr Gupta , requested for the company car during office time for his personal work. Mr Kabir refused it saying that it can not be given during the office work as the work would suffer due to its duty to go to bank. Mr Gupta became quite upset and asked his boss MR srivastava to give the car.Mr Sk Srivasatava (Sr Manager Admn) was roo happy to oblige Mr Gupta as he wanted one of his relatives to be employed as Officer. Hence he fired Mr Kabir for his disobedience and threatened to transfer him to stores if he continued to show disrespect to Senior officers Kanha was also active member of staff union. He immediately went to the Union President and informed him about the misuse of the company car for private purpose by GM at the cost of the office work. It was decided that Kabir would send a note in writing to Mr Srivastava asking him to approve sending the car to the house of Mr Gupta . Mr Srivastava understood the repercussions and refused to sign the approval. He lent his own car to Mr Gupta .

1. What power was being used by Kanha ?
2. What power Mr Srivastave was using ?
3. What was the game Kabir played when Srivatava ordered the car ?

5.14 SUMMARY:

- Power is the ability to make things happen in the way an individual wants, either by self or by the subordinates.
- Power is used not only in getting a certain result achieved but it includes impact on negative decisions, or the action of not deciding also. Therefore power is not only one's influence over the decision making, but also one's capability of limiting the scope of actual decision making.
- Positional power emerges from the position that an individual hold in an organization.
- Personal power is informal and resides with a person, regardless of his position in the organization.
- Power tactics are used by individuals on their own, within groups (intragroup), and between groups (inter group) in order to influence people and events.
- Organizational politics are informal, unofficial, and sometimes hidden efforts to sell ideas, influence an organization, increase power, or achieve other targeted objectives.
- Politics is defined as those activities that are not required as part of one's formal role in the organization, but that influence, or attempt to influence, the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organization.
- Empowerment is the process by which managers help others to acquire and use the power required to make decisions affecting both themselves and their work.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Power is the ability to make things happen in the way an individual wants, either by self or by the subordinates.
2. Sources of power: Positional Power - Rewards, Coercive, Legitimate and Information. Personal Power - Expert, Reference and Charismatic.
3. Authority may be defined as the power to make decisions which guide the actions of another. It is the relationship between the two individuals, one superior and another subordinate.

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4. Politics relates to the way a person is able to get power over others and the way in which he uses power over others.
5. Empowerment is the process by which managers helps others to acquire and use the power required to make decisions affecting both themselves and their work.

5.15 TEST YOURSELF :

1) What do you mean by Power? Explain the importance and characteristics of power.
2) What are the responses to the use of power?
3) Explain the relation between power and authority.
4) Explain various sources of Power.
5) What tactics are use to gain power?
6) What do you mean by Organizational Politics?
7) What are the various factors that influence Political Behavior?

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6 Interpersonal Communication

The Chapter Covers :

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Communication in its simplest sense involve *two or more persons* who come together to share, to dialogue and to commune, or just to be together for a festival or family gathering. Dreaming, talking with someone, arguing in a discussion, speaking in public, reading a newspaper, watching TV etc. are all different kinds of communication that we are engaged in every day. Communication can be with oneself, god, and nature and with the people in our environment. Interaction, interchange, transaction, dialogue, sharing, communion, and commonness are ideas that crop up in any attempt to define the term communication.

6.2 MEANING

Communication is an art of sharing meaningful ideas, information, knowledge, experience and feelings. The word Communication is derived from the Latin word '*communis*', which means 'to make common, to transmit, and to impart'. It stands for a natural activity of all human beings to convey opinions, information, ideas, feelings, emotions to others by words spoken or written, by body language or signs.

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According to John Adair, "Communication is essentially the ability of one person to make contact with another and to make himself or herself undersrood. It is the process by which meanings are exchanged between people through the use of common set of symbols."

The American Management Association defines communication as "any behavior that results in an exchange of meaning."

George Vardman in his book 'Effective communication of ideas' defines effective communication as "Purposive interchange, resulting in workable understanding and agreement between the sender and the receiver of the message".

Peter Little says, "Communication is the process by which information are transmitted between individuals or organizations so that an understanding response results."

Allen Louis says "Communication is the sum of all the things one person does when he wants to create an understanding in the mind of another it involves a systematic and continuous process."

In the process of communication two or more persons must participate through a medium that carries the information or message for a particular purpose mutually understood by both the sender and the receiver. This process leads to a desired result as, for example, in the execution of an order, production of a report, a telephone conversation, a memorandum, etc. Therefore, following are the key elements of communication:

Key elements	Notes
Participants	The persons who are communicating have to be in touch with each other.
Medium or common language	Both parties to communication must share a common language or means of communication
Transmission of the information	The message has to be imparted clearly
Decoding or understanding	The message has to be received properly, understood and interpreted

Communication is important both for an individual and also for the society. A person's need for communication is as strong and as basic as the need to eat, sleep, and love. Communication thus involves active interaction with our environments - physical, biological and social.

6.3 Nature of communication

Whatever the form or situation or event, all communication has some clearly identifiable features that can be stated as follows:

1. **Two-way process:** Communication can take place only when there are at least two persons. One person has to convey some message and another has to receive it. The receiver, however, need not necessarily be an individual. Information may be conveyed to a group of persons at a time. For example, in classroom, the teacher conveys information to a group of students. If the receiver needs any clarification, he can ask the sender of message immediately in the case of face to face of telephonic conversation. Communication may also be sent by means of letters, circulars etc. If a letter is sent, the receiver may respond to it either by way of a reply letter or as per the mode desired by him or by the sender.

2. **Knowledge of language:** For communication to be successful, the receiver should first of all understand the message. For this, the sender must speak

in a language that is known to the receiver. For example, if the receiver cannot understand English and the sender of message conveys his ideas in English, the communication will be a failure.

3. **Meeting of minds necessary:** The receiver must understand the message in the way the sender wants him to understand. For this consensus is required. Consensus is nothing but identity of minds. If weekly target announced by a supervisor is misunderstood by a worker as monthly target, there is lack of consensus. Inattention, poor vocabulary, faulty pronunciation etc., may result in lack of consensus.
4. **The message must have substance:** The message has substance only if the receiver shows interest in the subject matter. In other words, the sender of message must have something really worthwhile for the receiver. For example, If certain botanical names are explained to a student learning commerce, he may not show any interest.
5. **Communication may be made through gestures as well:** Communication need not necessarily be made orally or in writing. Certain gestures or actions may also convey one's willingness or understanding of a given problem. Nodding of heads, rolling of eyes, movement of lips etc., are some of the gestures normally used to convey certain ideas.
6. **Communication is all-pervasive:** Communication is Omni=present. It is found in all levels of management. The top management conveys information to the middles management and vice versa. Similarly, the middle management conveys information to the supervisory staff and vice versa. There is flow of communication in all directions in a workplace.
7. **Communication is a continuous process:** In any workplace someone will be conveying or receiving some information or the other always. Sharing or exchanging information is an ongoing activity. As long as there is work – personal, official or unofficial, there will be communication.
8. **Communication may be formal or informal:** Formal communication follows the hierarchy – the official channel established. For example, if a worker wants to convey any information to the production manager, he can do only through the foreman. He cannot bypass the foreman and have direct contact with the production manager. Informal communication does not follow the official channel. It allows any individual to convey information to anybody else freely without having to bother about the hierarchy.

Functions of communication

Essentially, the primary function of communication is to inform, educate, entertain and persuade people. Following are the basic functions of communication:

1. **Education and Instruction**- This function of education starts early in life, at home and in school and continues throughout life. Communication provides knowledge, expertise, and skills for smooth functioning by people in the society. It creates awareness and gives opportunity to people to actively participate in public life.
2. **Information**- quality of our life will be poor without information. The more informed we are the more powerful we become. Communication provides information abour our surroundings. Information regarding wars, danger, crisis, famine, etc. are important for the safety and well being of our life.
3. **Entertainment**- To break the routine life and divert our attention from the stressful life we lead today, entertainment is an essential part of everybody's

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life. Communication provides endless entertainment to people through films, television, radio, drama, music, literarure, comedy, games, etc.

4. **Discussion**- debates and discussions clarify different viewpoints on issues of interest to the people. Through communication, we find out reasons for varying viewpoints and impart new ideas to others.
5. **Persuasion**- it helps in reaching for a decision on public policy so that it is helpful to govern the people. Though it is possible, that one can resort to persuasion for a bad motive. Thus, the receiver must be careful about the source of persuasion.
6. **Cultural promotion**- communication provides an opportunity for the promotion and preservation of culture and traditions. It makes the people fulfill their creative urges.
7. **Integration**-it is through communication that a large number of people across countries come to know about each other's traditions and appreciate each other's ways of life. It develops integration and tolerance towards each other.

6.4 Principles of effective communication

1. **Principle of clarity:** the beginning of all communication is some message. The message must be as clear as possible. No ambiguity should creep into it. The message can be conveyed properly only if it has been clearly formulated in the mind of the communicator.
2. **Principle of objective:** the communicator must know clearly the purpose of communication before actually transmitting the message. The objective may be to obtain information, give information, initiate action, and change another person's attitude and so on. If the purpose of communication is clear it will help in the choice of mode of communication.
3. **Principle of understanding the receiver:** understanding is the main aim of any communication. The communication must crate proper understanding in the mind of the receiver. Thus according to Killian, "communication with an awareness of the total physical and human setting in which the information will be received. Picture the place of work; determine the receptivity and understanding levels of the receivers; be aware of social climate and customs; question the information's timeliness. Ask what, when and in what manner you would like to be communicated with if you were in the similar environment and position.
4. **Principle of consistency:** the message to be communicated should be consistent with plans, policies, programmes and goals of the enterprise. The message should not be conflicting with previous communications. It should not create confusion and chaos in the organization.
5. **Principle of completeness:** the message to be communicated must be adequate and complete; otherwise it will be misunderstood by the receiver. Inadequate communication delayed action, poor public relations affects the efficiency of the parties to communication.
6. **Principle of feedback:** this principle calls for communication a two-way process and providing opportunity for suggestion and criticism. Since the receiver is to accept and carry out the instructions, his reactions must be known to the sender of message. The latter must consider the suggestion and criticism of the receiver of information. But feedback principle is often given a back seat by most managers, which defeats the very purpose of communication.

7. **Principle of time:** information should be communicated at the right time. The communicator must consider the timing of communication so that the desired response is created in the minds of the receivers.

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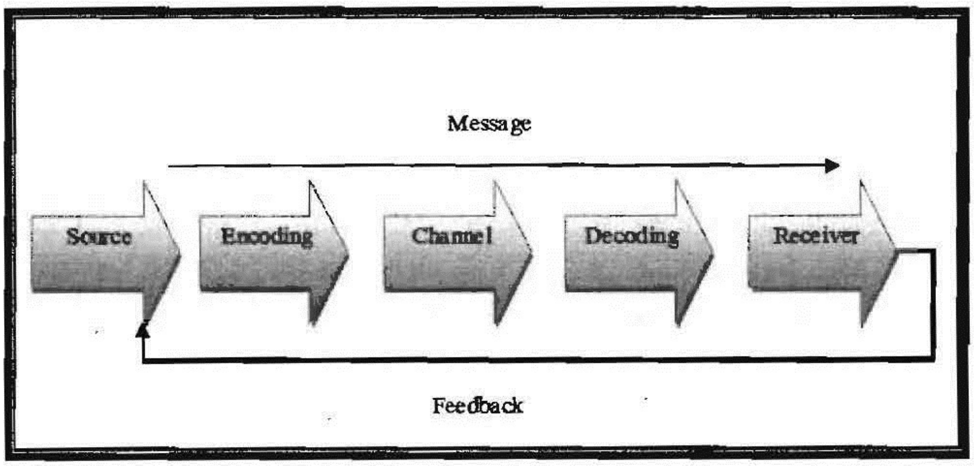
Characteristics of effective communication process

The real meaning of communication is getting the receiver and the sender tuned together for a particular message. The essential features of an effective communication system are keys for productive communication. The chief principles or characteristics of an effective communication system are as follows: -

- Communication is a two way process.
- Communication always happens between or among two or more parties-sender and receiver.
- Communication involves an exchange of facts, ideas, feelings or thoughts.
- Communication uses verbal ways like words spoken or written, or non-verbal ways like gestures, postures, etc.
- Communication needs a mutuality of understanding between sender and receiver.

6.5 Process of communication



1) **The source:** The source is the place or the person from where the message being communicated emerges.
2) **Encoding:** In communication, the act of producing message, for example, speaking or writing is termed as encoding.
3) **The message:** The message is the actual physical product from the source encoding. When we speak the speech is the message.
4) **Channel:** The channel is the medium through which the message travels. It is selected by the source who must determine whether to use formal or informal channel.
5) **Decoding:** The act of understanding messages is known as decoding. When the sound waves are translated into ideas, thus listeners and readers are often regarded as decoders.
6) **Receivers:** The receiver is the object to whom the message is directed. But before the message can be received, the symbols in it must be translated into a form that can be understood by the receiver.
7) **Feedback:** The final link in the communication process is the feedback loop. Feedback is the check on how successful we have been, in transferring our messages as originally intended.

BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

NOTES

In each process of communication – encoding, transference and decoding, there may be possibility of interface. It may hamper the communication process. This is known as noise. It is just like carrying water in leaky bucket. Barriers are also major difficulties during message transferred. To ensure clarity in communication, barriers must be eliminated or minimized.

- **Linguistic and cultural differences:** It creates the problem for receiver to complete or understand the language used by the transmitter.
- **Environment:** Noise is the basic barriers in the types of environment barriers of communication.
- **Channel:** A faulty fax machine, a crackling phone or illegible hand-writing can be barriers of channel communication.
- **Receiver's Attitude and Behavior:** The type comes basically in organization to satisfy clients. It can lead the inaccurate hearing of the information.
- **Transmission Journey:** There can be some difficulties during transmission journey. So, it is necessary to repeat the massage and use more than one channel to communicate a message.
- **Lack of Planning:** Purpose to communicate a person should be very clear. So, planning is the most effective thing to void lack of planning in communication.
- **Semantic Distortion:** The distortion comes in the uses of words. It may be a serious barrier to effective communication.

At last, we can sum up communication definition, function, process and barriers. To handle a person or an organization it is the most necessary thing to understand communication, communication process and communication barriers. There should be a planned way of communication to understand or send a message.

6.6 IMPORTANCE AND PURPOSE OF COMMUNICATION

Purpose of communication

Communication is a process whereby information is enclosed in a package and is channeled and imparted by a sender to a receiver via some medium. The receiver then decodes the message and gives the sender a feedback. All forms of communication require a sender, a message, and a receiver.

Communication is a method that allows people to exchange information by one of numerous methods. There are hearing means, such as words or singing, and nonverbal, material means, such as body talking, sign language, paralanguage, feel or eye contact. As a course, communication has synonyms such as expressing outlook, conversing, verbal communication, corresponding, inscription, listening and exchanging. People communicate to satisfy needs in together their work and non-work lives. People want to be heard, to be appreciated and to be wanted. They also desire to complete tasks and to achieve goals. Obviously, then, a major purpose of communication is to help people feel. The purpose of any given communication may be:

a) To initiate some action;

b) To impart information, ideas, attitudes, beliefs or feelings; and /or

c) To establish, acknowledge or maintain links or relations with other people.

Initiating Action: Initiating action may be achieved by two basic categories of communication.

> ***Check Your Progress***
> 1. What is Communication?
> 2. What is formal channel of communication?

1 **Expressing needs and requirements:** This can range from a baby's cry – or even the bleep of an alarm clock – to an adult's more precious expression of needs and wants. In a business organization, it would include briefings, instructions and procedure manuals. This will only be effective where the other person is willing to satisfy the needs.

2 **Persuading and motivating others:** It means to carry out the desired course of action" in other words, giving them a reason (other than one's own want or need) to perform that action. Persuasion of this kind is likely to be a major element in marketing and sales: a sales reply cannot simply ask a customer to buy the product because she, the sale rep, needs a success. She must show that there are benefits to the consumer, which will make the purchase worthwhile.

Imparting Information: Imparting information, ideas, attitudes, beliefs and feelings may have any number of specific purposes.

- Creating awareness
- Creating understanding
- Persuading others
- Influencing others

Information gathering is a constant activity of human beings. We receive a great deal of data and information in our daily lives, only some of which we seek or consciously absorb. Think about it: news bulletins, books, bank statements, business information, gossip, thing people tell you, things you ask them. This list is endless.

Remember that other people may be seeking information in the messages you 'send' (and in the tone of your voice and other indications of what is 'between the lines'). This information may or may not be something you wish to communicate: you will need to be aware of it before your listener/reader is.

Establishing relations: Establishing, acknowledging and maintaining relationship with other people is a vital function of communication.

Importance of communication

Following are the factors that are responsible for importance of communication in organizations:

a) **Large size of organizations:** We are living in the age of mega organizations. Modern organizations are indeed surprising in size as compared to the enterprises of yesteryears. Many of them have thousands of people working together in one unit or likewise in different units spread in different states or across the globe. The result is that, the levels of hierarchy have gone up. There are generally, five levels of hierarchy. But in many cases, there are thirteen to fifteen levels. It is indeed a difficult task to manage a juggernaut like such a huge organizations. Communication is of vital importance in directing people, getting feedback and so on.

b) **Growth of trade unions:** Associations ot unions of workers, especially after the World war- I, have been emerging as a force. No system of management can work efficiently without taking the worker's union into confidence. The managers must have to negotiate with the representatives of the employees on various issues affecting the employment conditions prevailing in the organizations. In this regard, communication plays the most vital role.

c) **The human relations aspect:** It has been increasingly recognized that the management's role is to integrate people in order to encourage them so that they are in a position to perform to the best of their capacity. This is essentially a social process. Communication helps a manager in developing meaningful relationships, changing attitudes, boosting morale and soliciting cooperation. So, communication is very central to any organization as a tool of building and maintaining human relations.

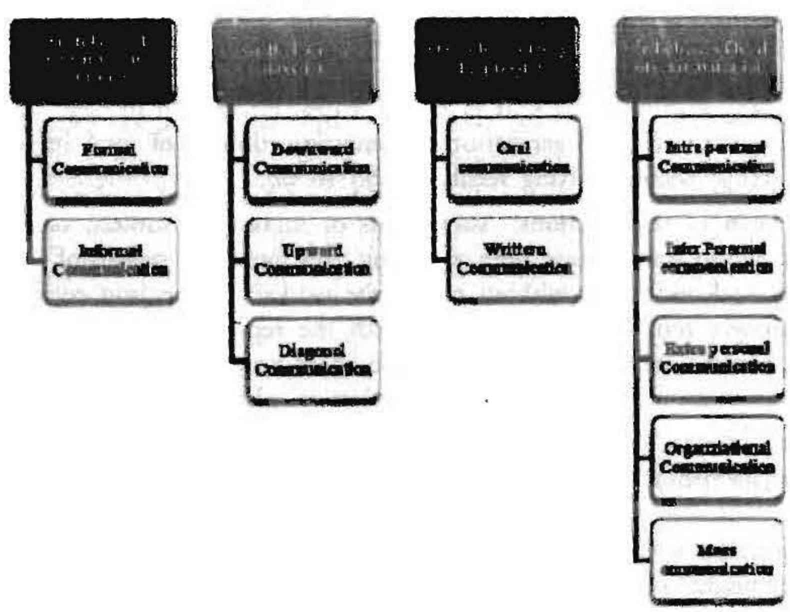
d) **Public relations aspect:** Organizations serve the society at large in various fields and aspects. Like other aspects of management, the idea of social responsibility of business got focused and the managers came to be held responsible to various sections of society, especially the customers, government, suppliers and public. Communication between them and the organization is necessary for putting the proper image of the whole business in perspective. Managers, therefore, have to be good communicators with the society. They have to be wisely sensitive to the internal as well as external environment of the organization.

e) **Technological advancement:** The world is changing fast owing to scientific and technological advancements. This affects the relationship between superiors and subordinates very vitally. If there is no communication between the two, the work suffers and complaints and disputes may crop up. Technology affects not only the methods of working but also the composition of groups. Such changes disturb the inner-relationships and pose a challenge to the management to educate the subordinates so that they may smoothly adapt to the dynamic character of the organization.

f) **Advances in behavioral sciences:** Management today is profoundly influenced by the advances and thrilling discoveries and theories of behavioral sciences like sociology and psychology, transaction analysis, philosophy, etc. The sum total of these thinkers and educators is that we start looking at human nature from very different angles, appreciating different aspects of human behavior and become better communication.

TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

The efficiency of an organization depends on a regular flow of messages of all kinds. Communication between members of a large corporate house is very necessary for its proper functioning. It may be upward, downward, diagonal and grapevine. It is also known as dimensions or channels of communication. Communication in an organisation may be either external or internal. External communication concerns with correspondence with those outside the organization. Internal is concerned with communication within the organisation.



On the basis of Direction

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1. **Downward Communication:** Downward communication is generally found in all major organizations. It is communication in the organization which starts from higher authority to downward authority, like the board of directors-managers-assistant manager-purchase officer-executive-clerk etc. Communication passes in this order is called downward communication. Ir flows from a higher level in an organization to a lower level is a downward communication. In other words, communication from superiors to subordinates in a chain of command is a downward communication. This communication flow is used by the managers to transmit work-related information to the employees at lower levels. Employees require this information for performing their jobs and for meeting the expectations of their managers.

   Downward communication is used by the managers for the purposes like Providing feedback on employees performance, Giving job instructions, Providing a complete understanding of the employees job as well as to communicate them how their job is related to other jobs in the organization, Communicating the organizations mission and vision to the employees, and Highlighting the areas of attention.

   Organizational publications, circulars, letter to employees, group meetings etc are all examples of downward communication. In order to have effective and error-free downward communication, managers must:

   - Specify communication objective
   - Ensure that the message is accurate, specific and unambiguous.

Objectives of Downward Communication:

- To give specified directions about the job being entrusted to a subordinate
- To explain policies and organizational procedures
- To appraise the subordinates for their performance
- To give information to the subordinates about the rational of their job so that they understand the significance of their job in relation with the organizational goal

Advantages of downward communication:

- It is a convenient channel through which simple information can be spread easily.
- Major decisions are conveyed through this type of communication.
- It helps to assign specific duties to a newly appointed individual.
- Individual members can interact with those to whom they are accountable.
- Appreciation can be done through this type of communication.

Limitations of downward communication:

- Downward communication is often found either under communication or over communication i.e. superior may either talk too little or too much about a job.
- Downward communication being a very long channel, transmitting information ro the lowest worker is a time consuming process and in this process there is a chance of loss of information.

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- Sometimes message can reach beyond time limit. In this process there is a chance of exaggeration, understatement, and twist of matter due to its long time.
- Downward communication is too much authoritarian process where subordinates do not get any opportunity to participating in the decision process.

2. **Upward Communication:** The communication channel which starts from the bottom level to the top level is called upward communication. For example, worker conveys message to production manager, he conveys it to the director of company etc. It is a channel which passes the flow of information upward. The subordinates use upward communication to tell how well they have understood the downward communication. It can also be used by the employees to share their views and ideas and to participate in the decision-making process.

   Upward communication leads to a more committed and loyal workforce in an organization because the employees are given a chance to raise and speak dissatisfaction issues to the higher levels. The managers get to know about the employees feelings towards their jobs, peers, supervisor and organization in general. Managers can thus accordingly take actions for improving things.

   Grievance Redressal System, Complaint and Suggestion Box, Job Satisfaction surveys etc all help in improving upward communication. Other examples of Upward Communication are -performance reports made by low level management for reviewing by higher level management, employee attitude surveys, letters from employees, employee-manager discussions etc.

   <u>Advantages of upward communication</u>

   - Upward communication provides the management with necessary feedback. It also provides valuable information on what the employees think of the organization and its policies. It gives an opportunity to workers to say their problems and complaints.
   - Upward communication is also important for workers' suggestions for the welfare of an organization. This process provides a chance to workers to take part in the decision making process which creates harmony between the workers and the management.

   <u>Limitations of Upward Communication:</u>

   - Upward communication is difficult as it moves upward against the force of gravity - means workers hesitate to initiate for upward communication. Workers cannot enter easily in the area of management. They afraid of the reaction from management.
   - At bottom level people have less power; it is very difficult for them to give their views, suggestions, and complaints to top level. There is no surety of complete communication in upward communication as there are so many barriers in its path. Workers at the lowest level are not efficient communicators so their communication oral or written may not be accurate and may not be welcomed by superiors.

The upward and downward flow of information along the formal lines of authority in the organization structure is called **vertical communication.**

3. **Horizontal (or lateral) Communication:** Horizontal communication refers to the flow of communication among the people at the same level of authority.

Many time people with the same level of authority consider it necessary to exchange thoughts or views amongst themselves. This channel is very common in big organizations. The main objective of horizontal communication are developing team work and promoting group coordination within an organization.

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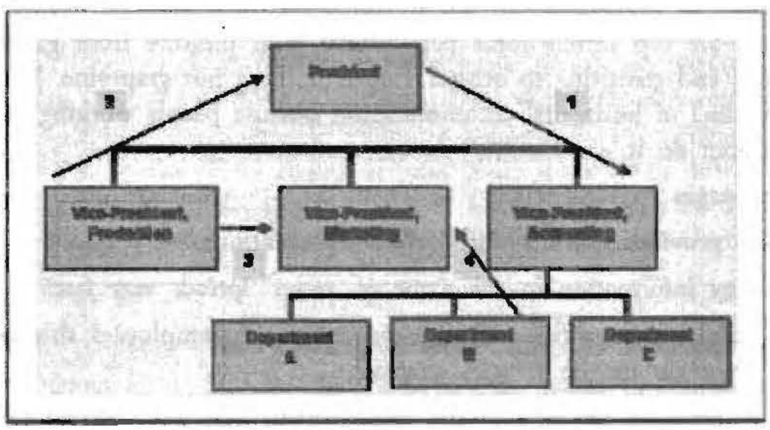
4. **Diagonal (or Crosswise) Communication:** Communication between departments or employees in the same organization without any hierarchy is called diagonal communication. It is the most used channel of communication. Workers communicate with other workers, clerks sharing information with one another, managers discusses some organizational problems are all engaged in diagonal communication. Diagonal communication is extremely important for promoting, understanding and co-ordination among various departments. It can take place among any employees of the organization. In this type of communication anybody without any hesitation can enter into this process for discussion. It most effectively carried on through oral communication. Group discussion, face to face exchange of views or a brief conversation are diagonal communication.

The types of communication given above are explained in the diagram given below to give brief view of their structure. Formal communication channels follow the organizational structure or hierarchy and flow in four directions:



These four directions in which communication can travel are: downward; upward; lateral or horizontal; and diagonal.

- **Downward** (1) communication involves communication from higher to lower levels so that leadership can communicate goals, strategies or role expectations.
- **Upward** (2) communication flows from lower levels to higher levels of the organisation, for example, when there is a need to communicate problems, results or suggestions.
- **Horizontal** (3) communication occurs across the same level and involves for example, coordination of activities with peers (teams, committees), dissemination of useful information from one department to another (for example sales forecasts from the sales department to production, and problems such as a problem with product design from the production department to research and development). Horizontal communication facilitates the l inking of different areas of expertise and this may encourage innovation.

Check Your Progress

4. What are language barriers of communication?
5. Name different physical barriers of communication.

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- **Diagonal** (4) channels may potentially cause conflict as they involve communication between the lower levels of one department to a higher level in another. In the diagram above, this may cause friction between the employee in accounting department C and the Vice-President (VP) of Accounting as the employee has gone around his or her own superior. Nevertheless this type of communication, may be useful as it may simply be information relevant to the Marketing Department and the VP Accounting does not need to be involved.

On the basis of organizational structure

1. **Formal communication** networks also occur within the hierarchy of the organisation and reflect how groups of employees, for example those in a department, work together. Networking or mapping the flow of communication in an organisation can be a useful device. This can identify who is communicating with whom and whether the lines of communication are effective and efficient, or whether there is potential for destructive conflict or tension arising from the communication channels (for example, inappropriate diagonal communication).

2. **Grapevine Communication:** An ***informal channel of communication*** in an organization is called grapevine. It follows no set lines or any definite rules but spreads very fast in any direction. For example people working together take interest in one another and talk about appointments, promotions, demotions or even domestic and romantic affairs of another. Though all these things are top secrets some people take great pleasure from gathering such secrets and transiting to others. This is nothing but grapevine. It is basically a channel of horizontal communication because people working at the same level can do it.

   Advantages of Grapevine:

   - It provides much needed release to emotions.
   - Any information in the name of 'secret' spreads very fast.
   - Information which can't be transmitted to employees through official channels can be sent by grapevine.
   - It provides feedback to the management. The management can tactfully spread some information through it and wait for the reaction.

   Limitations of Grapevine:

   - One of the major limitations of the grapevine is that it may spread baseless news which may harm the employees.
   - Misunderstanding can be taken place because sometimes it transmits incomplete information.
   - It can cause serious damage before management becomes aware of it.

On the basis of levels of communications

The levels of communication can be described under the following heads.

- Intrapersonal Communication
- Interpersonal Communication
- Extra personal Communication
- Organizational Communication
- Mass Communication

Intrapersonal Communication: This communication occurs within the individual's brain in the form of internal dialogue, as one can't stop communicating with himself. In fact when we communicate with other person, internal dialogue with oneself continues - verifying the truth, using logical reasoning etc. For example, when one gets injured, the brain gets information and then sends the feedback that he should consult a doctor or take medicine. This is nothing but intrapersonal communication.

Interpersonal Communication: This level of communication includes ideas or information shared by people. This can assume in the form of face to face conversation, video conferencing, and telephonic talk and soon. It takes place in our day to day life. This level of communication is beneficiary as doubts can be clarified instantly and immediate feedback is possible. Interpersonal communication depends on the chemistry between two parties involved. The environment and cultural context also play their vital role. Besides it can be formal and informal.

Extra personal Communication: Extra personal communication occurs between human beings and non-human beings in which sign language is used to transmit information or to respond. For example when a pet dog feels hungry, it comes to its keeper wagging its tail; it is nothing but an extra personal communication. It may involve the process of prayer or some other form of religious worship. It could also take place in the form of rites, or ceremonies. Extra personal communication can be a very personal thing, or it can be something done with a large group of people, such as in a temple or a church, or any other place of religious worship. In this form of communication, the elements of receiver, channel and feedback are defined by the sender(s).

Organizational Communication: Communication between members of a big organization is organizational communication. It may be upward, downward, diagonal and grapevine. This type of communication is extremely necessary for the smooth working of any organization. This can be divided in three aspects:

- **Internal-operational:** All communication that occurs in organization is classified as internal-operational.
- **External-operational:** Work related communication with people outside the organization is called extra-operational.
- **Personal:** All communication in an organization without purpose is called personal communication.

Mass Communication: In this level of communication, information are transmitted to the public at large through media such as television, radio, internet, books, journals and newspapers. Information in the oral form requires equipments such as microphones, amplifiers and information in the written form requires electronic or print media. It plays an important role in boosting the image of the organization and attracting customers.

6.7 CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is the sharing of information for a variety of purposes including informing, persuading, motivating or influencing. In an organization, information flows forward, backwards and sideways. This information flow is referred to as communication. Communication channels refer to the way this information flows within the organization and with other organizations. In this web known as communication, a manager becomes a link. Decisions and directions flow upwards or downwards or sideways depending on the position of the manager in the communication web. For example, reports from lower level manager will flow upwards. A good manager has to inspire, steer and organize his employees efficiently, and for all this, the tools in his possession are spoken and written words.

For the flow of information and for a manager to handle his employees, it is important for an effectual communication channel to be in place.

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Importance of a Communication Channel

A breakdown in the communication channel leads to an inefficient flow in information. Employees are unaware of what the company expects of them. They are uninformed of what is going on in the company.

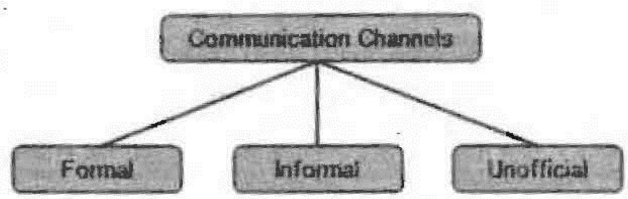
This will cause them to become suspicious of motives and any changes in the company. Also without effective communication, employees become department minded rather than company minded, and this affects their decision making and productivity in the workplace.

Eventually, this harms the overall organizational objectives as well. Hence in order for an organization to be run effectively, a good manager should be able to communicate to his/her employees what is expected of them, make sure they are fully aware of company policies and any upcoming changes.

Therefore, an effective communication channel should be implemented by managers to optimize worker productivity to ensure the smooth running of the organization.

6.8 Types of Communication Channels

The number of communication channels available to a manager has increased over the last 20 years. Video conferencing, mobile technology, electronic bulletin boards and fax machines are some of the new possibilities. As organizations grow in size, managers cannot rely on face to face communication alone to get their message across. A challenge the manager face today is to determine what type of communication channel should they opt for in order to carryout effective communication. In order to make a manager's task easier, the types of communication channels are grouped into three main groups: formal, informal and unofficial.



Formal Communication Channels

A formal communication channel transmits information such as the goals, policies, and procedures of an organization. Messages in this type of communication channel follow a chain of command. This means information flows from a manager to his subordinates and they in turn pass on the information to the next level of staff.

An example of a formal communication channel is a company's newsletter which gives employees as well as the clients a clear idea of a company's goals and vision. It also includes the transfer of information with regard to memoranda, reports, directions, and scheduled meetings in the chain of command. A business plan, customer satisfaction survey, annual reports, employer's manual, review meetings are all formal communication channels.

Formal communication is organized and managed information that is shared with relevant individuals in order to secure coordinated action throughout the organiza-

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tion. Formal communication channels are based on an individual's role in the organization and distributed in an organized way according to the established chain in organizational charts.

Typically, formal communication flows "downward" from executives to directors to managers to staff regarding company direction and instruction and "upward" from staff to managers to directors to executives in the form of data and reports. The communication flowing through these channels is specific to the jobs and departments.

Such formal communication is well established and planned. For example, reports and data from staff are organized are generally submitted in prescribed templates and according to a set schedule.

Formal communication was designed primarily as a means of controlling agency activities and personnel through the circulation of authoritative policies and procedures stating what was to be done when, where, how, and by whom. Formal communication has always been considered the "regular" system (or "channels") of communication within organizations. It is impersonal (station to station), official, and, in most cases, written. The purposes of formal communication are to command, to instruct, and to finalize matters through the application of regulations.

6.9 Advantages of formal communication:

1. Because formal communication is official, it is more binding and thus more likely to be obeyed.
2. Because formal communication is written, it is more precise and thus less likely to be misunderstood.
3. Because formal communication is written, it is traceable at all times and can be preserved (with numerous copies available for distribution).
4. Because it is official, formal communication establishes responsibility of the sender and receiver beyond any doubt.
5. Formal communication saves time and effott that would otherwise be consumed in informal talks, in discussions, and perhaps in arguments.
6. Formal communication avoids the embarrassment of face-to-face contact between the parties when the subject of communication is sensitive or painful.

Disadvantages of formal communication:

1. It is too rigid, in that it limits information within the department to that sanctioned by the chief or supervisor.
2. It follows a classic format commonly referred to as "bureaucratic jargon," the cautious phraseology of which is not conducive to true understanding and often serves to obscure the real meaning of a communication.
3. It fails, in most cases, to identify the reasons behind the message; and this lack of explanation can be very frustrating to the recipient.
4. It is costly in terms of secretarial effort, reproduction costs, and delivery time.

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5. It smacks of authoritarianism, since orders descend to a much greater extent than reports and feedback ascend to leadership positions (and since social matters are seldom mentioned).
6. It fails to motivate employ, since it is usually impersonal and final.
7. It often underestimates the intelligence of recipients by focusing on elementary or trivial matters.
8. It can be divisive, separating personnel into "recipients" and "non-recipients."

6.10 Informal Communication Channels

Within a formal working environment, there always exists an informal communication network. The strict hierarchical web of communication cannot function efficiently on its own and hence there exists a communication channel outside of this web. While this type of communication channel may disrupt the chain of command, a good manager needs to find the fine balance between the formal and informal communication channel.

Informal communication in the workplace satisfies a variety of needs, particularly social and emotional, and is not based on the positions individuals occupy within the organizations. As a result, the communication is not managed or planned in any organized fashion. It's more relaxed, casual and tends to be spread by word-of-mouth quickly throughout a department or organization because it's not restricted to approvals and an established path of distribution.

Probably the most common term used for the informal communication in the workplace is "***grapevine***" and this communication that is sent through the organizational grapevine is often considered ***Gossip or Rumor***. While grapevine communication can spread information quickly and can easily cross established organizational boundaries, the information it carries can be changed through the deletion or exaggeration crucial details thus causing the information inaccurate – even if it's based on truth.

The use of the organizational grapevine as an informal communication channel often results when employees feel threatened, vulnerable, or when the organization is experiencing change and when communication from management is restricted and not forthcoming.

Formal / informal communication channels exist in every organization. Formal communication requires thought and planning prior to distribution; informal communication, however, usually succeeds on its own mostly because of the very effective grapevine. While there are several advantages of grapevine communication, managing the grapevine also requires thought and planning. Even so, it's very difficult to formalize informal communication; therefore, the best way to cut the grapevine is to provide accurate, respectful and timely formal communication.

An example of an informal communication channel is lunchtime at the organization's cafeteria/canteen. Here, in a relaxed atmosphere, discussions among employees are encouraged. Also managers walking around, adopting a hands-on approach to handling employee queries is an example of an informal communication channel.

Quality circles, team work, different training programs are outside of the chain of command and so, fall under the category of informal communication channels Informal communication is based on the realization that an agency cannot be effective without personal interaction among workers and their voluntary support of organization goals. Informal communication is personal, unofficial, and mostly verbal. The purposes of informal communication are to educate through information sharing, to motivate through personal contacts, and to resolve conflicts through participation and friendship. It seeks to involve workers in organizational matters as a means of maintaining their enthusiasm, loyalty, and commitment.

Advantages of informal communication

1. Informal communication is less official and less intimidating. It can therefore enhance the flow of new ideas and plans without the fear of ridicule or punishment.
2. Informal communication is personal, which imbues it with the enthusiasm and zeal of the participants rather than dry, bureaucratic logic.
3. Since it is usually verbal, informal communication allows both parties to discuss and explore the hidden dimensions of organizational matters in a two-way communication pattern.
4. Informal communication can be a convenient way of explaining to workers why the department operates as it does. It promotes disclosure of underlying motives and pressures through an atmosphere of free, yet discreet, discussion
5. Informal communication can refute rumors and put an end to gossip that can otherwise sprout up in a formal environment filled with unanswered questions.
6. Informal communication can unite workers and foster a spirit of camaraderie based on the discovery of shared concerns and interests.
7. Informal communication can pave the way for a harmonious relationship between officers and their superiors, and can thus promote cooperation based on mutual understanding and concern.

6.11 Disadvantages of informal communication

1. It is too loose and therefore difficult to define or apply systematically.
2. It can result in the spread of inaccurate information and half-truths. If carried to an extreme, it can result in second- and third-hand information being presented as original, factual, and trustworthy.
3. It can lead to the indiscriminate disclosure of classified information.
4. It is too often emotional or laden with sentiments which can distort or change its meaning.
5. Because it is verbal, it is hard to trace when an inquiry becomes necessary.
6. Its social advantages are questionable, since it is only as constructive as the participants make it.

6.12 Choice of Communication Channel

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People choose one channel of communication over another for several reasons. A model of media richness has been developed to explain channel selection among managers. Recent research has found that channels differ in their capacity to convey information. Some are rich in that they have the ability to:

- Handle multiple cues simultaneously.
- Facilitate rapid feedback.
- Be very personal.

The choice of one channel over another depends on whether the message is routine or non-routine.

- Routine messages tend to be straightforward and have a minimum of ambiguity.
- Non-routine messages tend to be complicated and have the potential for misunderstanding.
- Routine messages can efficiently be communicated through channels that are lower in richness. However, non-routine messages can effectively be communicated only by selecting rich channels.

CASE STUDY

Sheena is waiting in her supervisor's office. She has come to talk with Manoj about a problem concerning next week's staff schedule. Just after Sheena arrives, Manoj receives a phone call. He has an angry exchange with the caller, slams down the receiver, and storms out of the office, muttering to Sheena, "wait here!"

"What a rotten time to have to bring this up," Sheena sighs. "He's in a lousy mood."

When Manoj returns, it's clear he's still angry. He throws his clipboard on his desk and does not look at sheena, but asks reduly, "What do you want?"

As Manoj shuffles through some papers on his desk, Sheena says, "Several weeks ago, I asked for next Saturday off for my sister's wedding, SIr. I just looked at next week's schedule and I'm working on Saturday."

Manoj stops his paper search, glares at Sheena, and shouts, "you said you needed the third Saturday off, and I gave it to you. The third Saturday of the month is the 20th".

"I meant the third Saturday from when we were talking. I need the 13th off," Sheena sighs. "This is terrible. Can we do something about it?"

Manoj leans back, covers his eyes with his hands, and replies sarcasrically, "No problem, Sheena. I'll be happy to rearrange the schedule to suit your family's needs."

What do you think?

Respond to each statement below by Saying True / False.

True / False

NOTES

1. We communicate only when we want to communicate.

2. Words mean the same thing to both speaker and listener.

3. We communicate chiefly with words.

4. We believe what a person says, not boar he or she says it.

5. Communication is a one - way flow of information from the speaker to the listener.

6.13 SUMMARY:

- Communication in its simplest sense involve *two or more persons* who come together to share, to dialogue and to commune, or just to be together for a festival or family gathering.
- Communication is a process whereby information is enclosed in a package and is channeled and imparted by a sender to a receiver via some medium.
- Communication is a method that allows people to exchange information by one of numerous methods. There are hearing means, such as words or singing, and nonverbal, material means, such as body talking, sign language, paralanguage, feel or eye contact.
- Communication is the sharing of information for a variety of purposes including informing, persuading, motivating or influencing.
- A formal communication channel transmits information such as the goals, policies, and procedures of an organization.
- Informal communication in the workplace satisfies a variety of needs, particularly social and emotional, and is not based on the positions individuals occupy within the organizations.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Communication is an art of sharing meaningful ideas, information, knowledge, experience and feelings.
2. A formal communication channel transmits information such as the goals, policies, and procedures of an organization.
3. Informal communication in the workplace satisfies a variety of needs, particularly social and emotional, and is not based on the positions individual occupy within the organization.
4. Language barriers- Lack of common knowledge, Semantic barrier, Poor Vocabulary, Poor Grammar and Punctuation, Roundabout Verbiage.
5. Physical Barrier-Noise, Time, Distance, Age and Gender.

6.14 TEST YOURSELF :

1) Define Communication and its nature.

2) What are the basic Functions of communication?

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3) What are the Principles of effective communication?
4) What is the Importance and purpose of communication?
5) Discuss in brief various types of communication.
6) Explain the term Channels of communication.
7) Explain types of Channel of communication.

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BLOCK – III

7 Leadership

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The Chapter Covers :

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a dynamic force essential for the success in any human group effort. Without leadership no organization or enterprise can flourish. In fact, it is vital to the survival of a business. For all technological changes that name taken place in business industry, the need for human leadership is no less today. Leadership is an important aspect of managing. It can be said that management works when the manager like upon his role as leader.

7.2 CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is the ability to influence individuals or groups toward the achievement of some particular goal or goals. Leadership, as a process, shapes the goals of a group or organization, motivates behavior toward the achievement of those goals, and helps define group or organizational culture. It is primarily a process of influence.

According to J.K. Hemphill– "Leadership is the initiation of acts which result in a consistent pattern of group interaction directed towards the solution of a mutual problem".

According to Harry Trumann– "Leadership is the ability to get other people to do what they don't want to do and like it".

According to Keitlo Davis – "Leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor which kinds a group together and motivates it towards goals."

Thus, Leadership may be defined as a humanized activity of influencing group people to act for attainment of group goals.

7.3 LEADERSHIP VERSUS MANAGEMENT:

Although some managers are able to influence followers to work toward the achievement of organizational goals, the conferring of formal authority upon a manager does not necessarily make that individual a leader. Yes, that individual has authority, but whether or not they are able to influence their subordinates may depend on more than just that authority.

The fundamental difference between a manager and a leader:

- A manager administers, but a leader innovates
- A manager maintains, while a leader develops
- A manager focuses on systems and structures, whereas a leader's focus is on people
- A manager relies on control, but a leader inspires trust
- A manager keeps an eye on the bottom line, while a leader has an eye on the horizon
- A manager does things right, a leader does the right thing.

Difference between Leadership & Management:

Basics of Difference	Leadership	Management
1. Meaning	Leadership is a process of influencing people to direct their efforts towards the attainment of some particular.	Management is the process of getting things done through others.
2. Power and Authority	Leadership is based on power. The Power may be desired from format authority or from any other source. in superior position.	Management is based on authority which is delegated to a management position by a person
3. Structures	Leadership structure are more flexible, open, informal and dynamic than management.	Management is bound by organized formal structure.
4. Goal	Leaders achieve goal by inspiring others.	Manager achieve goals by directing others.
5. Existence of position	Existence of a Leaders position depend on the pleasure of his followers.	Existence of manager's position is independent of the coil of his subordinates. It depends on the terms and conditions of his service.

Leadership is related to someone's ability to motivate others and managing interpersonal behaviour. Needless to say, it relies heavily on the process of effective communication. Leadership is important in attempting to reduce employee dissatisfaction. Good leadership also involves the effective delegation of power and authority. It is important to note that leadership is a dynamic process involving changes in the leader-follower relationship. The leader-follower relationship is a two-way process and is essentially a reciprocal one in nature.

The concept of power is inherently implied in the process of leadership. Power, as we understand the term in this context, is one's ability to exert influence, i.e. to change the attitude or behaviour of individuals and the groups. There are five possible bases of power as identified by French and Raven (1968) which are: **reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power, and expert power.** The greater the number of these power sources available, the greater is one's potential for effective leadership.

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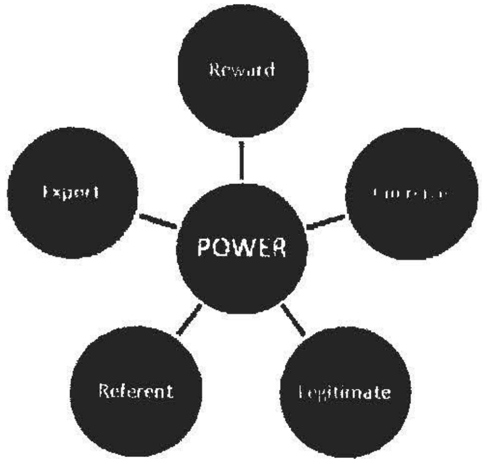

Let us try to understand each of these power sources.

1) **Reward power** is based on the subordinate's perception that the leader has the ability to control rewards that the followers are looking for; for example, leader's ability to influence the decisions regarding pay, promotion, praise, recognition, increased responsibilities, allocation and arrangement of work, granting of privileges etc.

2) **Coercive** power is based on fear and the subordinate's perception that the leader has the ability to punish or to cause an unpleasant experience for those who do not comply with directives. Examples include withholding pay raises, promotion or privileges; allocation of undesirable duties or responsibilities; withdrawal of friendship or support; formal reprimands or possibly dismissal. This is in effect the opposite of reward power.

3) **Legitimate power** is based on subordinate's perception that the leader has a right to exercise influence because of holding a particular position in the hierarchy of organizational structure. Legitimate power is thus based on authority and not on the nature of personal relationship with others.

4) **Referent power** is based on the subordinate's identification with the leader. The leader is able to influence the followers because of the interpersonal attraction and his personal charisma. The followers obey the leader because of their respect and esteem towards him.

5) **Expert** power is derived from the subordinate's perception of the leader as someone who has access to information and relevant knowledge.

7.4 IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP

Without Leadership, an organization would for only a confusion of people and machines. The importance of Leadership is as follows:

1. **Determines goal & guides for it** – A leader plans goals & policies for his group. The trigger a person's will to do, show the way and guide group members towards group accomplishment. He created enthusiasm for, performance (best) among his followers.

2. **Boosts Morale** – Morale s internal feeling of a person. A good leader can arouse will to, cooperate among the employee. He transforms lukewarm desires for achievement into burning passions for successful accomplishments.

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3. **Team-spirit** – Leader provides a healthy & satisfying work climate by harmonizing individual to accomplish group goals. He tries to reconcile conflicts & create team-spirit among his group.
4. **Optimum use of human resources** – Leadership can left man's vision to higher sights, raise man's standard to higher performance and build man's personality beyond his normal limitations. A leader can influence the activities and behaviour of his follower to contribute their best.
5. **Facilitates change** – Leaders can induce and introduce change. They are the instrumental in conceiving change. They introduce change by convincing their followers about the positure effects of the change.
6. **Other Importance:** The other importance of leadership:
   - Creates confidence and enthusiasm among his group member.
   - Leadership acts as a catalyst that transforms potential into reality.
   - Leadership plays vital role in ensuring survival and effectiveness of organization.
   - Leadership is necessary in organization in order to create work environment that are productive and satisfying for human beings.
   - Leadership helps in maintain order and discipline in organization.
   - Leaders play a crucial role in resolving conflicts arising in the group.
   - Leader is the bridge between group members and top management.

7.5 NATURE / CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP:

The following are the important characteristics of Leadership:-

1) **Leadership is the process of Influence:** A leader can be regarded as successful only when he is able to influence the behaviour, attitude and beliefs of his subordinates.
2) **Leadership is the function of motivation:** Leadership is the function of motivating people to attempt willingly to attain organizational objectives. Leaders are considered successful when they are able to encourage and develop self confidence to the subordinates.
3) **Leadership is related to a situation:** It means leadership styles are different for different circumstances. It is always related to a particular situation, at a given point of time and under specific circumstances.
4) **Personal Quality:** A leader should be courageous, should have will power, should posses physical and nervous energy, have enthusiasm, self-confidence and moral qualities.

7.6 FUNCTIONS OF LEADERS

The most important functions of Leaders are as follows:-

1) **Goal Setter:** A leader performs the role of goal setter for his subordinates. He also acts as a guide and teacher.
2) **Organization of different activities:** A leader divides all the activities of the organization to the different subordinates in a systematic manner. It may reduce the chances of conflicts between the employees.
3) **Achieving Co-ordination:** A leader integrates the individual's goal with the organizational goal and creates community of interest. A leader shares all the information, which is related to the organizational goal with the employees, it may achieve co-ordination in the organization.

Check Your Progress

1. What is Leadership?
2. What do you mean by the term Power?

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4) **Representing:** A leader is a representative of his subordinates. He also tries to fulfill the psychological needs of his subordinates.
5) **Motivation of Employees:** Motivation is necessary for accomplishing desired results from the subordinates. A good leader motivates his subordinates for better performance. A leader motivates his subordinates by giving them monetary or non-monetary rewards.
6) **Guiding the employers:** A leader guides and directs the subordinates for achieving a unity of purpose. He is always present to solve the problems which his subordinates may face.
7. **Building Employee's Moral:** Good leadership is very important for increasing employee's morale. The leader shapes the thinking and attitude of the subordinates according to the objectives of the organization.
8. **Managing Time:** One of the important functions of leader is to ensure the timely completion of activities undertaken by his/her team members.

LEADERSHIP TRAITS

Traits/qualities of successful leader are as follows:

1. **Energy:** A leader should be energetic. Energy for both mental and physical are required for a job.
2. **Emotional stability:** It enables a leader to act with confidence. It avoids anger and deal with his sub ordinates with understanding.
3. **Human relations skill:** A leader should have human relation skill. It requires an understanding of human behaviour.
4. **Empathy:** It enables him to look at things objectively and from another's viewpoint.
5. **Objectivity:** It prevents him from getting emotionally involved.
6. **Personal motivation:** A leader is personally motivated and enthusiastic to get the job done.
7. **Communication skill:** The communication skill of a leader should be powerful. It is ability to talk and write clearly and forcefully.
8. **Teaching ability:** A leader should have technical ability. It will help him to develop and inspire his subordinate.
9. **Social skill:** It enables him to understand people and know their strength and weaknesses and presents himself as a friendly and approachable person.
10. **Technical competence:** A leader should be technically competent. It provides him with an effective working knowledge and insight of the operations under his guidance.
11. **Administrative skill:** A leader should have the administrative skill. It helps to implement plans & policies, to organize and to mobilize resources in a pragmatic manner.
12. **Intelligence:** A leader should be intelligent. Ir makes him to think scientifically.

7.7 LEADERSHIP STYLE

Every leader usually develops his own style of leadership style of every leader are differ from the other. There exist different leadership styles. The main styles are:

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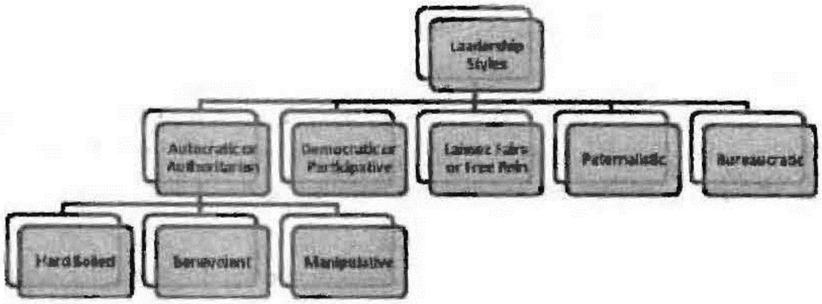

A. **Autocratic or Authoritarian Leadership** – An autocratic leader take all decision solely. He centralizes power and tells his group members what to do and expect them to obey his order without any question or remark. This can be further categories as:

   a) **Hard Boiled/Negative/Pure Autocrat** – Such leaders use heavy negative influence. They superimpose their orders/decision on subordinates. He uses fear of punishment to carry out his orders.

   b) **Benevolent Autocrat** – Such leaders try to use positive leadership techniques by using praise and pats on the back to secure personal loyalty for achieving acceptance of his own decisions.

   c) **Manipulative Autocrat** – Such leaders make the sub ordinate feel that they are actually participating in the decision making even though managers has taken the decisions himself.

B. **Participative/Democratic Leadership** – The democratic leaders decentralizes authority and encourages subordinates participation in decision making. He believes in free flow of two way communication. He tries to lead through persuasion and example rather than through fear or force.

C. **Free-rein or Laissez – faire leadership** – This type of leader, prefers to give little or no direction and seeks to lead his group with a very loose rein, allowing his subordinates a great deal of freedom. Free rein leadership helps subordinates trained and develops them independently. This style is suitable where subordinates are duty conscious and highly competent.

D. **Paternalistic leadership** – This style of leadership adopts the paternal or fatherly attitude as the right one for the relationship between the leader and his group. Its objective is to help, guide, protect and keep the followers happily working together as members of a family. It is based on the ground that, "Happy employee work harder" while otherwise stated employee will work harder out of gratitude.

E. **Bureaucratic style of leadership** – It is also referred as rules-centered or procedure centered leadership. It is less dynamic and less pro-active. It is noticed in Indian sector, often critized for delay and savoritism. This is also a very rigid style.

7.8 APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

The subject of leadership is so vast and perceived to be so critical; it has generated a huge body of literature. Each researcher working in the field has tried to explain leadership from a different perspective. Broadly, there are four distinct approaches to leadership, viz. Traits theory, Behaviouristic theory, Contingency theory and Charismatic theories of leadership.

7.9 TRAITS THEORY

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Ask people what good leadership is, and it's quite likely you will get a response that suggests good leadership can somehow be defined in terms of traits or characteristics. Similarly, if one were to ask people to design an experiment aimed at defining good leadership, it's likely the response will be an attempt to isolate the characteristics of leaders of organizations deemed to be successful (by whatever terms that success is measured).

This is exactly what the initial, formal research into leadership was all about. There was a sense among researchers that some critical leadership traits could be isolated. There was also a feeling that people with such traits could then be recruited, selected, and installed into leadership positions.

The problem with the trait approach lies in the fact that almost as many traits as studies undertaken were identified. After several years of such research, it became apparent that no such traits could be identified. Although some traits were identified in a considerable number of studies, the results were generally inconclusive.

Researchers were further confounded by questions about how to find commonality or generalizability from an examination of the traits of leaders as diverse as Stalin, Hitler, Martin Luther King Jr., John F. Kennedy, Churchill, Mother Theresa, Gandhi and Margaret Thatcher. Do these leaders have any trait in common? Is this a trait all leaders must possess?

- Technical skill
- Task motivation
- Group task supportiveness
- Emotional control
- General charisma
- Friendliness
- Application to task
- Social skill
- Administrative skill
- Intelligence

7.10 BEHAVIOURISTIC THEORY:

The results of the trait studies were inconclusive. Traits, among other things, were hard to measure. How, for example, do we measure traits such as honesty, integrity, loyalty, or diligence? Another approach in the study of leadership had to be found.

To measure traits, researchers had to rely on constructs which lacked reliability and, given differing definitions, also lacked validity. After the problems with the trait approach became evident, researchers turned to an examination of leader behaviors. With behaviors, researchers could rely on empirical evidence.

Behaviors, contrary to traits, could be observed. It was thus decided to examine the behaviors of successful (again, by whatever means success was measured) leaders. The initial phases of the behavioral research seemed as frustrating as the trait approach — the number of behaviors identified was staggering. However, over time, it appeared that the key behaviors could be grouped or categorized. The most prominent studies were those undertaken by the University of Michigan and by Ohio State University.

Interestingly, both studies arrived at similar conclusions. Both studies concluded that leadership behaviors could be classified into two groups.

The University of Michigan studies (Rensis Likert) identified two styles of leader behavior:

- **Production centered behavior:** When a leader pays close attention to the work of sub- ordinates, explains work procedures, and is keenly interested in performance.

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- **Employee centered behavior:** When the leader is interested in developing a cohesive work group and in ensuring employees are satisfied with their jobs.

These two styles of leader behavior were believed to lie at the ends of a single continuum. **Likert** found thar employee- centered leader behavior generally tended to be more effective.

Researchers at Ohio State leadership found results which suggested two basic leader behaviors or styles.

- **Initiating structure behavior:** When the leader clearly defines the leader-subordinate, establishes formal lines of communication, and determines how tasks are to be performed.
- **Consideration behavior:** The leader shows concern for sub-ordinates and attempts to establish a warm, friendly, and supportive climate.

Unlike the Michigan Studies, these two behaviors were not viewed as opposite ends of a continuum, but as independent variables. Thus the leader can exhibit varying degrees of both initiating structure and consideration at the same time.

Rather than concentrating on what leaders are, as the trait approach did, the behavioral approach forced looking at what leaders do. The main shortcoming of the behavioral approach was its focus on finding a dependable prescription for effective leadership.

THE MANAGERIAL GRID

7.11

Blake and Mouton (1985) tried to show an individual's style of leadership on a 9x9 grid consisting of two separate dimensions, viz. concern for production and concern for people which are similar to the concept of employee-centered and production-centered styles of leadership as mentioned earlier. The grid has nine possible positions along each axis creating a total of eighty-one possible styles of leader behaviour. The managerial grid thus identifies the propensity of a leader to act in a particular way. The (9, 1) style is known as **task management** which focuses wholly on production. Managers with this style are exceptionally competent with the technicalities of a particular job but are miserable failures in dealing with people. The (1, 9) style in contrast emphasizes people to the exclusion of task performance and is known as **country club style of management.**

The ideal style of leadership, as envisioned by the theory of managerial grid is the (9, 9) style or **team management style** where there is maximum concern for both people and production. The research evidence in favor of the view that managers perform best under (9, 9) style is however scanty.

The basic criticisms against the behaviouristic theories are that:

- Lack of generalizations of the findings as they found to vary widely.
- Ignoring the significant influence of the situational factors.

7.11 CONTINGENCY THEORIES

Managerial leadership has influenced organizational activities in many ways. These influences include motivating subordinates, budgeting scarce resources, and serving as a source of communication. Over the years researchers have emphasized the influences of leadership on the activities of subordinates. This emphasis by researchers led to theories about leadership. "The first and perhaps most popular, situational theory to be advanced was the 'Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness' developed by Fred E. Fiedler" This theory explains that group performance is a result of interaction of two factors. These factors are known as leadership style and situational favorableness. These two factors will be discussed along with other aspects of Fiedler's theory. "In Fiedler's model, leadership effectiveness is the resulr of interaction between the style of the leader and the characteristics of the environment in which the leader works".

The first major factor in Fiedler's theory is known as the leadership style. This is the consistent system of interaction that takes place between a leader and work group. "According to Fiedler, an individual's leadership style depends upon his or her personality and is, thus, fixed". In order to classify leadership styles, Fiedler's has developed an index called the least-preferred coworker (LPC) scale.

The LPC scale asks a leader to think of all the persons with whom he or she has ever worked, and then to describe the one person with whom he or she worked the least well with. This person can be someone forms the past or someone he or she is currently working with. From a scale of 1 through 8, leader are asked to describe this person on a series of bipolar scales such as those shown below:

Unfriendly 1→ 2 → 3 → 4 → 5 → 6 → 7 → 8 Friendly
Uncooperative 1 → 2 → 3 → 4 → 5 → 6 → 7 → 8 Cooperative
Hostile 1 → 2 → 3 → 4 → 5 → 6 → 7 → 8 Supportive
Guarded 1 → 2 → 3 → 4 → 5 → 6 → 7 → 8 Open

The responses to these scales (usually sixteen in total) are summed and averaged: a high LPC score suggests that the leader has a human relations orientation, while a low LPC score indicates a task orientation. Fiedler's logic is that individuals who rate their least preferred coworker in relatively favorable light on these scales derive satisfaction out of interpersonal relationship; those who rate the coworker in a relatively unfavorable light get satisfaction out of successful task performance". This method reveals an individual's emotional reaction to people with whom he or she cannot work. It is also stressed that is not always an accurate measurement.

"According to Fiedler, the effectiveness of a leader is determined by the degree of match between a dominant trait of the leader and the favorableness of the situation for the leader.... The dominant trait is a personality factor causing the leader to either relationship-oriented or task-orientated".

Leaders who describe their preferred coworker in favorable terms, with a high LPC, are purported to derive major satisfaction from establishing close relationships with fellow workers. High LPC leaders are said to be relationship-orientated. These leaders see that good interpersonal relations as a requirement for task accomplishment. Leaders who describe their least preferred coworker unfavorable terms, with a low LPC, are derived major satisfaction by successfully completing a task. These leaders are said to be task-orientated. They are more concerned with successful task accomplishment and worry about interpersonal relations later.

The second major factor in Fiedler's theory is known as situational favorableness or environmental variable. This basically is defined as the degree a situation enables a leader to exert influence over a group. Fiedler then extends his analysis by focusing on three key situational factors, which are leader-member, task structure and position power. Each factor is defined in the following:

1. **Leader-member relations:** the degree to which the employees accept the leader.
2. **Task structure:** the degree to which the subordinate's jobs are described in detail.
3. **Position power:** the amount of formal authority the leader possesses by virtue of his or her position in the organization.

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Check Your Progress

3. Briefly explain various functions of Leaders.
4. What do you mean by the Trait theory of Leadership?'
5. Discuss Behaviouristic theory of Leadership.

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For leader-member relations, Fiedler maintains that the leader will has more influence if they maintain good relationships with group members who like, respect, and trusr them, than if they do not. Fiedler explains that task structure is the second most important factor in determining structural favorableness. He contends that highly structured tasks, which specify how a job is to be done in detail, provide a leader with more influences over group actions than do unstructured tasks. Finally, as for position power, leads who have the power to hire and fire, discipline and reward, have more power than those who do not. For example, the head of a department has more power than a file clerk.

By classifying a group according to three variables, it is possible to identify eight different group situations or leadership style. These eight different possible combinations were then classified as either task orientation or relationship orientated. The following information shows that task-orientated leadership was successful in five situations, and relationship-orientated in three.

- Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership
- Leader-Member Task Position Power Successful Leadership
- Relations Structure Of Leader Style

Good → Structured → Strong → Task Orientation

Good → Structured → Weak ?→ Task Orientation

Good → Unstructured → Strong → Task Orientation

Good → Unstructured → Weak → Consideration

Poor → Structured → Strong → Consideration

Poor → Structured → Weak → Consideration

Poor → Unstructured → Strong → Task Orientation

Poor → Unstructured → Weak → Task Orientation

"According to Fiedler, a task-orientated style of leadership is more effective than a considerate (relationship-orientated) style under extreme situations, that is, when the situations, is either very favorable (certain) or very unfavorable (uncertain)". Task-orientated leadership would be advisable in natural disaster, like a flood or fire. In an uncertain situation the leader-member relations are usually poor, the task is unstructured, and the position power is weak. The one who emerges as a leader to direct the group's activity usually does not know any of his or her subordinates personally. The task-orientated leader who gets things accomplished proves to be the most successful. If the leader is considerate (relationship-orientated), he or she may waste so much time in the disaster, which may lead things to get out of control and lives might get lost.

Blue-collar workers generally want to know exactly what they are supposed to do. Therefore it is usually highly structured. The leader's position power is strong if management backs his or her decision. Finally, even though the leader may not be relationship-orientated, leader-member relations may be extremely strong if he or she is able to gain promotions and salary increases for subordinates. Under these situations is the task-orientated style of leadership is preferred over the (considerate) relationship-orientated style.

"The considerate style of leadership seems to be appropriate when the environmental or certain situation is moderately favorable or certain, for example, when (1) leader-member relations are good, (2) the task is unstructured, and (3) position power is weak". For example, research scientists do not like superiors to structure the task for them. They prefer to follow their own creative leads in order to solve problems. Now under a situation like this is when a considerate style of leadership is preferred over the task-orientated style.

Fiedler's theory has some very interesting implications for the management of leaders in organizations:

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1. The favorableness of leadership situations should be assessed using the instruments developed by Fiedler (or, at the very least, by a subjective evaluation).
2. Candidates for leadership positions should be evaluated using the LPC scale.
3. If a leader is being sought for a particular leadership position, a leader with the appropriate LPC profile should be chosen (task-orientated for very favorable or very unfavorable situations and relationship-orientated for intermediate favorableness).
4. If a leadership situation is being chosen for a particular candidate, a situation (work team, department, etc.) should be chosen which matches his/her LPC profile (very favorable or unfavorable for task-orientated leaders and intermediate favorableness for relationship-orientated leader).

Several other implications can be derived from Fiedler's findings. First, it is not accurate to speak of effective and ineffective leaders. Fiedler goes on by suggesting that there are only leader who perform better in some situations, but not all situations. Second, almost anyone can be a leader by carefully selecting those situations that match his or her leadership style. Lastly, the effectiveness of a leader can be improved by designing the job to fit the manager. For instance, by increasing or decreasing a leader's position power, changing the structure of a task, or influencing leader-member relations, an organization can alter a situation to better fit a leader's style.

In conclusion, the Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership, has been cautious of accepting all conclusions. Fiedler's work is not without problems or critics. Evidence suggests that other situational variables, like training and experience have an impact in a leader's effectiveness. There are also some uncertainties about Fiedler's measurement of different variables. For instance, there is some doubt whether the LPC is a true measure of leadership style. "Despite these and other criticisms, Fiedler's contingency theory represents an important addition to our understanding of effective leadership". Fred Fiedler's theory became an important discovery in the study of leadership. His theory made a major contribution to knowledge in the leadership area.

HERSEY AND BLANCHARD'S SITUATIONAL MODEL

The situational leadership model, developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, suggests that the leader's behaviour should be adjusted according to the maturity level of the followers. The level of maturity or the readiness of the followers were assessed to the extent the followers have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. Four possible categories of followers' maturity were identified:

R1: Unable and Unwilling

R2: Unable but Willing

R3: Able but Unwilling

R4: Able and Willing

	Unable	Able
Willing	R2	R4
Unwilling	R1	R3

The leader behaviour was determined by the same dimensions as used in the Ohio studies, viz. production orientation and people orientation. According to the situ-

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ational mode, a leader should use a telling style (high concern for task and low concern for people) with the least matured group of followers who are neither able nor willing to perform (R1). A selling style of leadership (high concern for both task and relationship) is required for dealing with the followers with the next higher level of maturity, which are those who are willing but unable to perform the task at the required level (R2). The able but unwilling followers are the next matured group and require a participating style from the leader, characterized by high concern for consideration and low emphasis on task orientation. Finally the most matured followers who are both able and willing require a delegating style of leadership. The leader working with this kind of followers must learn to restrain him from showing too much concern for either task or relationship as the followers themselves do accept the responsibility for their performance.

Though this theory is difficult to be tested empirically, it has its intuitive appeal and is widely used for training and development in organizations. In addition, the theory focuses attention on followers as a significant determinant of any leadership process.

7.12 THE PATH GOAL THEORY

In the recent time, one of the most appreciated theories of leadership is the path-goal theory as offered by Robert House, which is based on the expectancy theory of motivation. According to this theory, the effectiveness of a leader depends on the following propositions:

a) Leader behaviour is acceptable and satisfying to followers to the extent that they see itas an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction

b) Leader behaviour is motivational to the extent that (1) it makes the followers' needs satisfaction contingent or dependent on effective performance, and (2) it complements the followers' environment by providing the coaching, guidance, support, and rewards necessary for realizing the linkage between the level of their performance and the attainment of the rewards available.

The leader selects from any of the four styles of behaviour which is most suitable for the followers at a given point of time. These are directive, supportive, participative, and the achievement-oriented according to the need and expectations of the followers. In other words, the path-goal theory assumes that leaders adapt their behaviour and style to fit the characteristics of the followers and the environment in which they work. Actual tests of the path-goal theory provides conflicting evidence and therefore it is premature to either fully accept or reject the theory at this point. Nevertheless the path-goal theory does have intuitive appeal and offers a number of constructive ideas for leaders who lead in a variety of followers in a variety of work environments.

7.13 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Transformational or charismatic leaders are those who could inspire their followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the organizations or for a greater objective. Thus leaders like Netaji Subhas Chandra Bose or Gandhiji could inspire their followers to submit their own personal goals of pursuing lucrative academic or professional careers and sacrifice everything for the sake of the freedom of their motherland from the British rules. By the force of their personal abilities they transform their followers by raising the sense of the importance and value of their tasks. Five leadership attributes have been identified as important in this context

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which are self- confidence, a vision, strong conviction in that vision, extraordinary or novel behavior and ability to create an image of a change agent It is howevet important to note that the effect of cultural difference in the context of leadership must be considered in order to understand and identify the effective leadership behaviour. An extensive project has been undertaken jointly by GLOBE foundation and Wharton Business School to identify the impact of culture on leadership across the world, which concluded only recently. The study has identified lists of both positive and negative leader attributes which have been universally accepted across culture. The findings from the completed phases of the study however suggest the presence of a strong influence of cultural bias on the success and effectiveness of the leaders.

CASE STUDY

A great leader is a rare and hard to find commodity not only in the sports world, but in every aspect of life. A leader can be taught how to succeed, he can be shaped and molded from influences and factors in his or her life. However, a great leader has some extra quality, something that enables them to surpass everybody else with the same background. In When Pride Still Mattered, the question was raised of which was more important, "the talent of the troops or the skill of the leader?" (Maraniss 250). No matter how great your talent is, without a strong and efficient leader everything else amounts to nothing. It is easy to evaluate and judge a leader when you base your judgements not only on the six charismatic leadership traits, but also on nine other easily definable traits that a leader should possess and be a master at. When following these two models it is easy to see how Vince Lombardi is the perfect example of a great leader.

To better understand and evaluate a leader, it is first important to come to a clear decision on what a leader actually is. A leader is somebody who is able to make fundamental changes to an organization, he is somebody who may fail from time to time because he is willing to try new things and take chances. A leader has to come up with some form of idea that can shape an organization. It is important for a great leader to possess managerial skills, yet the two skill sets do not overlap completely. Whereas the leader can be compared to an artist, the manager can be compared to a technician. It is the leader's role to come up the vision or idea, and it is the manger's plan to implement this idea and react to it. The best leader will not only have innate leadership skills, but also have the capability to manage and operate on a day to day basis. It is this rare breed, this rare few, who have that undefinable extra trait that lead the way in their respective fields.

One prevalent way to evaluate a leader is based on the six charismatic leadership traits. These traits include the ability to challenge the status quo, to create a compelling vision, to establish shared values, to enable others to act, to model the way and to encourage the heart. When Vince Lombardi joined the Green Bay Packers, they were in a complete state of disarray. Lombardi was able to "[find] the best in his players" whereas under pervious regimes the same "handpicked Packers had played on losing teams" (Maraniss 250). A leader and the atmosphere he can create can absolutely change a franchise or organization around.

Lombardi succeeded a coach who was easy going and gun-shy. When Lombardi came in he challenged the status quo from the get go, in order to change around the entire atmosphere of the team. He had "no tolerance for the halfhearted, the defeatist" (Maraniss 219). Being a .500 team was not an option for Lombardi, the goal was

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to be "world champions, every day...relentless in the pursuit of victory" (Maraniss 219). Lombardi had to establish himself from the start as man who would change everything about the Packers; Vince would not except mediocrity, he wanted to be a champion from the start.

Lombardi was able to challenge the status quo, but to do so he had to have the support of his players and the team. He needed to create a compelling vision, establish shared values and encourage the heart. Without this, no matter how smart a leader may be he will never be followed by others or believed in. When Lombardi came to the Packers, he "[exuded] a sense that he knew precisely what to do" (Maraniss 215). A leader must be confident in himself and his plans, without that his subordinates will never buy into it. Lombardi was so convincing with his plan that after his first meeting with the quarterbacks Bart Starr exclaimed to his wife, "I think we're going to begin to win" (Maraniss 214). Lombardi was a master at making his team believe in what he said. He established a culture in the Packers, a no-lose, try hard, old fashioned system. He was so confident and sure minded the players had no choice but to abide hy his rules and procedures. The more the players bought into it, the more success the team had, and in turn, the easier it was to keep players following the plan.

The amazing thing about Vince Lombardi, was that the vision and values he created and shared with the team were picked up so quickly. The Packers had immediate success and would obviously go on to Super Bowl glory; while Lombardi would finally gain the recognition he had long deserved. It is of no mere coincidence that the Super Bowl trophy is the Vince Lombardi trophy, the man epitomized everything great about the game of football, he defined what it took to win and he was a clear illustration for how a team should be lead.

Lombardi established a military-time system, which later became to be named after Lombardi himself. This meant that "on time" was actually ten minutes early, which was what was demanded of all the players. The players would no longer wear "t-shirts on the road" there would be "blazers and ties for everyone" (Maraniss 217). Lombardi made sure that the team was to be a cohesive group of "dignified professionals...only winners" and anybody who didn't want to live up to expectations was "free to get the hell out" (Maraniss 217). Football was more than a game to be played on the weekend for recreation; football was to be a respectable lifestyle. These men should be proud of their status in society, and they should exhibit that to the world. Changing standards like these and expecting more from his players as people and individuals was extremely importanr to Lombardi's success.

Lombardi was never one to dole out compliments for no reason, a compliment or vote of confidence was a rare and special treat for a Packer player. Praise given out too frequently does not make the recipients work for it, it creates a situation where mediocrity can easily become acceptable. Lombardi always knew how to use that to his advantage. After a young player named Willie Wood messed up in practice and completely lost his confidence, Lombardi waited until just the right time to encourage and motivate him. He waired until "the precise moment when it would mean the most" to let Wood know that his status with the team was secure (Maraniss 248). Lombardi had an uncanny talent for motivating and encouraging players, and he always knew exactly when it was most important.

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Lombardi's trinity of football success was "repetition, confidence and passion" (Maraniss 225) however the trinity of his own life was "God, family and the Green Bay Packers" (Maraniss 242). Lombardi gave everything to his team, and all he asked in return was that the players do the same for him. The players bought into this from the first day on, because they knew they had somebody worthy of respect. Lombardi was able to encourage the heart of all of his players and they were always willing to play their hearts out for him.

For Lombardi, there was "no distinction between the practice of religion and the sport of football," football was truly Lombardi's faith (Maraniss 245). Lombardi's trinity of football success were the same fundamental principles he learned from the "religious ethic of the Jesuits" (Maraniss 245). Lombardi had many influences in his life that helped him to learn and gain wisdom. He learned these basic principles from the Jesuits and his school training. Lombardi learned his professionalism and discipline from West Point. He was taught to be a strong, bossy leader since the days he was the young and commanding brother in his family. He learned from other great football minds including Tom Landry and Crowley, who in turn learned from Knute Rockne. Lombardi learned so much from so many various sources, however it was Lombardi's ability to combine all of this knowledge and apply it to his lifestyle, as well as his coaching, that made him so successful.

Lombardi did a stellar job at modeling the way and his players saw his unfaltering willingness to give 150%. He expected them to give everything for the team, but the players in turn saw Lombardi giving his all as well. The Packers were a third of his trinity to life, and more realistically the team was much more than that. He may have required his players to be on "Lombardi time" and to be dressed in suits, however, Lombardi would be there even earliet and would nevet let himself slip into attire or demeanor that he deemed to be unprofessional. Lombardi could not have done a better job at modeling the way for this team, and in doing so Vince was able to encourage and enable the players even more.

The Packers had a very simple play book, they stuck to the simple Packers Sweep and a core of several other power plays. In doing so, Lombardi was able to enable and empower others on his team to act. "The blocking calls were left to the linemen themselves, there were fewer plays, but more options" (Maraniss 213). He let the players think for themselves and make their own decisions, he did not need a complex scheme or strategy. The simplest solution is usually the best, and Lombardi fully understood this. By giving his players the freedom to make their own decisions, he not only enabled them to act but again also encouraged their hearts and made them believe in themselves. Lombardi once said, "'[its] called coaching, but it is teaching" you can not just tell them what to do, you must "show them the reasons why... until they are convinced'" (Maraniss 213). Lombardi never merely barked out instructions and orders, he justified his ways and proved their worthwhileness. In doing this, Lombardi encouraged and enabled his team to act, while still setting a positive example and modeling the way.

A second way to evaluate a leader is based on the approximately nine principles that prominent figures in the sports world have alluded to in recent lectures. These principles include the ability to move forward and strategically plan; to be able to constantly evaluate and set new goals for yourself; to empower others to act and maintain a high level of participation; to get the job done at all costs, including

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having an achievement over credential attitude; the ability to change your leadership styles to fit the different needs of different people, and finally maintaining your strategic vision by understanding your strengths and weaknesses. Several of these traits including empowering others to act and having strategic a vision, as well as being able to strategically plan have been discussed however it is important to look into the others.

Seth Abraham, founder of HBO Sports and former President of Madison Square Garden recently said, "Vince Lombardi was the best there ever was at getting the job done." (Abraham Lecture). Style is not everything, what matters most, simply put, is that the job is done. Perhaps the most famous thing that Lombardi ever said, and what he is remembered for in some people's mind is that winning "isn't the only thing, it's everything." Lombardi would give up anything to win, to succeed, and to be the best. The most important thing he ever did as a coach was make his players believe in this concept too. As soon as they were willing to buy into his philosophy and try their hardest, success would be the inevitable result.

Getting the job done is an extremely important characteristic, and along the same lines Lombardi followed another precept of Seth Abraham, achievement over credentials (Abraham Lecture). Lombardi always preferred veteran players who have succeeded rather than highly-toured, athletically gifted rookies. However, if a rookie was willing to prove himself he would still be able to earn his place on the team. Although a player named Billy Butler was a rookie, Lombardi was quickly able to see that "Butler went all out from the first day of camp" (Maraniss 216). Lombardi did not even care if a player liked him, as long as he was willing to try. The great thing about Lombardi though, was that the values he established and the vision he created were so strong that players could hate him- and lots of his players did hate him- but they would still play their hearts out for him. To follow Lombardi was not to take a blind step into oblivion, it was a lucidly drawn out path to success.

Lombardi empowered all of his players to act, and whether they liked him or not they all played their hearts out for him. However, Lombardi knew that he would have to run his ship differently for different people. With Paul Hornung, Lombardi knew he had a free wheeling guy, who would still show up to play. While his off the field lifestyle may not have been ideal, his on the field play always lived up to expectations. Lombardi let his star get away with a little bit more; he loosened the noose on Hornung a bit. Bart Starr though, had to earn his way much more. He did this by "starting to think exactly like [Lombardi]" and buying into everything he said (230). Bart Starr, who also become an unbelievable player, had to work harder and accept more criticism to succeed with Lombardi. Lombardi was able to understand that these two men, the foundations of his team and his glory, were very differenr and needed to be treated differently.

Other important traits a great leader should possess are constant evaluation and constant goal setting (Tannenbaum Lecture). Lombardi clearly fits into the form of what Mike Tannenbaum discussed in a recent lecture. Lombardi never wanted to win just a few more games, or to be an average team. Lombardi wanted a championship, and he wanted it right away. After winning a championship his goals were changed to win another one, he was never satisfied. Lombardi had an insatiable appetite for victory and success, and this is what drove him and his players to glory. A loss, a

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poor play, a bad representation of the team all came onto Lombardi's shoulders and he took it all personally.

He would constantly evaluate himself and his team, change the goals and raise the bar even higher. Lombardi, like many leaders, "confront their own weaknesses indirectly, by working to eliminate them in others" (Maraniss 221). If he saw a weakness in himself, as he did with his own football playing ability and his own pain tolerance, Lombardi would evaluate that and try just that much harder to fix it and instill that strength in others. Lombardi constantly moved forward, a theme discussed by George Pyne (Pyne Lecture) that can also be related to constant goal setting and evaluation.

No matter how the pie is sliced, whether you judge Lombardi based on the six traits of a charismatic leader or on the approximately nine precepts discussed in lectures this year, Lombardi fits the mold perfectly. It may be more truthful to say that the mold has been made around Vince Lombardi, and that he is the standard from which every other leader must base themselves. In 1995, a study showed that the characteristics most admired in leaders were honesty, forward-looking capability, inspiring and competence (Edington 12). These four traits summate everything that Vince Lombardi represenred in his lifetime, and everything he made his players believe in and represent as well. Lombardi was honest and let his players know exactly where they stood on the team. He was constantly looking ahead, strategically planning and creating a vision and a plan for the Packers, setting new goals and always raising the bar even higher.

He was perhaps the most inspiring coach of all time, not due to his speaking abilities but due to the way he treated his players, the way he modeled the way, empowered them to act and encouraged their hearts. Of course Lombardi was competent, he was extremely hard working and his job as coach with the Packers was more than a job it was his life. Vince Lombardi is immortalized in the NFL with the championship Lombardi Trophy, but few people truly understand the nature of the man and the sheer brilliance and leadership capabilities that he possessed throughout his lifetime and coaching career.

7.14 SUMMARY:

- Leadership is a dynamic force essential for the success in any human group effort. Without leadership no organization or enterprise can flourish.
- Leadership is related to someone's ability to motivate others and managing interpersonal behavior.
- Power is one's ability to exert influence, i.e. to change the attitude or behaviour of individuals and the groups.
- There are five possible bases of power as identified by French and Raven (1968) which are: reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power, and expert power.
- There are four distinct approaches ro leadership, viz. Traits theory, Behaviouristic theory, Contingency theory and Charismatic theories of leadership.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

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1. Leadership is the process of influencing people to direct their efforts towards the attainment of some particular goal or goals.
2. Power can be defined as one's ability to exert influence, i.e. to change the attitude or behavior of individuals and the groups.
3. Functions of Leaders-Goal Setter, Organization of different activities, Achieving co-ordination, Representing, Motivation of employees, Guiding the employers, Building employee's morale, Managing time.
4. Trait theory states that there are certain unique traits/qualities essential for a successful leader like-technical skill, friendness, Take motivation, Social skill, Emotional control, Intelligence etc.
5. Behaviouristic theory is based on the premise that effective leadership is the result of effective behavior of leader.

7.15 TEST YOURSELF :

1) What do you understand by Leadership?
2) Discuss its nature and explain its importance in business administration.
3) Discuss various functions of leaders.
4) Explain Leadership traits.
5) Discuss main styles of Leadership.
6) Write a short note on:
    i) Traits theory
    ii) Behaviouristic theory
    iii) The Managerial Grid
    iv) The Path Goal Theory
    v) Hersey And Blanchard's Situational Model
    vi) Transformational Leadership

7.16 Reference

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7.17 FURTHER READING

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8 Organizational Conflict

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The Chapter Covers :

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of conflict, being an outcome of behaviors, is an integral part of human life. Wherever there is interaction, there is conflict. The term conflict may mean different things to different persons. It may be regarded as the disagreement or hostility between individuals or groups in the organization. It may even mean rivalry or competition or may be viewed as the perception of disagreement in the individuals. However, conflict is a psychological state of mind when people are in state of dilemma whether to do or not to do a thing. In organization, conflict may imply difference of opinion with persons or groups and sometimes they manage to show-down and slowdown and plan strategies fot them.

8.2 MEANING OF ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

According to Gray and Starke - "Conflict is behaviour by a person or group that is purposely designed to inhibit the attainment of goals by another person or group. This 'purposeful inhibition may be active or passive."

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R. W Woodman defines conflict "As any situation in which incompatible goals, attitudes, emotions or behaviours lead to disagreement or opposition between two or more parties."

According to B. Kabanoff, "Conflict refers to a disagreement, opposition, or struggle between two or more individuals groups. It results from incompatible influence attempts between and within individuals, groups or organizations."

According to **Thomas,** "Conflict is a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affects, something that the first party cares about."

According to Follett, "Conflict is the appearance of difference, difference of opinions, of interests."

Conflict occurs whenever disagreements exist in a social situation over issues (work related or personal). Conflict is a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affects, something that the first party cares about (Thomas, 1992). Conflict can be either constructive or destructive. Constructive conflict prevents stagnation, stimulates creativity, and allows tensions to be released. However, excessive levels of conflict can hinder the effectiveness of a group or an organization lessens satisfaction of group members, increases absence and turnover rates, and lowers productivity. Functional constructive forms of conflict support the goals of the group and improve its performance.

Conflicts that hinder group performance are disfunctional or destructive forms of conflict. Task conflict relates to the content and goals of the work. Low-to-moderate levels of task conflict are functional and consistently demonstrate a positive effect on group performance because it stimulates discussion, improving group performance. Relationship conflict focuses on interpersonal relationships. These conflicts are almost always disfunctional and the friction and interpersonal hostilities inherent in relationship conflicts increase personality clashes and decrease mutual understanding.

8.3 Nature of conflict

In the context of an organization, broad features of a conflict are as under:

a) Conflict occurs when individuals are not able to choose among the available alternative courses of action.

b) Conflict between two individuals implies that they have conflicting perceptions, values and goals.

c) Conflict is a dynamic process as it indicates a series of events. Each conflict is made up of interlocking conflict episodes.

d) Conflict must be perceived by the parties to it. If no one is aware of a conflict, then it is generally agree that no conflict exists.

8.4 Views of conflict

Basis	Traditional View	Modern View
a) Nature	Conflict is avoidable	Conflict is inevitable
b) Cause	Conflict is caused by management error in designing organizations or by trouble makers.	Conflict arises from mainly causes, including organizational structure, unavoidable differences in goals.

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c) Impact	Conflict disrupts the organization and prevents optimal performance. in varying degrees.	Conflict contributes and detracts from organizational performance
d) Role of management	The task of the management is to eliminate conflict its resolution for optimal organizational performance.	The task of management is to manage the level of conflict and
e) Requirement	Optimal organizational perfotmance requires the temoval of conflict	Optimal organizational performance requires a moderate level of conflict

8.5 Sources of conflict

a) **Organizational change :**

People hold differing views over the direction to go. The routes to take and their political and social change increasing and the marketplace hurting toward a global economy, organizational changes will be ever-present.

b) **Personality clashes :**

The concept of individual differences is fundamental to organizational behavior. Not everyone thinks feels, looks, or acts alike. Although personality differences can cause conflict, they are also a rich resource for creative problem solving. Employees need to accept, respect, and learn how to use these differences when they arise.

c) **Different sets of values :**

People also hold different beliefs and adhere to different value systems. Their philosophies may diverge, or their ethical values may lead them in different directions. The resulting disputes can be difficult to resolve, since they are less objective than disagreements over alternative products, inventory levels or promotional campaigns.

d) **Threats to status :**

The status, or the social rank of a person in a group, is very important to many individuals. When one's status as threatened, face saving becomes a powerful driving force as a person struggles to maintain a desired image. Conflict may arise between the defensive person and whoever created a threat to status.

e) **Contrasting perceptions :**

People perceive things differently as a result of their prior experiences and expectations. Since their perceptions are very real to them (and they feel that these perceptions must be equally apparent to others), they sometimes fail to realize that others may hold contrasting perceptions of the same object or event. Conflict may arise unless employees learn to see things as others see them and help others to do same.

f) **Lack of trust :**

Every continuing relationship requires some degree of trust-the capacity to depend on each other's word and actions. Trust opens up boundaries, provides opportunities in which to act, and enriches the entire social fabric of an organization. It takes time to build, but it can be destroyed in an instant. When someone has a real or perceived reason not to trust another, the potential for conflict rises.

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8.6 Issues involved in conflict

The nature of conflict varies according to the kind of issue on which people disagree. There are four basic issues which may be involved in a conflict either exclusively or jointly with others. These issues are:

Facts: Conflict may occur because of disagreement that the persons have different definitions of a problem, relevant facts related to the problem, or their authority and power.

Goals: Sometimes the disagreement may be about what should be accomplished- the desirable objectives of a department, division, section or of a specific position within the organization.

Methods: Individuals differ about the procedures, strategies or tactics which would most likely achieve a mutually desired goal.

Values: Sometimes, the disagreement is over ethics, the way power should be exercised or moral considerations or assumptions about justice, fairness and so on. Such differences may affect the choice of either goals or methods.

8.7 Outcomes of Conflicts

Some types of conflict encourage new solutions to problems and enhance the creativity in the organizations. In these cases, managers will want to encourage the conflicts. Functional conflicts are conflicts that support the goals of the group and improve its performance. There are also conflicts that hinder group performance. These are disfunctional or destructive forms of conflict. Therefore, managers should stimulate functional conflict and prevent or resolve non-dysfunctional conflict. This is the key to conflict management. The consequences of conflict can be positive or negative, as shown below:

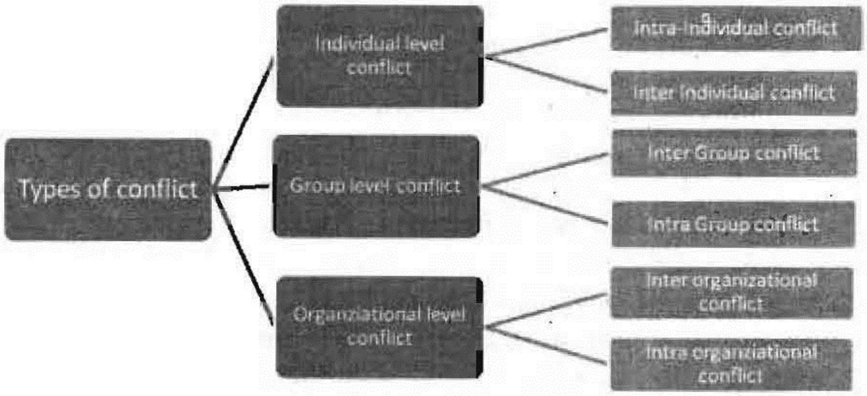
Positive Consequences	Negative Consequences
1. Leads to new ideas.	1. Diverts energy from work.
2. Stimulates creativity.	2. Threatens psychological well-being.
3. Motivates Change	3. Wastes resources
4. Promotes organizational vitality.	4. Creates a negative climate.
5. Helps individuals and groups establishidentities	5. Breaks down group cohesion.
6. Serves as a safety valve to indicate problems.	6. Can increase hostility and aggres sive behaviours.

8.8 Functional vs. Disfunctional Conflict

Functional, constructive forms of conflict support the goals of the group and improve its performance. Conflicts that hinder group performance are disfunctional or destructive forms of conflict. Task conflict relates to the content and goals of the work. Low-to-moderate levels of task conflict are functional and consistently demonstrate a positive effect on group performance because it stimulates discussion, improving group performance.

Disfunctional Conflict: There are conflicts that hinder group performance and are therefore known as disfunctional or destructive forms of conflict. Disfunctional conflict is an unhealthy, destructive disagreement between two or more people. A key for recognizing a disfunctional conflict is that ITO origin is often emotional or behavioural. Disagreements that involve personalized anger and resentment directed at specific individuals rather than specific ideas are disfunctional. In disfunctional conflict, the losses in both parties may exceed any potential gain from the conflict.

8.9 Types of conflict



1) **Individual level Conflict:** The analysis of conflict may start at the individual level itself. Since an organization is composed of various individuals, many conflicts develop at individual level. The individual level conflict may be analyzed in two ways:

   I. **Intra-individual conflict:** Though conflict requires two parties, it may also take place within an individual itself. Conflict at intrapersonal level occurs because a smooth progression of the need-drive-goal cycle does not occur in reality. Within every individual there are number of competing roles and goals. Thus, an individual experiences two types of conflict in himself: goal conflict and role conflict.

   a. Goal Conflict: A common source of conflict for an individual is a goal that has both positive and negative features, or two or more competing goals. Goal conflict occurs when two or more goals block each other. There can be three alternatives of goal conflict: approach-approach, approach-avoidance and avoidance-avoidance conflict.

      i) **Approach-Approach** conflict, where the individual is motivated to approach two or more positive but mutually exclusive goals. **For example,** the person might be torn between two lucrative jobs

      ii) **Approach-Avoidance** conflict, where the individual is motivated to approach a goal and at the same time is motivated to avoid it. The single goal contains both positive and negative characteristics for the individual. **For example,** A Delhi university teacher may be offered an excellent job in a bad location.

      iii) **Avoidance-Avoidance** conflict, where the individual is motivated to avoid two or more negative but mutually exclusive goals. **For example,** workers may dislike present job, but the alternative of leaving and look up for another job may be even less attractive

   b. Role conflict: An individual performs number of roles. Although all the roles which he brings into the organization are relevant to his behavior, in the study of organizational behavior, however, his organizational role is more important. In the organization, every person is expected to behave in a particular manner while performing a specific role. When expectations of a role are materially different or opposite from the behavior expected by the individual in that role, he tends to be in role conflict because there is no way to meet one expectation without rejecting the other. There may be four types of role conflicts:

      i) **Intra-sender role conflict:** There may be intra-sender role conflict where the expectations from a single member of a role set may be incompatible. This happens when a person called upon to perform a work

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within specified limit but it cannot be possible to do work within that limit.

ii) **Inter-sender Role conflict:** There may be inter-sender role conflict where the expectations sent from one sender are in conflict with those from one or more other senders.

iii) **Inter-role conflict:** There is inter-role conflict when an individual occupies two or more roles simultaneously and the expectations associated with those different roles are incompatible.

iv) **Role-self conflict:** It occurs when role requirements violate the needs, values, or capacities of the person.

II. **Inter-Individual (Personal) Conflict:** Inter-personal conflicts arise between two individuals having competition for achieving scarce things, such as status, power, position, promotion or resources or they may pick up conflict due to their divergent opinions, attitudes or values. Disagreement among individuals in an organization may arise for variety of reasons: (1) Personal differences i.e. everyone has a unique background because of his or her upbringing, cultural and family traditions, and socialization processes, (2) Information deficiency i.e. communication breakdown in the organization, (3) Role incompatibility – tasks are highly interdependent and (4) Environmental stress- shrinking resources, downsizing, competitive pressures or high degrees of uncertainty. Interpersonal conflicts may be interpreted in two forms:

a. **Vertical Conflict:** Vertical relationship, that is mostly in the form of superior-subordinate relationship, results into vertical conflicts which usually arise because superior attempts to control the behavior of his subordinates, and subordinates resist such control. A subordinate may resist such control as he feels that his superior tries to control activities outside the scope of his control and he perceives conflict with his superior and the latter may feel when his attempt of control is let down.

b. **Horizontal conflict:** Horizontal conflict at interpersonal level is among the persons at the same hierarchical level in the same function or in different functions. Within each functional group, there may be many individuals and these individuals interact themselves among themselves. Such interactions may be contacts for the purpose of giving, taking, and soliciting advice, counsel, information, and skilled assistance on difficult problems. These interactions may be cooperative or conflicting depending on the nature of persons involved in interaction and situational variables.

2) **Group level Conflict:** Conflict may occur at group level. A group constitutes two or more persons who interact in such a way that each person influences and is influenced by others. Groups exist in every organization and they affect the behavior of their members. They not only affect the behavior of their members, rather, they have impact on other groups and the organization as a whole. In this interaction process, there may be two types of conflict: intragroup (within the group), and intergroup (between the groups).

III. **Intragroup Conflict:** Intra group conflict may be thought in terms of group characteristics and, to some extent, interpersonal conflict, especially if two persons are from the same group. A group consists of a number of persons whose interactions at a given time generate a system of values, norms, and sanctions appropriate to the nature of the task on which they are working, which has created a set of well-defined role and status relations which are interdependent. Intra group conflict may arise in three situations:

a. When group faces a novel problem of task;

b. Where new values are imported from the social environment into the group; and

c. Where a person's extra-group role comes into conflict with his intra-group role.

Intra group conflict is visualized more when people come from different socio-economic backgrounds and have different political and religious views.

IV. **Intergroup Conflict:** Inter-group conflict arises out of the interaction of various groups. There are many factors in the organization, which determine the intergroup relations. These factors can influence relations between two or more groups. If these factors are not positive, they tend to create conflict among groups. These factors are:

a. **Competition for resources:** Most organization today has very little resources. Groups within the organization compete for budget funds, space, supplies, personnel, and support services.

b. **Task interdependence:** If two groups in the organization depend on one another in a mutual way or even a one way direction (as in sequential technological process), there tends to be more conflict than if groups are independent of one another. The more diverse the objectives, priorities, and personnel of the interdependent groups (e.g. research and production), the more conflict there tends to be.

c. **Jurisdictional ambiguity:** This may "turf" problems or overlapping responsibilities. For example, conflict might occur when one group attempts to assume more control or take credit for desirable activities, or give up its part and any responsibility for undesirable activities.

d. **Status struggles:** This conflict occurs when one group attempts to improve its status and another group view this as a threat to its placed in the status hierarchy. One group may also feel it is being inequitably treated in comparison with another group of equal status in terms of reward, job assignments, working conditions, privileges, or status symbols.

3) **Organizational Conflict;** Conflicts at individual level may be or at group level are all inherent in organizational level conflict. Conflict at organizational level may be intra-organizational or inter-organizational.

V. **Intra organizational Conflict:** Intra organizational conflicts may be again in various forms, for example, at individual level and at group level. Since, these are all parts of the organization; the conflicts among them are of much concern to the organization. The reasons of conflicts in an organization are many but mainly three kinds of internal strains can be identified:

a. **Horizontal Conflict:** Horizontal conflict refers to conflict between employees or departments at the same hierarchical level in an organization. The source of conflict between departments consists of pressures towards sub optimization. Each department may sub-optimize by independently trying to achieve its own departmental goals.

b. **Vertical Conflict:** Vertical conflict separates people in various levels of the occupational ladders in organization. It refers to any conflict between different levels in an organization. It occurs usually in superior-subordinate relations.

c. **Line and staff Conflict:** Controversy and conflict are inherent in the concept of line and staff. It is not an easy task to divide and distribute expertise, authority and roles in equitable quantities between the line generalists and staff specialists.

VI. **Inter organizational Conflict:** Inter-organizational interaction results in conflict among different organizations, however, it is not necessary that such interaction may result in conflict. Inter-organizations conflict may include:

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Check Your Progress

1. What is Organizational Conflict?
2. What are different sources of Conflict?
3. What are different conflict management techniques?

a. Conflict between organizations pursuing similar objectives

b. Conflict between government agency and organization

c. Conflict between head office and a manufacturing unit

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While the last one is regularized by organizational rules and procedures, the other types of conflicts are regulated by social actions, particularly by State laws, administrative agencies, courts, and regulatory commissions.

8.10 THE CONFLICT PROCESS

The process of conflict management has the following steps (Schermerhorn. et al, 2002):

A. *Stage I: Potential Opposition or Incompatibility*

This stage concludes the conditions that create opportunities for conflict to arise. The conditions are as follows:

1. **Communication** - Communication becomes a source of conflict due to semantic difficulties, is understandings, and "noise" (distortion) in the communication channels. Differing word connotations, jargon, insufficient exchange of information, and noise in the communication channel are all barriers to communication and potential antecedents to conflict.
2. **Structure** - The term structure includes variables such as size, degree of specialization, jurisdictional clarity, member-goal compatibility, leadership styles, reward systems, and the degree of dependence. Size and specialization act as forces to stimulate conflict. The larger the group and more specialized its activities, the greater the likelihood of conflict. The potential for conflict is greatest where group members are younger and turnover is high. The greater the ambiguity in responsibility for actions lies, the greater the potential for conflict.
3. **Personal variables** - Personal variables include individual value systems and personality characteristics. Certain personality types lead to potential conflict. Value differences are the best explanation for differences of opinion on various matters.

B. *Stage II: Cognition and Personalization*

Antecedent conditions lead to conflict only when the parties are affected by and aware of it. Conflict is personalized when it is felt and when individuals become emotionally involved. Emotions play a major role in shaping perceptions. Negative emotions produce oversimplification of issues, reductions in trust, and negative interpretations of the other party's behavior. Positive feelings increase the tendency to see potential relationships among the elements of a problem, to take a broader view of the situation, and to develop more innovative solutions (Robbins, 2003).

C. *Stage III. Intentions*

The primary conflict-handling intentions are represented as follows:

- Cooperativeness - "the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy the other party's concerns."
- Assertiveness - "the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns."
- Competing: When one person seeks to satisfy his or her own interests, regardless of the impact on the other parties to the conflict
- Collabourating: When the parties to conflict each desire to fully satisfy the concerns of all parties. The intention is to solve the problem by clarifying differences rather than by accommodating.

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- Avoiding: A person may recognize that a conflict exists and want to withdraw from it ot suppress it.
- Accommodating: When one party seeks to appease an opponent, that party is willing to be self-sacrificing.
- Compromising: When each party to the conflict seeks to give up something, sharing occurs, resulting in a compromised outcome. There is no clear winner or loser, and the solution provides incomplete satisfaction of both parties' concerns.

Stage IV: Behaviour

The behaviour stage includes the statements, actions, and reactions made by the conflicting parties. These conflict behaviours are usually overt attempts to implement each party's intentions. It is a dynamic process of interaction with a continuum. At the lower part of the continuum, conflicts are characterized by subtle, indirect, and highly controlled forms of tension. Conflict intensities escalate as they move upward along the continuum until they become highly destructive. Functional conflicts are typically confined to the lower range of the continuum.

Stage V: Outcomes

Outcomes may be functional - improving group performance, or disfunctional in hindering it. Conflict is constructive when it (Robins, 2003):

a) Improves the quality of decisions.

b) Stimulates creativity and innovation.

c) Encourages interest and curiosity.

d) Provides the medium through which problems can be aired and tensions released.

e) Fosters an environment of self-evaluation and change.

Outcomes may be disfunctional as well. They are as follows: Uncontrolled opposition breeds discontent, which acts to dissolve common ties and eventually' leads to the destruction of the group. Undesirable consequences include a retarding of communication, reductions in group cohesiveness, subordination of group goals to the primacy of infighting between members. Conflict can bring group functioning to a halt and potentially threaten the group's survival. The demise of an organization as a -result of too much conflict is not as unusual as it might first appear.

8.11 RESOLUTION OF CONFLICT

Procedure for resolution of conflict

Following steps must be taken in resolving a conflict already arisen:

1) **Preliminary step :**

   This step involves knowing of full details of the conflict and the first thing to note is the stage of conflict. The more advance the stage of conflict, the more efforts are required to resolve it. Moreover strategy used is also dependent upon the stage of conflict.

2) **Diagnosing the issue :**

   Under this stage, the issues involved should be analyzed and understood what the conflict is about. It may arise due to facts, goals, methods and values. Next thing in diagnosing is to know why these differences have arisen. The differences may be informal, perceptual, role factors and the like.

Check Your Progress

4. What do you mean by the term Negotiation?
5. Explain Intergroup Relations.

3) **Conflict handling modes :**

Below are given some conflict handling modes.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES/STYLES/MODES

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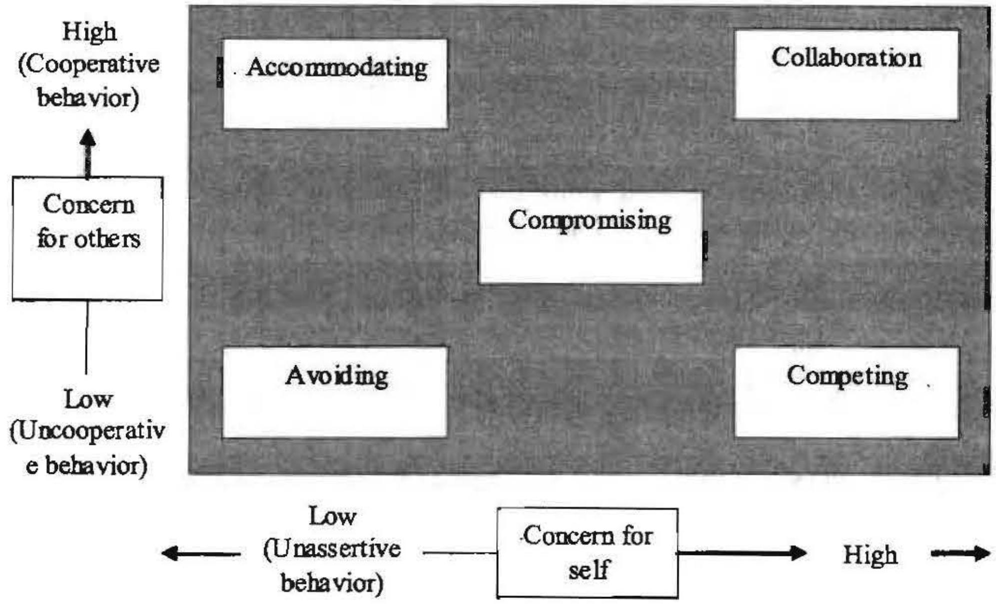
Conflict expert **Kenneth Thomas** notes that there are several basic reactions that can be thought of as styles, strategies or intentions for dealing with conflict. As shown in the figure given below these approaches to managing conflict are a function of both how assertive one is trying to satisfy one's own or one's group's concerns and also how cooperative one is trying to satisfy those of the other party or group.



1) **Avoiding (Withdrawal) :**

The avoiding style is characterized by low assertiveness of one's own interest and low cooperation with the other party. Avoiding can provide short term stress reduction from the rigors of conflict as it doesn't change the situation.

2) **Accommodation (Smoothing) :**

This style is low in assertiveness and high on cooperativeness. Parties are accommodative, cooperative and prepared to make reasonable sacrifices for resolving the conflict. The emphasis is on the common interest of the conflicting groups and the de-emphasis on their differences. The technique can be used with a temporary solution which is needed in the short run.

3) **Competing (Dominance) :**

A competing style tends to maximize assertiveness for one's own position and minimize cooperative responses. In doing so one tends to frame the conflict in strict win-lose terms. Full priority is given to one's goals, facts or procedures. The competing style holds promise when someone has a lot of power and you don't have to interact with the other party in the future.

4) **Compromise :**

Compromise combines immediate levels of assertiveness and cooperation. Thus it is itself a compromise between pure competition and pure accommodation. Compromise isn't so useful for resolving conflicts that stem from power asymmetry, because the weaker party may have little to offer the stringer party. It is good fall-back position if other strategies fail.

5) **Collaboration :**

In the collaborating mode, both assertiveness and cooperation are maximized in the hope that an integrative agreement occurs that fully satisfies the interest of both parties. If probably works best when the conflict is not intense and when each party has information that is useful to the other. Effective collaboration van take time and practice to develop, it frequently enhances productivity and achievement. Collaboration also helps to manage conflict within organization.

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8.12 NEGOTIATION AND INTER GROUP BEHAVIOR

Compromise is a well-accepted technique for resolving conflicts. This compromise is arrived at through negotiation. Therefore, understanding of negotiation and how it works is important for conflict managemenr. Negotiation basically involves bargaining. The dictionary meaning of negotiation is bargaining for the purpose of mutual agreement.

Wall has defined negotiation as follows:

"Negotiation is a process in which two or more parties exchange goods or services and attempt to agree on the exchange rate for them."

Negotiation is the process in which two or more parties (individuals or groups) attempt to reach agreement on issues on which they have differences.

It may be seen that negotiation is an attempt to settle differences among parties; it is not necessary that the differences are actually settled. In negotiations, two types of bargaining may be involved: distributive and integrative.

Distributive Bargaining:

Distributive bargaining operates under zero sum conditions, that is, any gain to one party is at the expense of the other party. Normally, in a distributive bargaining, various economic issues are involved, such as wages, salaries, bonus, and other financial matters. While bargaining with each other, each party has a target point that defines what it would like to achieve. Each party also has a resistance point which marks the lowest outcome that is acceptable- the point below which the parties would break off negotiation rather than accepting a less-favorable settlement. The area between these two pints makes up each one's aspiration range. While engaged in negotiation, each party's tactics is to get its opponent to agree to one's target point or to get as close to it as possible.

Integrative Bargaining:

In contrast to distributive bargaining, integrative bargaining operates under the assumption that there exist one or more settlements that can create a win-win situation. Integrative bargaining is preferable to distributive bargaining because it builds long-term relationships and facilitates table with a feeling that they have achieved a victory. In integrative bargaining, an attempt is made to understand the viewpoint of each party empathetically. With the result, many issues which are perceived to be controversial and are not likely to be resolved cordially do not appear to be so. However, integrative bargaining becomes effective when some conditions exist. These are: parties must have sensitivity to each other's needs, have ability to trust others, and maintains flexibility.

Below given table presents the comparative characteristics of distributive bargaining and integrative bargaining

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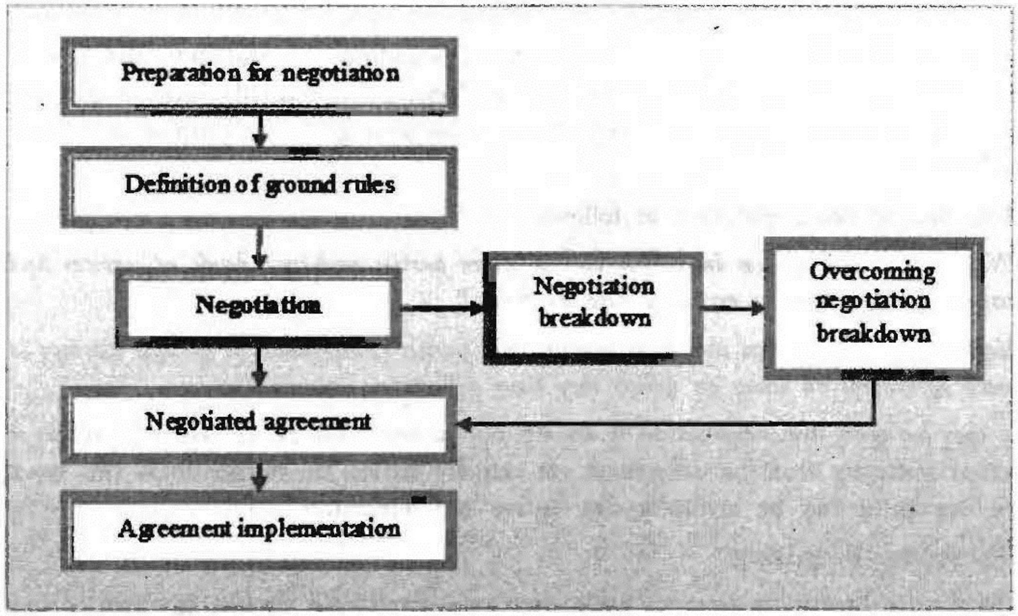
Bargaining Characteristics	Distributive bargaining	Integrative bargaining
Available resources	Fixed amount of resources to be divided	Variable amount of resources to be divided
Primary motivation	I win- You lose	I win- You win
Primary interest	Opposed to each other	Congruent with each other
Focus of relationship	Short-term	Long-term

8.13 Negotiation process

Negotiation is a process which involves several steps as shown in figure below:



1) **Preparation for negotiation:** Preparation for negotiation is as important as the negotiation itself. Preparation for negotiation involves following activities:

   a. Collection of information about the nature of conflict requiring negotiation, its history, and causes to understand the conflict in right perspective.

   b. Understanding of the perception of the other party about the conflict and its likely effect on both the parties.

   c. Determination of target point as well as resistance point for outcome of negotiation.

2) **Definition of ground rules:** Once the preparation for negotiation is completed, ground rules for negotiation are framed out in consultation with other party to negotiation. Ground rules include the following aspects:

   d. Who will do the negotiating?

   e. Where will the negotiation takes place?

   f. What time constraints, if any, will apply?

   g. To what issues will negotiation be limited?

   h. Will there be a specific procedure to follow if any impasse is created?

3) **Negotiation:** At this stage, both the parties engage in negotiating with each other at a time and place fixed for the purpose. At the negotiating table,

both the parties explain, clarify, and justify the original proposals. Based on this, actual process of give and take starts. For this purpose, one of two approaches can be adopted: Piecemeal approach and total approach. In Piecemeal approach, an issue can be taken, deliberated, and decided without linking it to another. In this way, all issues are decided. In order that negotiation proceeds smoothly, the items first are taken are those on which consensus is expected without much discussion, leaving the more contentious issues to be settled at the end. In total approach, all the issues are discussed but issue-wise decision is not arrived at as no issue is settled independently. Every issue is kept open until the whole negotiation process is ready to fall into place into a total agreement.

4) **Negotiated agreement:** When both parties arrive at some mutually-acceptable agreement at the initial negotiation or through overcoming negotiation impasse, the agreement is entered into between the parties. In certain cases, there is a need for ratification of the agreement, for example, in the case of labor union-management agreement; ratification is required by union and management.

5) **Agreement Implementation:** When the agreement is finalized, it becomes operational from the date indicated in the agreement. The agreement must be implemented in terms of its letters and spirit by both the parties. During the process of agreement implementation, there is a possibility that some provisions may create problems in the organization because of poor drafting of provisions. If mechanism has been provided in the agreement itself, this problem can be overcome through this mechanism. Where no such mechanism is provided, it can be sorted out through mutual consultation between the parties concerned.

8.14 Issues in the Negotiation Process

- **Biases in Decision Making:** During the negotiation process, individuals might fall a victim to biases on their part which results in ineffective decision making. This also prevents them from arriving at a mutually acceptable agreement.

- **Personality Traits:** Assuming that a negotiating strategy can be predicted by observing the personality traits of the opponent could prove to be a hindrance in effective negotiations. However, studies have shown that the negotiation strategies as well as the outcomes of negotiation process are unaffected by the personality traits of the members involved in the negotiation process. Therefore, while preparing for the negotiation process, one would be better off focusing on the bargaining issues and the situational factors rather than on the opponent's personality traits.

- **Cultural Differences:** Cultural differences have an impact on the negotiation process. For instance, negotiation styles differ from country to country. The Japanese and the Chinese, for example, tend to prolong the discussions, giving importance to minute details. In stark contrast, North Americans give importance to time and deadlines and try to end the discussion as soon as possible.

- **Third-Party Negotiation:** In the event that the results of direct negotiations fail to satisfy both parties, they appoint a third-party negotiator to arrive at an agreement that is acceptable to both parties. The third-party negotiator could be:

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- o A mediator: A mediator uses logical reasoning and persuasion techniques to convince parties to arrive at an agreement. S/he also suggests alternative solutions that could prove beneficial to the conflicting parties.
- o An arbitrator: An arbitrator is sometimes appointed voluntarily by the parties and in some cases by the law. S/he has the authority to enforce her/his decision over the conflicting parties.
- o A conciliator: A conciliator is a third-party negotiator who tries to act as an informal link between both the parties. S/he is also trusted by both parties and tries to come up with a solution that is acceptable by both sides.
- o A consultant: A consultant uses conflict management techniques to resolve the differences between the parties. However, he does not find any specific solutions, but only helps both the parties in finding a solution.

Intergroup Relations

An intergroup relation refers to the relationship that exists between two or more groups in an organization. Intergroup relationships have a major influence on the co-ordination among the individuals belonging to various groups. Co-ordination is a necessary element in the effective performance of organizations. Therefore, intergroup relations have to be maintained properly.

8.15 Factors that Affect Intergroup Relations

1) **Interdependence:** The degree to which groups are interdependent defines the extent of their interaction with each other. Therefore, interdependence of groups is a major factor that affects intergroup relations. The interdependence of groups can be pooled, sequential, and reciprocal.
2) **Pooled Interdependence:** When two or more groups work individually but their cumulative efforts lead to the accomplishment of a common task,.then the groups are said to share a pooled interdependence.
3) **Sequential Interdependence:** This kind of interdependence exists when one of the groups is dependent on the other for some input, but the reverse is not true. For instance, in a manufacturing company, during the process of manufacturing, work groups belonging to production of products are dependent on the inventory department for the supply of raw material, but the inventory department is not dependent upon the production department.
4) **Reciprocal Interdependence:** This type of interdependence exists between groups that are mutually dependent on each other for exchange of inputs and outputs. This type of interdependence results in a higher degree of interaction between groups when compared to pooled or sequential interdependence.

CASE STUDY

Roshni was the personal Assistant to commissioner in the federal Public Service. The Commissioner had the major role of employing workers into the public service as he always chair all Board interviews for employment.

Because of the sensitive nature of his position, all manner of men and woman visit his office daily including from his aged but highly educated parents who were consrantly under pressure to secure jobs for relations and family friends who were taking advantage of their son's position.

Others were his colleagues, friends, former class mates' fellow aluminus, seniors and highly placed government officials and those from the organised private sector, all of these were soliciting for one favour or the other from the commission.

Many of them ofren refuse to go through the official protocol as they usually crash into his office in twos or more without invitation or due respect to office procedure. Some weeks past, he had reprimanded his personal Assistant (Roshni) for complacency. Accusing her of being too weak and undiplomatic.

In his words: "Roshni, i will give you the boot very soon for allowing people bump into my office like bandits". He seriously blamed her and gave a stern warning to curtail lapses. He lefr this instruction: "Nobody and i repeat, nobody should be allowed into my office without filling the visitors note which must be passed to me for approval." He repeated that even his parents should not be treated like sacred cows again.

Concluding, he reiterated that any further violation could cost her, her job.

Two weeks after, a highly placed officer in the presidency came with some vital information and classified documents for his acrion. A mild drama ensued at the commissioner's reception as Roshni insisted that the official must follow the usual protocol. The visitor said he would not fill any form before seeing old John, his classmate in the University with whom he squatted for three years due to accommodation problems. Besides, they belong to the same fraternity.

As the drama continued, he was angered to a point that he made up his mind to go back to his boss to register his ordeal with the personal Assistant to the commissioner. His boss- The Secretary to the Government of the Federation- was fully disappointed by the attitude to work of the Personal Assistant to the Commissioner.

A week after, the Commissioner received a query from the office of the Head of Service of the Federation demanding to know why he should not be transferred to states offices for failing to deal with matters of urgent attention from the Presidency which was sent to his office and was thwarted by him.

The Commissioner who was unaware of the development in his reception some weeks back invited Personal Assistant for a brief investigation and it was then that he got to know the reason for the query.

He contemplated "firing" his Personal Assistant who, he was convinced, got him involved in that mess and concluded to fake that Roshni revealed official secret to her uncle who was penciled down for compulsory retirement with twenty others because of their Union activities.

He finally booted her out of the public service via a letter of dismissal from service accusing her of divulging classified information. Based on unofficial investigation, it was discovered that the information got out of the Commissioner's office through the commissioner's messenger who confessed to his pastor for atonement of his sin.

The Union came in defence of Roshni and issued a forty-eight hour ultimatum for her immediate recall back to duty or face the worst union crisis ever in the history of the Commission.

From Grapevine, workers came to know the real cause of Roshni problems and mounted serious pressure on the authorities of the Commission to recall Roshni with an unreserved apology.

The management in respect of the Head of Service had mandated to carry out a detailed investigation into the case and

1) Identify what went wrong
2) Advise on how to resolve the conflicts

8.16 SUMMARY:

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- Organizational conflict may imply difference of opinion with persons or groups and sometimes they manage to showdown and slowdown and plan strategies for them.
- Constructive conflict prevents stagnation, stimulates creativity, and allows tensions to be released.
- Conflicts that hinder group performance are disfunctional or destructive forms of conflict.
- Functional conflicts are conflicts that support the goals of the group and improve its performance.
- Negotiation is a process in which two or more parties exchange goods or services and attempt to agree on the exchange rate for them.
- Distributive bargaining operates under zero sum conditions, that is, any gain to one party is at the expense of the other party.
- In contrast to distributive bargaining, integrative bargaining operates under the assumption that there exist one or more settlements that can create a win-win situation.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Conflict is a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affects, something that the first party cares about.
2. Sources of Conflict-Organizational Change, Personality clashes, Different sets of values, Threats to status, contrasting perceptions, Lack of trust.
3. Conflict management techniques - Avoiding, Accommodation, Competing, Compromise, Collaboration.
4. Negotiation is the process in which two parties attempt to reach agreement on issues on which they have differences.
5. An intergroup relation refers to the relationship that exists between two or more groups in an organization.

8.17 TEST YOURSELF :

1) Write a short note on Conflict Management.
2) What are the sources of conflict?
3) Explain the procedure for resolution of conflict
4) State various techniques of Conflict management.
5) Explain various steps involved in Negotiation process.

8.18 Reference

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8.19 FURTHER READING

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9 Organization Change

NOTES

The Chapter Covers :

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Change refers to any alteration that occurs in total work environment. Generally, people are accustomed to a well-established way of life and any variation in or deviation from that life may be called as a change. Change is some way is the necessary aspect of human life. Change is the law of nature. It is an event that occurs when something passes from one state or phase to another.

MEANING OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

The term 'Organizational Change' implies the creation of imbalance in the existence pattern or situation. It is necessary way of life in most organizations for their survival and growth. Man has to mould himself continuously to meet new demand and face new situations. Organizational change involves disequilibrium in the situation and environment in which the people and the group exists. Whenever a change in an organization is directed, companies can experience a criticism from workers who resist the change. That's why organizational change management is so important. Change in the organization is a must whether brought about deliberately or unwill-

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ingly. The reason for change can be categorized as change in business conditions, change in managerial personnel, deficiency in existing organizational patterns, technological and psychological reasons, government policies, size of the organization.

In the day to day operations of company business, leaders are used to operate in environments where the strategic goals were established long ago and workers are familiar with existing job requirements and expectations. When internal or external factors or competitive pressures force a change in a company's core objectives; existing business processes get redefined and this can adversely impact workers if not managed appropriately.

Organizational change management (OCM) is a framework for managing the effect of new business processes, changes in organizational structure or cultural changes within an enterprise. A systematic approach to OCM is beneficial when change requires people throughout an organization to learn new behaviors and skills. Change management is a structured approach to transitioning individuals, teams, and organizations from a current state to a desired future state. It is an organizational process aimed at empowering employees to accept and embrace changes in their current business environment.

9.2 Nature of organizational change

The term change refers to an alteration in a system whether physical, biological, or social. Thus, organizational change is the alteration of work environment in organization. Organization change has following features:-

1. When change occurs in any part of the organization, it disturbs the old equilibrium; necessitating the development of a new equilibrium. This equilibrium implies between different components of organization- technology, structural arrangement, job design, and people. The type of new equilibrium depends on the degree of change and its impact on the organization.
2. Any change may affect the whole organization; some parts of the organization may be affected more, others less; some parts are affected directly, others indirectly.
3. Organizational change is a continuous process. However, some changes which are of minor type may be absorbed by the existing equilibrium; other, which are ones may require special change efforts.
4. Change may be reactive or proactive. When change is brought about due to the pressure of external forces, it is reactive change. Proactive change is initiated by the management on its own to increase organizational effectiveness.

9.3 Barriers to change

The need for rapid organizational change is a fact of life in today's business environment. The key to successful change is in the planning and the implementation. The three greatest barriers to organizational change are most often the following.

1. **Inadequate Culture-shift Planning:** Most companies are good at planning changes in reporting structure, work area placement, job responsibilities, and administrative structure. Organizational charts are commonly revised again and again. Timelines are established, benchmarks are set, transition teams are appointed, etc. Failure to forecast and plan for resultant cultural change, however, is also common. When the planning team is too narrowly defined or too focused on objective analysis and critical thinking, it becomes too easy

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to lose sight of the fact that the planned change will affect people. Even at work, people make many decisions on the basis of feelings and intuition. When the feelings of employees are overlooked, the result is often deep resentment because some unrecognized taboo or tradition has not been duly respected.

2. **Lack of Employee Involvement.** People have an intrinsic fear of change. In most strategic organizational change, at least some employees will be asked to assume different responsibilities or focus on different aspects of their knowledge or skill. The greater the change a person is asked to make, the more pervasive that person's fear will be. There will be fear of change. More important, however, there will be fear of failure in the new role. Involving employees as soon as possible in the change effort, letting them create as much of the change as is possible and practical is key to a successful change effort. As employees understand the reasons for the change and have an opportunity to "try the change on for size" they more readily accept and support the change.

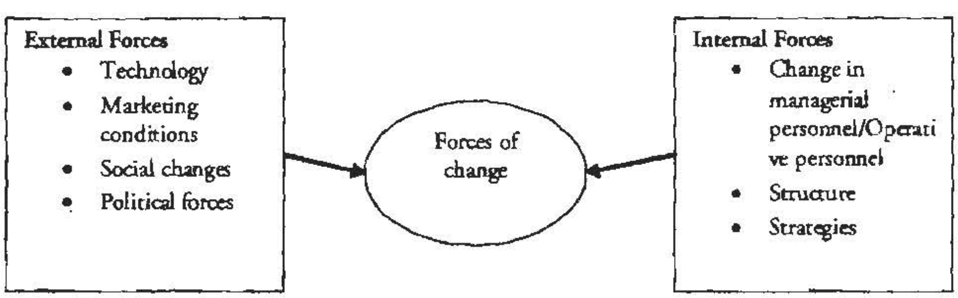
3. **Inconsistent Communication Strategies.** Ideal communication strategies in situations of significant organizational change must share clear message, the method of delivery, the timing, and the importance of information shared with various parts of the organization. Many leaders believe that if they tell people what they (the leaders) feel they need to know about the change, then everyone will be on board and ready to move forward. In reality, people need to understand why the change is being made, but more importantly, how the change is likely to affect them. A big picture announcement from the CEO does little to help people understand and accept change. People want to hear about change from their direct supervisor. A strategy of engaging direct supervision and allowing them to manage the communication process is the key to a successful change communication plan.

There are other barriers, to be sure, but the three outlined above are extremely common and highly likely to create havoc in the organization. By planning and dealing with these three areas thoroughly, carefully, and sensitively, people will be most likely to get on board and help implement the change and adapt to organizational change far more readily and supportively.

Forces of Organizational change/ why are changes made

Change has become the norm in most organizations. Business failure, mergers and acquisitions, downsizing, re-engineering, productivity improvement, globalization and other efforts for survival are common among most Indian companies. Organizations are in state of tremendous chaos and transition and hence all members are affected.

The changes stem from several sources. Some of these are external, arising from the outside the organizations, whereas others are internal, arising from sources within the company.



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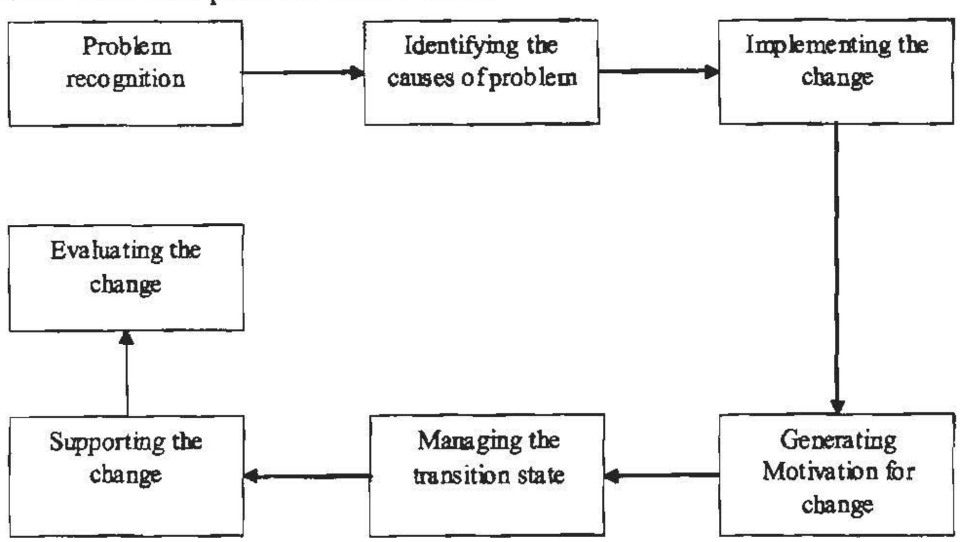
While the external environment (competitive, regulatory, and so on) will continue to play a role in an organization's ability to deliver goods and services, the internal environment within the organization will increasingly inhibit it from delivering products required to meet the demands of the marketplace unless it is able to adapt quickly. The major areas of changes in a company's internal environment include:

- Strategic: Sometimes in the course of normal business operation it is necessary for management to adjust the firm's strategy to achieve the goals of the company, or even to change the mission statement of the organization in response to demands of the external environments. Adjusting a company's strategy may involve changing its fundamental approach to doing business: the markets it will target, the kinds of products it will sell, how they will be sold, its overall strategic orientation, the level of global activity, and its various partnerships and other joint-business arrangements.
- Structural: Organizations often find it necessary to redesign the structure of the company due to influences from the external environment. Structural changes involve the hierarchy of authority, goals, structural characteristics, administrative procedures, and management systems. Almost all change in how an organization is managed falls under the category of structural change. A structural change may be as simple as implementing a no-smoking policy, or as involved as restructuring the company to meet the customer needs more effectively.
- People-centered: This type of change alters the attitudes, behaviors, skills, or performance of employees in the company. Changing people-centered processes involves communicating, motivating, leading, and interacting within groups. This focus may entail changing how problems are solved, the way employees learn new skills, and even the very nature of how employees perceive themselves, their jobs, and the organization. Some people-centered changes may involve only incremental changes or small improvements in a process. For example, many organizations undergo leadership training that teaches managers how to communicate more openly with employees. Other programs may concentrate on team processes by teaching both managers and employees to work together more effectively to solve problems.

9.4 Process of organizational change:

Organizational change is a complex process which involves various stages. These stages must follow a certain sequence. The sequences of stages in which the change process must take place are shown below:



Check Your Progress

1. What is Organizational Change?
2. Describe OCM.

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1. Problem recognition: In the problem recognition stage, management acknowledges that a problem exists in organization. The data gathering processes in the organization highlight the problems in the organization, which affect its productivity and thus make the management aware thar a problem exists. Employee turnover, absenteeism, union disputes, employees grievances, high cost of production, role conflicts, and declining profits are some examples of problems that affecr the productivity of organizations.
2. Identifying the causes of problems: In this stage, management must find out the root cause of those problems that are identified in the problem recognirion stage. For example, if declining profitability is identified as the major problem facing the organization, it could be attributed to reasons such as decline in employee productivity, increase in the production of scrap in the manufacturing stages, reduction in orders from customers, etc.
3. Implementing the change: After holding discussions with employees and analyzing the feedback gathered through questionnaires, the management will be able to identify the underlying causes of organizational problems. The management must then design a change plan to improve the situation and solve the problems.
4. Generating motivation for change: Three strategies to motivate employees to embrace changes:
   a) Management should constantly make employees realize the shortcomings in the existing system so that the resulting dissatisfaction will make them welcome the change initiatives in the organization. The management should ensure that the change program does not worsen the situation or fall short of the employees' expectations.
   b) Employees should be given a role to play in the change process. Participation promotes a sense of ownership among the employees towards the change process and encourages them to contribute to its success.
   c) Employees who successfully adopt the designed behavior should be rewarded. This is an effective way of encouraging employees to welcome change.
5. Managing the transition state: The change process disturbs the condition or state of affairs that currently exists in the organization. For example, when an organization adopts as informal culture, job profiles and reporting relationships change, and the old rules and procedures are no longer applicable. Employees will be in a state of confusion during the transition from the existing system to the new system. They may not know what their new roles are; new skills are required to perform their new roles, which they should report to, what the new performance criteria are and so on.
6. Supporting the change: To implement change successfully, management must obtain the support and co-operation of various employee groups. This can be achieved through negotiation, co- operation and compromise. Failure to obtain the support of employee groups may result in strong resistance to the change program.
7. Evaluating the change: After its implementation, the change must be evaluated to check whether the new system has been able to solve the problems identified in the old system and whether the desired future state has been attained. If the new system fails to solve the problems, or discrepancies are found between the new system and expected stage, something has clearly gone wrong with the change process. In such a case, all the stages of the change process from the problem diagnosis to the evaluation stage must be repeated once again.

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9.5 Culture and change

Organization culture sets a framework within which individual and group behavior takes place. Organizational culture is the workplace environment formulated from the interaction of the employees in the workplace. Organizational culture is defined by all of the life experiences, strengths, weaknesses, education, upbringing, and so forth of the employees. While executive leaders play a large role in defining organizational culture by their actions and leadership, all employees contribute to the organizational culture. The success of any organization depends on its culture, as it is the invisible power governing the organization. Organization culture is its strong soul which makes its functions possible and lively.

According to O'Reilly, "Organization culture is the set of assumptions, beliefs, values and norms that are shared by an organization's members."

Formal components of organizational Culture			
	Components	**Description**	**Effect on organizational culture**
a)	Mission/vision	The milestone to be reached	Could be unrealistic
b)	Procedures	Methods of providing specific guidelines	Can facilitate or create obstacles in smooth functioning
c)	Rules	Specific instructions for performing a task	Rules could be a means or an end in themselves
d)	State of organizational development	Specific instructions for performing a task	Rules could be a means or an end in themselves
e)	Policies	Statements designed to be guidelines to behavioral decision	Policies if not drafted properly can provide leeway

Other components important in changing the culture of an organization are:

- **Create value and belief statements:** use employee focus groups, by department, to put the mission, vision, and values into words that state their impact on each employee's job. For one job, the employee stated: "I live the value of quality patient care by listening attentively whenever a patient speaks." This exercise gives all employees a common understanding of the desired culture that actually reflects the actions they must commit to on their jobs.
- **Practice effective communication:** keeping all employees informed about the organizational culture change process ensures commitment and success. Telling employees what is expected of them is critical for effective organizational culture change.
- **Review organizational structure:** changing the physical structure of the company to align it with the desired organizational culture may be necessary. As an example, in a small company, four distinct business units competing for product, customers, and internal support resources, may not support the creation of an effective organizational culture. These units are unlikely to align to support the overall success of the business.
- **Redesign your approach to rewards and recognition:** you will likely need to change the reward system to encourage the behaviors vital to the desired organizational culture.
- Review all work systems such as employee promotions, pay practices, performance management, and employee selection to make sure they are aligned

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with the desired culture. As an example, you cannot just reward individual performance if the requirements of your organizational culture specify team work. An executive's total bonus cannot reward the accomplishment of his department's goals without recognizing the importance of him playing well with others on the executive team to accomplish your organizational goals.

9.6 Characteristics of organization culture

The following characteristics help us understand the nature of culture better. When these characteristics are mixed and meshed, we get essence of culture.

1. **Individual initiative:** The degrees of responsibility, freedom, and independence that individual have.
2. **Risk tolerance:** The degree of which employees are encouraged to be aggressive, innovative, and risk-seeking.
3. **Direction:** The degree to which the organization creates clear objectives and performance expectations.
4. **Integration:** The degree to which units within the organization are encouraged to operate in a coordinated manner.
5. **Management Support:** The degree to which managers provide clear communication, assistance and support to their subordinate.
6. **Control:** The number of rules and regulations, and the amount of direct supervision that is used oversee and conrrol employee behavior.
7. **Identity:** The degree to which members' identity with the organization as a whole rather than with their particular work group or field of professional expertise.
8. **Reward systems:** The degree to which reward allocations are based on employee, performance criteria in contrast to seniority, favoritism, and so on.
9. **Communication patterns:** The degree to which organizational communication are restricted to the formal hierarchy of authority.

Below are important key ingredients of Organizational Culture:

1 It focuses attention on the human side of organizational life, and finds significance and learning in even its most ordinary aspects.

2 It clarifies the importance of creating appropriate systems of shared meaning to help people work together toward desired outcomes.

3 It requires members especially leaders, to acknowledge the impact of their behavior on the organization's culture.

4 It encourages the view that the perceived relationship between an organization and its environment is also affected by the organization's basic assumptions.

9.7 Changing the organization culture

A change in organizational culture is a very difficult task. Dealing with the collective thoughts, beliefs, fears and anxieties of company employees has given rise to change management processes that help to transition the change. Deeply entrenched beliefs, fear of failure, reluctance to move outside ones comfort zone are areas that require careful planning and consideration to bring desired changes into effect. A failure to properly manage the change process can result in a dysfunctional culture where people try to apply old outdated modes of operation that are incompatible with new and improved ways to do things. Blaming external forces and individuals for failure is a common result of a reluctance to violate existing practices or codes of conduct. The suggestions below introduce several considerations for incorporation into any change management framework.

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Organizational culture is formed over years of interaction between the participants in the organization. Organizational cultures form for a reason. Perhaps the current organizational culture matches the style and comfort zone of the company founder. Since managers tend to hire people just like themselves, the established organizational culture is resistant by new hires. When people in an organization realize and recognize that their current organizational culture needs to transform to support the organization's success and progress, change can occur. But change is not pretty and change is not easy. It is only possible with proper understanding, commitment, and tools required.

9.8 Steps in Organizational Culture Change

There are three major steps involved in changing an organization's culture.

1. Before an organization can change its culture, it must first understand the current culture, or the way things are now.
2. Once you understand your current organizational culture, your organization must then decide where it wants to go, define its strategic direction, and decide what the organizational culture should look like to support success. What vision does the organization has for its future and how must the culture change to support the accomplishment of that vision?
3. Finally, the individuals in the organization must decide to change their behavior to create the desired organizational culture. This is the hardest step in culture change.

Plan the Desired Organizational Culture

The organization must plan where it wants to go before trying to make any changes in the organizational culture. With a clear picture of where the organization is currently, the organization can plan where it wants to be next. The three strategies (**Mission, vision, and values**) are there to provide a framework for the assessment and evaluation of the current organizational culture, your organization needs to develop a picture of its desired future. What does the organization want to create for the future? Mission, vision, and values should be examined for both the strategic and the value based components of the organization. Your management team needs to answer questions such as:

- What are the five most important values you would like to see represented in your organizational culture?
- Are these values compatible with your current organizational culture? Do they exist now? If not, why not? If they are so important, why are you not attaining these values?

Next, you ask: **What needs to happen to create the culture desired** by the **organization?**

You cannot change the organizational culture without knowing where your organization wants to be or what elements of the current organizational culture need to change. What cultural elements support the success of your organization, or not? However, knowing what the desired organizational culture looks like is not enough. Organizations must create plans to ensure that the desired organizational culture becomes a reality.

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Change the Organizational Culture

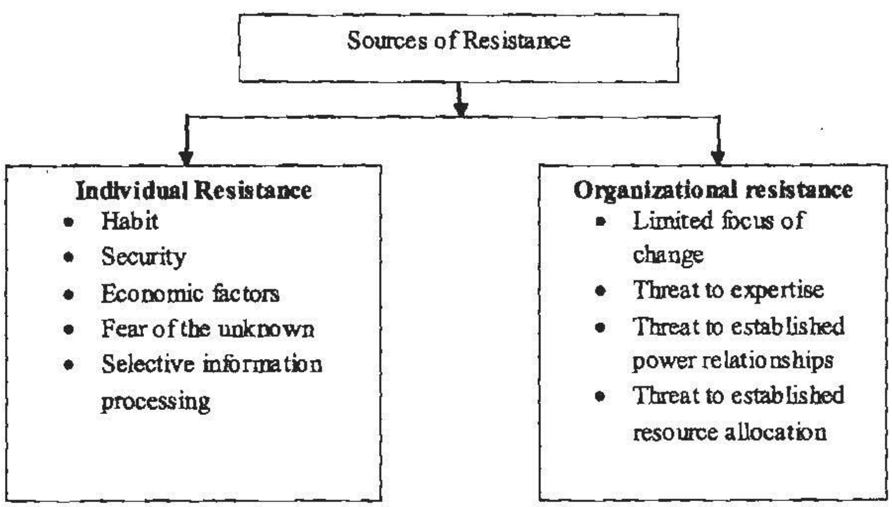
The two most important elements for creating organizational cultural change are executive support and training.

- **Executive support:** Executives in the organization must support the cultural change, and in ways beyond verbal support. They must show behavioral support for the cultural change. Executives must lead the change by changing their own behaviors. It is extremely important for executives to consistently support the change.
- **Training:** Culture change depends on behavior change. Members of the organization must clearly understand what is expected of them, and must know how to actually do the new behaviors, once they have been defined. Training can be very useful in both communicating expectations and teaching new behaviors.

9.9 Managing resistance to change

In the management of change effectively, the managers face the problem of resistance to change. People tend to resist many types of changes because new habits or sacrifices are required. Resistance to change involves employee's behavior designed to discredit, delay or prevent the changes introduced for the development of an organization. They resist because they are afraid of their job security, working conditions, status and other factors. The perceived threat may be real or imaginary. They complain about the effectiveness of changes which may harm them more than benefiting the organization.

Sources of resistance



Individual Resistance

Individual sources of resistance change reside in basic human characteristics such as perceptions, personalities, and needs. The following summarizes five reasons why individuals may resist change:

i) **Habit:** Human beings are creatures of habit. Life is complex enough; we don't need to consider the full range of options for the hundreds of decisions we have to make every day. To do so, we develop habit which is nothing but programmed responses. So whenever we are confronted with changes, this tendency to respond in our accustomed ways becomes a source of resistance. For example:- day shift working.

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ii) **Security:** People with a high need of security are likely to resist change because it threatens their feelings of safety.

iii) **Economic factors:** Another source of individual resistance is concern that changes will lower one's income. Changes in job tasks or established work routines also can arouse economic fears if people are concerned that they wont be able to perform the new tasks, so they struck to routines of their previous standards, especially when pay is closely tied to productivity.

iv) **Fear of the unknown:** Changes substitute ambiguity and uncertainty for the unknown. The transition from high school to college is typically such as experience.

v) **Selective information processing:** Individuals shape their world through their perceptions. Once they have created this world, it resists change. So individuals are guilty of selectively processing information in order to keep their perceptions intact. We hear what we want to hear. We ignore information that challenges the world we've created.

9.10 Organizational Resistance

i) **Limited focus of change:** Organizations are made up of a number of mutually dependent subsystems. So, you can't change one without affecting the others. For example, if management changes the technological processes without simultaneously modifying the organization's structure to match, the change in technology is not likely to be accepted. So limited changes in subsystems tend to get nullified by the larger systems.

ii) **Group Inertia:** Even if individuals want to change their behavior, group norms may act as a constraint. An individual union member, for instance, may be willing to accept changes in his jobs suggested by management. But if union norms dictate resisting any unilateral change made by management, he's likely to resist.

iii) **Threat to establish power relationships:** Any redeployment of decision making authority can threaten long established power dealings within the organization. The introduction of participative decision making or self managed work teams is in the kind of change that is often seen as threatening by supervisors and middle managers.

iv) **Threat to establish resource allocations:** Those groups in the organizations that control sizable resources often see change as a danger. They tend to be content with the way things are. Those who most benefits from the allocation current allocations of resources often feel threatened by changes that may affect future allocations.

9.11 Strategies for Overcoming Resistance to Change / managing resistance

If the changes are to be implemented successfully, they need full acceptance from employees. The easiest way to get this acceptance is the participation of employees in the change effort. Some of the specific strategies employed in reducing the resistance to change are as follows:

1) **Education and communication:**

If the employees do not have adequate information or if the information that they have is inaccurate, then it is necessary to educate them about the change, its process and its working.

Check Your Progress

3. What are external and internal forces of Change?
4. What is organizational culture?

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2) **Participation and involvement:**

The process of change should be genuinely wanted by the employees so that they are more enthusiastic about it. Participation of employees would ensure commitment to implementation of change. Secondly, participation will be easier to obtain from the individuals if they see some personal benefit to be gained from the change.

3) **Leadership:**

The greater the prestige and the credibility to the manager, who is acting as a change agent, the greater will be his influence upon the employees who will be involved in the change process.

4) **Negotiation and agreement:**

Negotiation and agreement technique is used when costs and benefits must be balanced for the welfare of all concerned parties. This is often used in bargaining with labor unions. It is especially important in situations where the individuals or groups will end up as losers as a result of the change and where such individuals and groups have considerable power to resist.

5) **Willingness for the sake of the group:**

Some individuals may be willing to accept changes, even if they are not totally satisfied with it, if the group that they belong to is willing to accept the change. This is especially true about the individuals who have a continuous psychological relationship with the group so that there is group "cohesiveness or group together"

6) **Timing of change:**

Timing of introduction of change can have a considerable impact on the resistance. There is always a right time and a wrong time introducing something new. The right time, obviously will meet less resistance. Therefore, management must be very careful in choosing the time when the organizational climate is highly favorable to change.

9.13 Effective implementation of change

Implementing organizational change to facilitate an organizations goals and objectives presents many challenges to gain company wide acceptance. Taking a holistic approach to the process can assist companies with adopting the right mindset right from the get go. The following represents some basic guidelines for implementing organizational change.

- **Top down approach:** It is very important that senior management embrace organizational change and remain accountable throughout the process. Strong leadership helps to create enthusiasm and overcome unwilling attitudes.

  Leaders who are respected and admired can strongly influence other team members. A strategic planning process to unite leadership in the affected business units can greatly assist to orient to the new direction.

- **Taking an incremental approach to change:** The evaluation stage for implementing organizational change allows an organization to model the proposed change process, scope and bound the deliverables and establish a feedback process. Implementing organizational changes in incremental stages provides

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the opportunity for close monitoring and iterative refinement. By involving the affected organization members in the process, those who are most likely to be affected by the change can contribute to shaping the outcome. Once people are involved, attitudes can quickly change form resistance to support.

- **Hire expertise and learn from industry best practices:** Change management professionals have previous business experience and can identify problems and oversights. Employing the services of suitably qualified personnel who can assess company requirements, tailor change initiatives and benchmark the implementation stage provides an opportunity for companies to avoid costly mistakes. Change management professionals can expand the business horizon by introducing industry best practices and referencing previous case studies that are relevant to the industry.
- **Adjust processes to accommodate the new change:** Companies that implement organizational change often fail to adequately assess the impact that changes can have on existing processes. New infrastructure and equipment is often required to sustain new changes. This includes training staff members to adequately use the equipment. The change management process should include an audit on existing processes to identify areas for risk prior to implementation.

Modern progressive business practice requires companies to adopt a flexible approach to changing markets and consumer preferences. As companies merge, streamline, exit the market at the end of the product life cycle or face new competition, implementing change in an organization is necessary to stay competitive and profitable. When a reorientation of central core business objectives takes place, it is important that a change management framework accompany the new business direction. This can greatly assist a company to achieve its new objectives.

9.14 Implementing change process

Implementation of change is a 4-step process.

1. First, managers identify possible impediments to change at all levels.
2. The second step is to decide who will be responsible for actually making the changes. External change agents may be used, which are outside consultants who specialize in managing change. Internal change agents are managers from within that are knowledgeable about the situation.
3. The third step is deciding which specific strategy to use to unfreeze, change, and refreeze the organization per Lewin's model. Top-down change is implemented by managers at a high level in the organization, knowing that the change will reverberate at all organizational levels. Bottom-up change is implemented by employees at low levels and will gradually rise through the organization.
4. Evaluating the Action is the final step in the process. Managers assess the degree to which the changes have accomplished the desired objectives.

CASE STUDY

Swetha is the marketing department manager.

She has noticed that her staff seems to be pulling in seperate directions and some members have trouble cooperating with others.

She feels team building will help her department function in a more positive and productive way.

Swetha interviews several OD consultants to find the change agent she thinks will be right for what she needs.

Swetha decides on Karthik, an organization development consultant that best answered the question, "How will this change agent build a group into a team?"

Karthik meets with Swetha to discuss the problems.

Karthik and Swetha define the problem as Swetha sees it.

They discuss specific questions to ask and data that will be collected from interviews with team members.

Karthik interviews Swetha's staff and immediately a number of issues surface that appear counterproductive to effective functioning.

Lack of communication is identificed as the most serious problem, and many of the the other major issues are the are the direct result of the communication break down.

Karthik reports the general findings back to Swetha without mentioning any names.

After discussiong the problem and possible ways to solve it, they decided on the two-day team building retreat.

The goal of the retreat is to get the group to work through the issues that are causing the biggest problems.

Before the retreat, Karthik puts together an agenda and shares it with Swetha.

Upon approval, the agenda is given to all group members.

Karthik purposelly leaves the agenda quite open so that the group will get more involved in the problem- solving process and gain greater ownership in the process of working ro achieve positive and productive change.

9.15 SUMMARY:

- Organizational change involves disequilibrium in the situation and environment in which the people and the group exists.
- Organizational change management (OCM) is a framework for managing the effect of new business processes, changes in organizational structure or cultural changes within an enterprise.
- Organization culture sets a framework within which individual and group behavior takes place. Organizational culture is the workplace environment formulated from the interaction of the employees in the workplace.
- A change in organizational culture is a very difficult task. Dealing with the collective thoughts, beliefs, fears and anxieties of company employees has given rise to change management processes that help to transition the change.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The term organizational change implies the creation of imbalance in the existence pattern or situation.

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2. Organizational change management (OCM) is a framework for managing the effect of new business processes, changes in organizational structure or cultural changes within an enterprise.

3. External forces of change: Technology, Marketing conditions, Social changes, Political forces. Internal forces of change: Change in managerial personnel/ operative personnel, Structure, Strategies.

4. Organization culture sets a framework within which individual and group behavior takes place.

5. Individual resistance: Habit, security, economic factors, fear of the unknown, selective information processing. Organizational resistance: Limited focus of change, threat to expertise, threat to established power relationships, threat to established resource allocation.

9.16 TEST YOURSELF :

1) What do you mean by Organization Change? Explain various barriers to change.
2) What are general forces of Organizational change?
3) Explain the process of organizational change.
4) Describe formal components of organizational Culture.
5) Define Culture. What are the characteristics of organization culture?
6) Discuss various steps in Organizational Culture Change.
7) What is the problem of resistance to change? Discuss various sources of resistance.
8) Describe various Strategies for Overcoming Resistance to Change.
9) What is effective implementation of change?

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BLOCK – IV

10 Organization Development

The Chapter Covers :

10.1 Introduction to organization development

Organization Development (OD) refers to the wide range strategies for organizational improvement. It is the process of improving organizations. The process of Organizational development is carefully planned and implemented to benefit the organization, its employees and its stakeholders. The term "Organization Development" is often used interchangeably with Organizational effectiveness. Organizational development is a systematic approach to improving efficiency, effectiveness and productivity in organizations. It is different from Human resource development in the sense that while Human resource development concerns itself with the development and training of the human beings in the organizations, Organization development is occupied with the development and improvement of organizational processes that ultimately contributes to efficiency. It is a planned, organization-wide effort to increase an organization's effectiveness and viability.

The consultants involved in Organizational development apply specific efforts at distinct stages of organizational processes to achieve their objectives. These efforts are known as interventions. The process of organizational development has many dimensions and requires the combined efforts of leadership and management. The organizations of today are experiencing rapid change due to a number of reasons, such as telecommunications, customers who are increasingly aware and conscious of quality, increased competition and diversity etc. The focus of OD is more on the culture rather than on other aspects of the organization.

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OD is action oriented. It starts with a careful organization-wide analysis of the current situation and of the future requirements, and employs techniques of behavioral sciences such as behavior modeling, sensitivity training, and transactional analysis. Its objective is to enable the organization in adopting-better to the fast-changing external environment of new markets, regularions, and technologies.

10.2 Definitions of OD

French and Bell defines OD as,

"Organizational development is a long term effort to improve an organization's problem solving and renewal processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organization culture- with special emphasis on the culture of formal work teams."

Another definition of OD says,

"Organizational development encompasses a collection of planned change interventions built on humanistic democratic values that seek to improve organizational effectiveness and employee well being."

Warren Bennis, has referred to OD as,

"A response to change, a complex educational strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of organization so that they can better adapt to new technologies, marketing and challenges, and the dizzying rate of change itself."

OD is a long range effort to improve organization's problem solving and renewal processes, particularly through more effective and collaborative management of organizational culture, often with the assistance of a change agent or catalyst and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioral science.

Organization development is a "contractual relationship between a change agent and a sponsoring organization entered into for the purpose of using applied behavioral science and or other organizational change perspectives in a systems context to improve organizational performance and the capacity of the organization to improve itself".

Organization development is an ongoing, systematic process to implement effective change in an organization. Organization development is known as both a field of applied behavioral science focused on understanding and managing organizational change and as a field of scientific study and inquiry. It is interdisciplinary in nature and draws on sociology, psychology, and theories of motivation, learning, and personality.

10.3 History of organizational development

Organizational development is an ongoing, systematic process to implement effective change in an organization. Organizational development is known as both a field of applied behavioral science focused on understanding and managing organizational change and as a field of scientific study and inquiry. It is interdisciplinary in nature and draws on sociology, psychology, and theories of motivation, learning, and personality.

The history of OD is rich with the contributions of behavioral scientists and practitioners, many of whom are well known, and many people are from client organizations. In the late 1960s, organizational development was implemented in organizations via consultants, but was relatively unknown as a theory of practice and had no common definition among its practitioners.

Richard Beckhard, an authority on organizational development and change management, defined organizational development as "an effort, planned, organization-wide, and managed from the top, to increase organization effectiveness and health through planned interventions in the organization's processes, using behavioral-science knowledge" (Beckhard 1969).

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s organizational development became a more established field with courses and programs being offered in business, education, and administration curricula. In the 1990s and 2000s organizational development continued to grow and evolve and its influences could be seen in theories and strategies such as total quality management (TQM), team building, job enrichment, and reengineering.

Nature of organizational development/Features of OD

1. Planned change: OD is a strategy of planned change for organizational improvement.
2. Comprehensive change: OD efforts focus on comprehensive change in the organization, rather than focusing attention on individuals, so that change is easily absorbed. The concept of comprehensive change is based on the systems concept- open, dynamic, and adaptive system.
3. OD focuses on culture and processes. It specifically encourages collaboration between organization leaders and members in managing culture and processes.
4. Long range change: OD focuses in rising of an organization to a higher level of functioning by improving the performance and satisfaction of organizational members on long term basis.
5. Dynamic Process: OD is a dynamic process and includes the efforts to guide and direct changes as well to cope with or adapt changes imposed. It recognizes that goals of organization change, so the methods of attaining these goals should also change.
6. Emphasis on Intervention and action research: OD approach results into an active intervention in the ongoing activities of the organization. Action research is the basis for such intervention.
7. OD focuses on total system change and views organizations as complex social systems.
8. OD takes a development view that seeks the betterment of both individuals and the organization.
9. OD is an interdisciplinary and primarily behavioral science approach that draws from such fields as organization behavior, management, business, psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, education, counseling, and public administration.
10. A primary, though not exclusive, goal of OD is to improve organizational effectiveness.
11. OD recognizes the importance of top management's commitment, support, and involvement. It also affirms a bottom-up approach when the culture of the organization supports such efforts to improve an organization.
12. It is an education-based program designed to develop values, attitudes, norms, and management practices that result in a healthy organization climate that rewards healthy behavior.
13. OD is driven by humanistic values.

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14. It is a data-based approach to understanding and diagnosing organizations.
15. It is guided by a change agent, change team, or line management whose primary role is that of facilitator, teacher, and coach rather than subject matter expert.
16. It recognizes the need for planned follow-up to maintain changes.
17. It involves planned interventions and improvements in an organization's processes and structures and requires skills in working with individuals, groups, and whole organizations.

10.4 Importance of Organizational Development

1. **Profitability productivity, morale and quality of work life:** OD is concern to most organizations because they impact achievement of organization goals. There is an increasing trend to maximize an organization's investment in its employees. Jobs that previously required physical skills; now require more mental effort. Organizations need to "work smarter" and apply creative ideas.
2. **Changed workforce:** The work force has also changed. Employees expect more from a day's work than simply a day's pay. They want challenge, recognition sense of accomplishment, worthwhile tasks and meaningful relationships with their managers and co-workers. If these needs are not met, the performance of the employees declines.
3. **Shift in focus:** Today's customers demand continually improving quality, rapid product or service delivery; fast turn-around time on changes, competitive pricing and other features that are best achieved in complex environments by innovative organizational practices.
4. The effective organization must be able to meet today's and tomorrow's challenges. Adaptability and responsiveness are essential to survive and thrive.

Strength of Organizational Development

Organizational development takes into consideration how the organization and its constituents or employees function together. Organizational development places emphasis on the human factors and data inherent in the organization-employee relationship. Organizational development strategies can be used to help employees become more committed and more adaptable, which ultimately improves the organization as a whole.

The organizational development process is initiated when there is a need, gap, or dissatisfaction within the organization, either at the upper management level or within the employee body. Ideally, the process involves the organization in its entirety, with evidenced support from upper management and engagement in the effort by all members from each level of the organization.

To launch the process, consultants with experience in organizational development and change management are often utilized. These consultants may be internal to the company or external, with the cautionary understanding that internal consultants might be too entrenched in the existing company environment to effectively coordinate and enforce the action plans and solutions required for successful change.

Data analysis through task forces, interviews, and questionnaires can illuminate likely causes for disconnects throughout an organization. These gaps can then be analyzed, an action plan formed, and solutions employed. This is by no means a linear process, nor is it a brief one. Feedback from all constituents should be elicited throughout the process and used to make adjustments to the action plan as necessary. Constant monitoring during the entire implementation effort is important for its success and acceptance.

When and why should an organization use OD?

The field of OD is extremely broad. OD can be applied any time, whenever an organization wants to make planned improvements using the OD values. OD might be used in any of the following situations:

- To develop or enhance the organization's mission statement (statement of purpose) or vision statement for what it wants to be.
- To help align functional structures in an organization so they are working together for a common purpose
- To create a strategic plan for how the organization is going to make decisions about its future and achieving that future.
- To manage conflict that exists among individuals, groups, functions, sites, and so on, when such conflicts disorder the ability of the organization to function in a healthy way.
- To put in place processes that will help improve the ongoing operations of the organization on a continuous basis.
- To create a collaborative environment that helps the organization be more effective and efficient.
- To create reward systems that are compatible with the goals of the organization.
- To assist in the development of policies and procedures that will improve the ongoing operation of the organization.
- To assess the working environment, to identify strengths on which to build and areas in which change and improvement are needed.
- To provide help and support for employees, especially those in senior positions, who need an opportunity to be coached in how to do their jobs better.
- To assist in creating systems for providing feedback on individual performance and, on occasion, conducting studies to give individuals feedback and coaching to help them in their individual development.

10.5 Problem and contingencies

OD cannot be taken as a cure for all organizational problems. OD has raised sharp criticism as a strategy to increase organizational viability and effectiveness. It is because many times OD programmes have failed attempting for organizational development. In general, OD is criticized on following notes specifically:

1. There is inconsistency between ideal and real situations. OD tries to achieve ideal goals without taking into account real one.
2. OD makes people unfit for the real organizational world because no organization can fully adopt open system concept.
3. Resistance to change is a natural phenomenon and OD puts undue pressure to change. Hence, it fails as a long term strategy.
4. OD fails to motivate people with low level of achievement needs. If an organization is full of these people, it is useless to try OD.
5. OD programmes are often quite costly, and only large organizations can afford this luxury without any guarantee of positive outcome.

NOTES

Implications of OD values and assumptions/ Assumptions for OD goal setting for OD

A set of values, assumptions, and beliefs constitutes an integral part of OD, shaping the goals and methods of the field and distinguishing OD from other improving strategies. A belief is a proposition about how the world works that the individual accepts as true. It is a cognitive fact for the person. Values are also belief and are defined as: 'beliefs about what is desirable or 'good' (e.g., Honesty)'. Assumptions are belief that are regarded as so valuable and apparently correct that they are taken for granted and rarely examined or questioned.

10.6 Who is an OD professional?

OD professionals or consultants can be employed by the organization or can be hired on a contract basis. Regardless of whether they are internal or external to the organization, the term consultant is still commonly used. There is no right answer for whether an internal consultant is better than an external consultant, or vice versa.

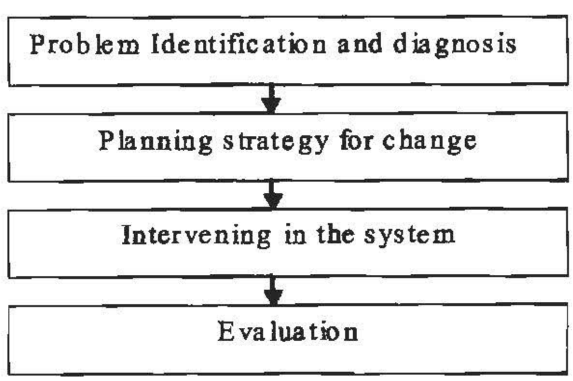
Both internal and external OD consultants have advantages; it makes considerable sense for a partnership between an internal and an external consultant, so that the best of both can be available to the organization. For this same reason, it also makes sense to establish a partnership based on differences in demographics (e.g., gender, ethnicity, age) in order to capture fully the perspectives of varying views. What one might see, the other might not see or might see differently based on different socializing experiences.

Thus, using a partnership approach can strengthen the ultimate outcomes from OD work. OD work does not necessarily need to be performed by a professional serving in such a designated position. Increasingly, OD is performed by persons in other positions who have OD expertise. Thus, a line manager or a staff person in some other functional area who has been trained in OD can apply OD principles in his or her ongoing work.

10.7 Organizational development process

OD is a process of changing people and other related aspects of an organization. Thus, it consists of many sub processes or steps. As such uniformity in steps involved cannot be expected. Different scholars and practitioners have defined the process of OD in different steps. The difference in the various steps is due to defining scope of a particular step. Moreover, since OD is an ongoing process- many of the events overlap, and in real practice, a clear cut differentiation between various events become difficult.

Below are given steps relevant to the OD programme followed by various organizations:



1. **Problem Identification and diagnosis** : OD attempts to solve some organizational problems. The problem may be a gap between desired path of action

and actual path of action that the organization fails to meet its objective on a long term basis. OD programme starts with the identification of the problems in the organization. Analysis of various symptoms both open and hidden may help in identifying the problems. Diagnosis gives correct identification of problem and its causes and determines the scope of future problems. This involves a number of techniques concerned with identifying issues, establishing priorities, and translating them into aims and objectives. This stage mainly comprises of data collection and analysis. Problem identification is followed by diagnosis of the problem. Once a problem is identified, the analysis will show why the problem exists. This analysis will identify the variables that can be altered or changed by the organization and the management, such as leadership style, organizational structure, organizational objective, etc. This means, that this analysis put into notice those environmental variables which has caused problem in the organization.

2. **Planning strategy for change** : After the problems are carefully diagnosed, the OD practitioner – either the management or consultant, plans the various courses of action in OD. The consultant then makes attempts to transform diagnosis of the problem into a proper action plan involving the overall goals for change, determination of the basic approach for attaining these goals, and the sequence of detailed scheme for implementing the approach. Planning and implementation of change are independent. It is difficult to influence people to change.

3. **Intervening in the system** : Intervening in the system refers to implementation of the planned activities during the course of action. These planned activities bring certain changes in the system which is the basic objective of OD. Interventions are actions taken to produce desired changes. To support the new vision of the organization, these actions are taken to build necessary structures, processes, and culture which are called Interventions. In other words, OD interventions refer to various activities which a consultant performs for improving organizational performance. OD interventions are also referred to as OD techniques or OD strategies as they are designed to accomplish certain specific objectives. Various methods of intervening in the system are education, laboratory training, process consultant, team development, etc.

4. **Evaluation** : The last step in Organizational development process is to evaluate the results of OD programme so that suitable actions may be followed up. Evaluation represents assessing the effects of the program: Was it successful? What changes occurred? Are we satisfied from the results?

   OD is a long run process; therefore, it is necessary for the consultant or management to carefully monitor and get précised feedback regarding what is going on as soon as the OD programme starts and ends. In this respect, the uses of pre- and post- training behavioral patterns are quite effective. This step again involves data gathering because such data will provide the basis for OD efforts evaluation and suggest suitable modification and continuation of OD in similar direction. All parties concerned in OD programme need to realize that if major organizational improvements are t be made and sustained, managerial practices with respect to many subsystems will need to be modified. This is because there is always a probability of slip back and regression to old behavioral pattern if adequate changes in other parts integrating behavioral change are not made.

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Suggestions for effective implementation of OD programme

1) There should be genuine support of OD programme from top management.
2) Organization must formulate the objectives of OD programme very clearly and specifically.
3) Enough time should be allowed so that the effects of OD programme are realized.
4) There should be proper use of OD interventions. These should be based on the specific needs of the organization.
5) Only fully competent OD consultant should be presses for the service and he should develop understanding with internal change agents.

Action research and organizational development

The OD process can be conveniently presented in the form of action research model. OD emphasizes the process of problem solving, and trains the participants to identify and solve the problems that are important to them. For this purpose, various steps of OD- problem identification and diagnosis, planning for change, interventions for change, and evaluation of change – are undertaken on continuous and cyclical basis. The cyclical process of using research to guide an action is known as action research. Action research attempts to make action more effective and build a body of scientific knowledge around the action.

Actions in this context, refers to programs and interventions designed to solve problems and improve conditions. Action research is a cornerstone of organization development, underlying both the theory and practice of the field. Action research can be examined from two perspectives, as a process and as a problem solving approach.

French and Bell have defined action research as follows:

"Action research is the process of systematically collecting research data about an ongoing system relative ro some objective, goal, or need of that system; feeding these data back into the system; taking actions by altering selected variables within the system based both on the data on hypothesis; and evaluating the results of actions by collecting more data."

Action research is the basis for designing strategies for OD. Specifically, it is important in following context:

1) It involves all those take action or who are affected by change in the organization. Therefore, chances of willing acceptance of change are quite high.
2) It accustoms the members of a group to work together effectively and to develop way for emotional and philosophical adjustments to change.
3) It rationalizes the action by providing accurate knowledge of the context in which it occurs.

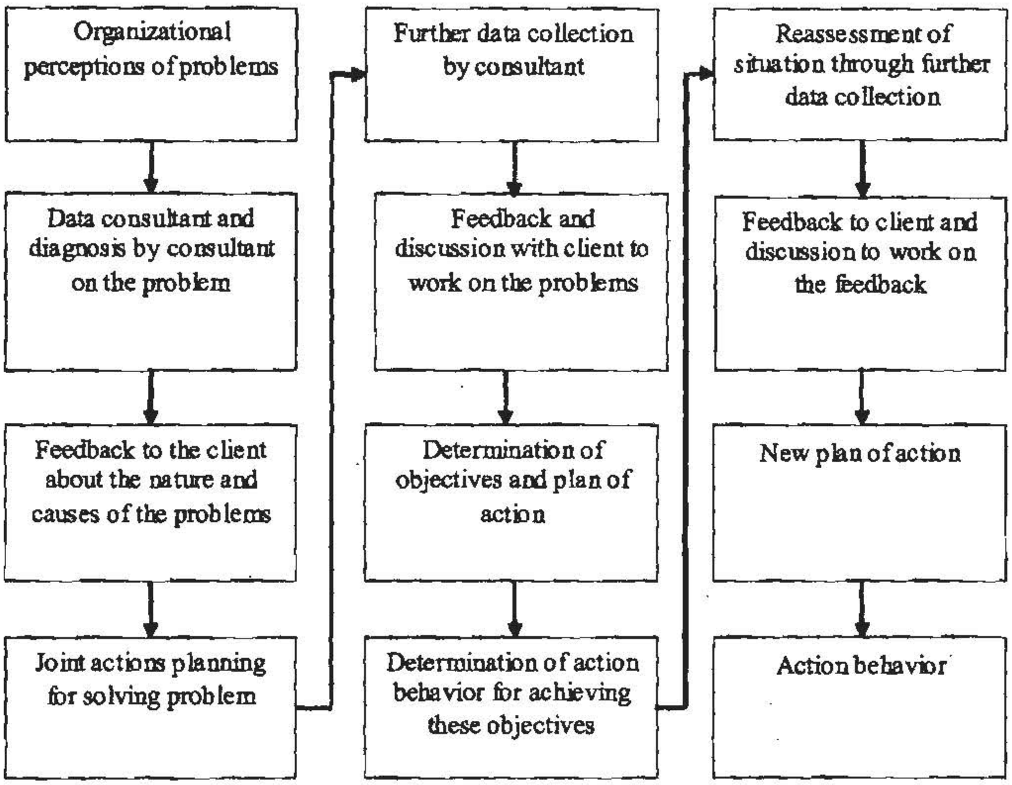
Action research as a process:

Action research may be defined as a process, that is, as an ongoing series of events and actions. Through the definition given by French and Bell:

"Action research is the process of systematically collecting research data about an ongoing system relative to some objective, goal, or need of that system; feeding these data back into the system; taking actions by altering selected variables within the system based both on the data on hypothesis; and evaluating the results of actions by collecting more data.";

We can characterize action research in terms of activities comprising process. First, the researcher forms a static picture of the organization. With the help of this research, he perceives all problems of the organizations from all angles and view-points. He find outs that 'what all exists in the organization", predicts the existing variables and suggest actions. These actions involve such variables which are in some way manipulated from the existing one. It also means that doing something differently from the way it has already been done. These actions are always done under the action researcher's control. Below given figure represents a generic process of action research in organizational development. The process of action research is cyclical as the steps are taken on continuous basis and changes are made after each new plan.

Action research model of OD (Figure 1)



The model emphasizes on certain key aspects like: Diagnosis, data gathering, feed-back to the client group, data discussion, and work done by client group, action planning, and action.

In other words, Action research is depicted as a cyclical process of change. There are three steps in the process of change: Unfreezing, Changing and Refreezing.

Unfreezing: Facing a problem, the individual or group becomes aware of a need to change.

Changing: The situation is diagnosed and new models of behavior are explored and tested.

Refreezing: Application of new behavior is evaluated and adopted.

If we look below the figure, it will summarize the steps and processes involved in planned change through action research.

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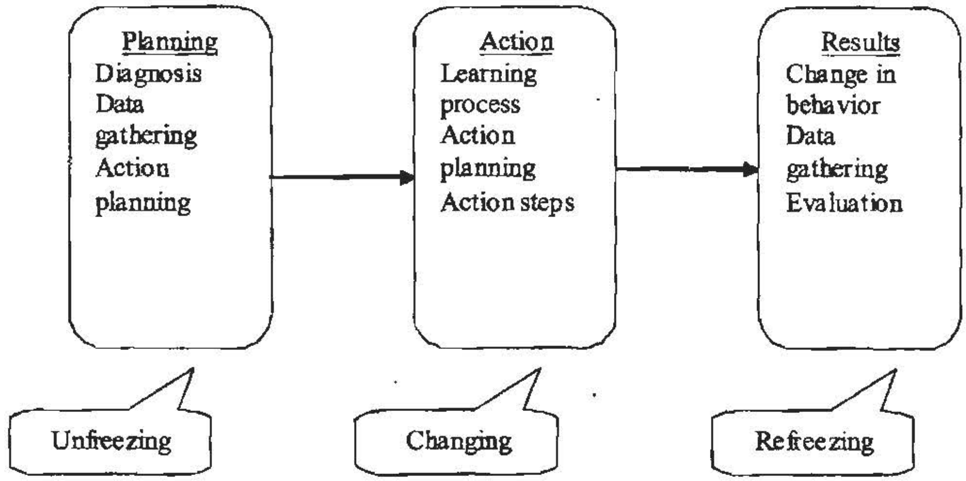

The action research cycle begins with a series of planning actions initiated by the client and the change agent working together. In this stage, the principal elements include a preliminary diagnosis, data gathering, feedback of results, and action planning. This is also called the input phase, in which the client and researcher becomes aware of problems as yet unidentified, realizes it may need outside help to effect changes, and shares with the consultant the process of problem diagnosis.

The second stage of action research is the action, or transformation, phase. This stage includes actions relating to learning processes and to planning and executing behavioral changes in the client organization. This stage also includes action-planning activity carried out jointly by the consultant and members of the client system.

The third stage of action research is the output, or results, phase. This stage includes actual changes in behavior (if any) resulting from corrective action steps taken following the second stage. Data are again gathered from the client system so that progress can be determined and necessary adjustments in learning activities can be made.

The action-research model shown in Figure 1 closely follows the repetitive cycle of planning, action, and measuring results. It also illustrates other aspects of general model of change. As indicated in the diagram, the planning stage is a period of unfreezing, or problem awareness. The action stage is a period of changing, that is, trying out new forms of behavior in an effort to understand and cope with the system's problems. The results stage is a period of refreezing, in which new behaviors are tried out on the job and, if successful and reinforcing, become a part of organizational problem-solving behavior.

Action research is problem centered, client centered, and action oriented. It involves active-learning, problem-finding, and problem-solving process. Scientific method in the form of data gathering, forming hypotheses, testing hypotheses, and measuring results is an integral part of the process. Action research also sets in action a long-range, cyclical, self-correcting mechanism. It is mainly used for maintaining and enhancing the effectiveness of the client's system by leaving the system with practical and useful tools for self-analysis and self-renewal.

Check Your Progress

1. What is Organizational Development?
2. Who is an OD professional?

Action research as an approach:

Action research may also be described as an approach to problem solving. It is also defined as follows:

"Action research is the application of the scientific methods of fact-finding and experimentation to practical problems requiring action solutions and involving the collaboration and cooperation of scientist, practitioners, and laypersons."

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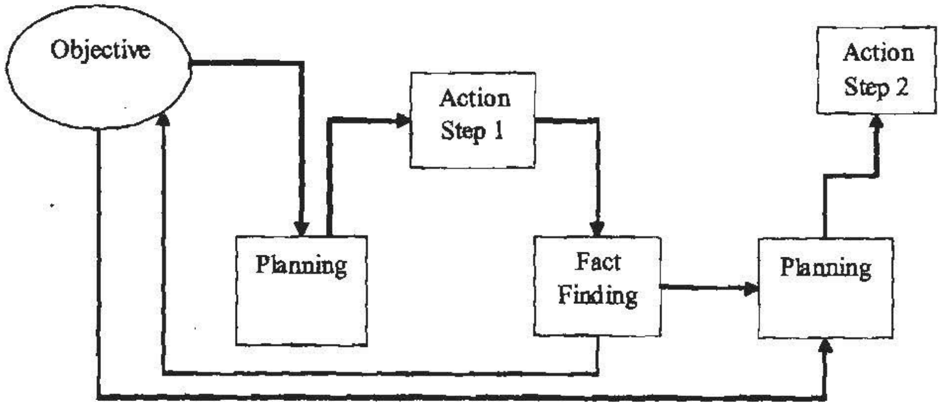

Herbert A. Shepard, "An action Research Model as a Problem Solving Approach"

Shepard highlights' the relations among objectives, planning and action. According to him, action research model as an approach initially focuses on primary objective of the organization. This objective is always caused by a problem lying in the organization. For an example, let us suppose that the problem is unproductive staff meetings- that they are poorly attended, members express low commitment and involvement in them, and they generally agreed to be unproductive.

Now, if we apply the action research model, the first step is to gather data regarding the current status that meetings are generally liked or disliked. The next step is to search for causes of the problem and generate one or more hypothesis.

An action research hypothesis consists of two aspects: a goal and an action procedure for achieving the goal. Each hypothesis has a goal. Let us assume two hypotheses for our problem:

- Generate agenda topics from the staff rather from the manager
- Rotate the position of chairperson of the meeting between the staff members.

By deciding and applying these hypothesis and action procedures, analyze the consequence and evaluate it. If the solution to the management seems to be appropriate and results are up to mark, then this will help in development of organization as a whole.

10.8 Organizational development intervention

An intervention is a set of sequenced and planned actions or events intended to help the organization to increase its effectiveness. OD interventions refer to various activities which a consultant and organization perform for improving organizational performance. This is done through enabling the organizational members to better manage their behavior, their work group, and organizational culture. OD interventions are structured actions that help to bring out the desired positive changes. They are also referred to as OD strategies or OD techniques as they are designed to accomplish specific techniques. Interventions constitute the ***action*** component of the OD cycle.

According to French and Bell,

"OD interventions are sets of structured activities in which selected organizational units (target groups or individuals) engage in a task or a sequence of tasks with the goals of organizational improvement and individual development".

Intervention strategies are based on results of the diagnostic process and the specified goals of the client system/organization. The diagnosis process examines the extent to which the work environment is agreeable to the organization, employees' willingness to change, time and effort required to make the change and possible benefits or disadvantages. Using these facts and a system model, the OD practitioner would need to suggest a series of interventions in order to facilitate the change: training and education, modified reward systems, group and team building programmes, reworking of the organizational structure etc.

10.9 Nature of organizational intervention

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- **Relevant to the needs of organization** : An organizational intervention is always relevant to the needs of the organization. It is focused to the problems of the organization and strives for its solution. All actions and strategies are based on the accomplishment of organizational goals.
- **Valid information** : Organizational interventions should be based on valid information derived from effective research and analysis. The consultant should collect all the necessary data and diagnose the problem form all view points and angles. He should jointly discuss all the necessary information with the related people of the problem of the organization.
- **Internal Commitment** : The consultant or OD practitioner should plan all of the OD interventions in such a way that they get represent a feel of internal commitment among the employees and members of the organization.
- **Based on causal knowledge of intended outcomes** : OD interventions are based on casual knowledge of intended outcomes. It means that every action is supposed to give a reaction. Management has to be very precautious while selecting the OD intervention or strategy. It has to be look upon that selected intervention will leave desired circumstances and have positive effects on the members of organization.
- **Transfer competence to manage change to organization members** : One of the major features of OD intervention is that the last motive of all OD intervention is to transfer competence to manage change to organizational members.

Factors to consider when planning and implementing an OD intervention:

While planning about OD interventions, first point that should be kept in mind is that behind every problem there is an overall game plan or INTERVENTION STRATEGY. This plan integrates the problem or opportuniry to be addressed the desired outcomes of the program, and the sequencing and timing of the various interventions. Intervention strategies are based on diagnosis and the goals desired by the client system. The key questions are: What we are trying to accomplish? What activities will help us to get there? What is the proper timing and sequencing of the interventions?

Secondly, activities to promote learning and change must be STRUCTURED EFFECTIVELY. Some important points to be considered while structuring the activities are:

- It should be make sure that all the relevant people are included; the people affected by the problem or opportunity. For example: If the goal is improved team effectiveness, have the whole team engaged in the activities. If the goal is improved relations between two separate work groups, have both work groups present.
- The client group should be allowed to identify problems and opportunities themselves. Solving problems and utilizing the opportunities are involving, interesting and enjoyable tasks for most of the people. There may be two reasons behind this. It is either due to desire for competence or mastery or due to desire to achieve.
- Structure the activity in a way that it is ensured that goals are absolutely clear to all, as all the strategies are for goal-attainment. If an individual is not aware for what he is working towards, and how he is contributing towards the goal attainment, then he will feel demotivated and dissatisfied.

- Structure the activity to ensure high probability of success. This means that both practitioners' and clients' expectations should be realistic. Goals must be manageable and attainable. This gives a feeling of success, competence, and energy for the people involved.
- Structure the activity so that it contains both experience based learning and conceptual learning. New learning came from experience based learning become a permanent part of individual's inventory. Conceptual model learning helps to integrate broader framework of theory and behavior.
- It should also be ensured that the climate is appropriate for openness. If the client group is defensive or anxious, the exercise is useless. Therefore, it is must to ensure that the client system not only learns how to solve one particular problem, but they "learns how to learn" i.e. acquires skills and knowledge which can be utilized with future problems and changes.
- Set the climate of interventions so that people expect "to learn together" and "to look at practices" in an experimenting way. Teach them about both task (what) and process (how). Engage the whole person in the intervention, not just the intellect. Get them to talk about thoughts, feelings, ideas, concerns, beliefs etc.
- Structure the activity so that individuals learn about both task and process. Task means, the stated agenda items on which the group is working on. Process refers to how the group's processes and dynamics, individual styles of interacting and behaving and so on.
- It should also be ensured that individuals are engaged as whole persons, not segmented persons. It means that person should be into complete thoughts, beliefs, feelings, and strivings.

10.10 Classification of Organizational Interventions

OD intervention is a very extensive topic. Various OD interventions are classified in different ways. Various practitioners and consultants have different opinions about the activities which can be included in interventions. For example, many of them visualize data gathering as an intervention whereas it is treated as only preparatory work of OD by others. Therefore, the classification of OD interventions shows variation. However, OD interventions can be classified on two bases: Approach adopted in using OD interventions, Target of OD interventions

Further, on the basis of approach adopted in using OD interventions, these are classified into two categories: Process interventions and Structural interventions. Process interventions are those which emphasize process to accomplish a change. Structural interventions involve an adjustment or change in the organization's structure to accomplish changed goals. On the basis of target of OD interventions, these can be designed to improve the effectiveness of individuals, teams and groups. Following table represents the types of OD interventions classified on the basis of approach adopted in using OD interventions:

Process OD interventions	Structural OD interventions
Sensitivity training	Job redesign
Team building	Work schedule options
Survey feedback	Process consultation
Behavioral modification	Management by objectives
Grid organizational development	Collateral organization
Career planning	Decision centre
Job expectations technique	
Organizational renewal process	

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Another table represents the types of OD interventions classified on the basis of target of OD interventions:

Target	Interventions
Individuals	Life and career planning Role analysis technique Coaching and counseling Sensitivity training Skill development for technical task, relationship, decision aking, problem solving, planning and goal setting Grid OD phase I
Dyads	Process consultation Third party peace making Grid OD phase I and II
Teams and groups	Team building Family T-group Survey feedback Process consultation Role analysis technique Skill development for decision making, problem solving, planning and goal setting in group activities
Intergroup relations	Intergroup activities Organizational mirroring Technostructural interventions Process consultations Third party peace making at group level Survey feedback Grid OD phase III
Total organization	Confrontation meetings Survey feedback Grid OD phases IV, V, and VI

Some of the major interventions are discussed below:

1. Techno structural or Structural activities: Activities designed to improve the effectiveness of organizational structures and job designs. These are may be in the form of (a) experimenting with new organization structures and evaluating their effectiveness in terms of specific goals or (b) devising new ways to bring technical resources to bear on problems.

2. Process consultation activities: Activities that "help the client to perceive, understand and act upon process events which occurs in the client's environment." The basic content of PC is that the consultant works with individuals and the groups in the organization to help them learn about social processes and to solve problems that arises form process events. This helps in bringing desired changes in various organizational processes like leadership, communication, roles and functions of group members, group decision making and problem solving.

3. Grid organization activities: This is a systematic and comprehensive OD programme which aims at individuals, groups, and the organizations as a whole. It utilizes a considerable number of instruments, enabling individuals and groups to assess their own strengths and weaknesses; focuses on skills, knowledge, and processes necessary for effectiveness at all levels.

4. Third party peacemaking activities: These are set of activities conducted by a skilled consultant (the third party), designed to "help the members of an organization manage their interpersonal conflict".

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5. Coaching and counseling activities: Coaching and counseling activities are those activities that require the consultant and other organizational members working with individuals to help (a) define learning goals, (b) learn how others to see their behavior, and (c) learn new behaviors to help them better achieve their goals.

6. Life and career planning activities: These are such set of activities that enable individuals to focus on their life and career objectives. It is also helpful in determining ways for how to achieve those objectives. This includes career discussions, goals and objectives sessions, assessing capabilities, additional training needs, and areas of strength and deficiency.

7. Planning and goal setting: This includes theory and experience in planning and goal setting, problem solving models, planning paradigms. The goal is to improve these skills at the levels of the individual, group, and total organization.

8. Team building activities: Team building is the most important, widely accepted, and applied OD intervention for organization improvement. These set of activities are designed to enhance the effective operation of systems teams. These activities focus on task issues such as the way things are done, the skills and resources needed to accomplish tasks, the quality of relationship among the team members.

9. Intergroup activities

   Intergroup activities are set of activities that are designed to improve the effectiveness of interdependent groups- groups that must work together to produce a common output. When two groups are involved, the activities are designated intergroup or interface activities; when two or more groups are involved, the activities are called organizational mirroring.

10. Survey feedback activities

    These are those set of activities that rely on questionnaire surveys to generate information that is then used to identify problems and opportunities.

Possible results of OD interventions:

- Increased interaction and communication
- Confrontation (surfacing and examining differences)
- Education (knowledge and concepts, beliefs and attitudes, skills)
- Participation (in problem solving, goal setting, idea generation)
- Increased accountability (through clarifying responsibility and monitoring performance)
- Increased energy and optimism ("the future is desirable, worthwhile and attainable")

Organizational development in NGO

Non-governmental organization (NGO) is a legally constituted organization created by natural or legal persons that operates independently from any government and a term usually used by governments to refer to entities that have no government status. It is any non-profit, voluntary citizens' group which is organized on a local, national or international level. It is task-oriented and driven by people with a common interest.

NGOs perform a variety of service and humanitarian functions, bring citizen concerns to Governments, advocate and monitor policies and encourage political participation through provision of information. Some are organized around specific issues, such as human rights, environment or health. They provide analysis and expertise, serve as early warning mechanisms and help monitor and implement international agreements. Their relationship with offices and agencies of the United Nations system differs depending on their goals, their venue and the mandate of a particular institution.

Team Intervention- Team Building Intervention

Interventions are techniques and methods designed to change the culture of the organization. It enables the organizational members to improve their practice so that they may better accomplish individual, team and organizational goals. Most of the organization's work is accomplished directly or indirectly through teams. Before understanding team intervention, it is important to make a distinction between groups and teams.

"A work group is a number of persons, usually reporting to a common superior and having some face-to-face interaction, who have some degree of interdependence in carrying out tasks for the purpose of achieving organizational goals."

According to Jon Katzenbach and Douglas Smith,

"A team is a small number of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, set of performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable."

"A team is a form of group, but has some characteristics in greater degree than ordinary groups, including a higher commitment to common goals and a higher degree of interdependency and interaction."

10.11 Characteristics of an effective team

1 **Clear purpose:** An effective team is clearly defined and accepted by the organization. It has definite vision, mission, goal or task and an action plan.

2 **Informality:** An effective team is mostly informal, comfortable and relaxed. The team members of an effective team share an informal relationship and are comfortable with each other.

3 **Listening:** For making an effective team, team should use effective listening techniques like questioning, paraphrasing, and summarizing.

4 **Civilized disagreement:** An effective team should be comfortable with disagreements made by members. They should not avoid problems and be smooth over conflicts. Also, they should very well know how to suppress conflicts.

5 **Consensus decision making:** An effective team makes consensus decision making through substantial agreement with thorough discussion and avoidance of voting.

6 **Clear roles and work assignments:** Each team member has defined roles and work assignments. They have clear expectations and evenly divided work.

7 **Shared leadership:** In addition to a formal leader, everyone in team shares in effective leadership behaviors.

8 **Open communication:** There are open communications held in team. There is a feeling of being legitimate and aware. All problems, causes, agendas and issues are unhidden with everyone.

Team building is the most important, widely accepted, and applied OD intervention for organizational improvement. A major phenomenon seen in organizations is that people work in groups (teams) and the effectiveness of these groups ultimately leads to organizational effectiveness. Team building attempts to improve effectiveness of a team by having team members to concentrate on. French and Bell have said, "Probably the most important single group of interventions in the OD are the team building activities, the goals of which are the improvement and increased effectiveness of various teams within the organization."

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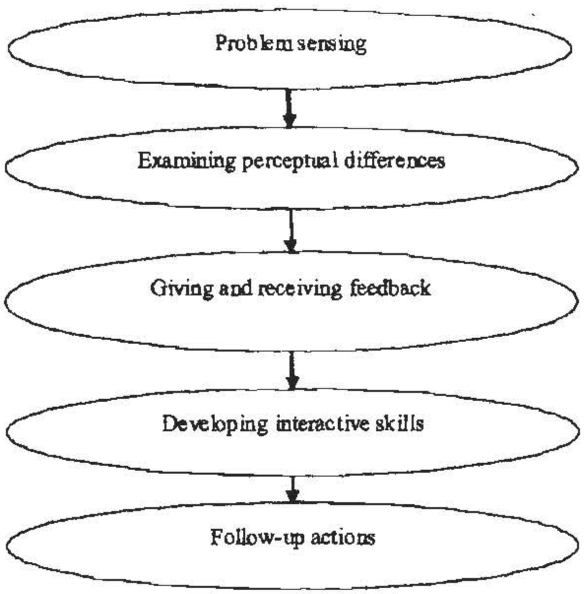
Team building activities can be classified into two varieties: Formal group activities and special group activities. Some interventions that focus on *intact work team* composed of a boss and subordinates, called as formal group. Other interventions focus on special teams such as startup teams, newly constituted teams due to mergers, organization structure changes, or plant startups. Team building interventions are typically directed towards four main areas: diagnosis, task accomplishments, team relationships, and team and organizational processes. Team building process attempts to improve effectiveness of a team by having team members to concentrate on:

1. Setting goals and priorities for the team
2. Analyzing how team's goals and priorities are linked to those of the organization
3. Analyzing how the team work is performed
4. analyzing how the team is working, and
5. Analyzing the relationships among the members who are performing the job.

Process of team building

Process of team building intervention starts from problem sensing followed by examining the differences, giving feedback and finally ends with developing the skills. Below given figure represent step by step actions of team building intervention.



1. **Problem Sensing:** There are a number of ways in which problems of a team can be identified. The major problem lies in those factors which hinders the team effectiveness. At this stage, most of the members come forward with their arguments so as to what the real problems are. There are different views at different level ranging from organizational problems, group problems, and individual problems. While identifying the core problem, the emphasis should be on consensus (means agreement by all). It helps each person to seek awareness and understand clearly the basic concepts of team development.
2. **Examining Differences:** There are many people in the organization belonging to various types of cultures and backgrounds. The perception of people on an issue differs because of different value systems, personality and attitude. This difference is examined through number of psychological tests and

exercises particularly on perceptual differences. Communication plays a very important role in this context because it helps in clarifying the actual problems to the members.

3. **Giving and Receiving Feedback:** The process of perceiving things and listening to the members may create a tense situation among them. All the members report about the painful feelings that they have at the time of evaluation of their feelings. The discussion should continue until all members of the team have commented. After then, feedback should be given to the members about their feelings, about the issue, the way people talk about the issue, the way people tried to resolved the issue, and about the people who were involved in the issue. This helps the members to create an understanding and provides an opportunity to feel better about their feelings.

4. **Developing Interactive Skills:** This is the second last stage of this process where the focus falls into the main objective of the process i.e. increasing the ability among the people as to how they should interact with others and engage in constructive behavior. Following are few examples related to constructive and negative behaviors:

   Constructive Behavior:

   a) Building: developing and expanding the ideas of others.

   b) Bringing in: harmonizing, encouraging others to participate

   c) Clarifying: resting, ensuring, understanding, seeking relevanr information

   d) Innovating: bringing in new relevant ideas, information, feeling, etc

   Negative Behavior:

   a) Overtalk: interrupting, talking together with speaker.

   b) Attacking: deriding, belittling, criticizing person

   c) Negative: cooling, cynicism, undermining morale.

5. **Follow up Action:** Final stage of team building process is that total team is call together to review what has been learned and to identify what the next step should be. This action helps in overcoming the drawback involved at initial stages of team building. It also involves in deciding who will take care of each area of team's responsibilities and who will be responsible for team projects in a group.

Overall, these attempts helps in bringing cooperative and supportive feelings among people involved in the team functioning. It brings positivity among the people. To encourage people and sustain such feelings, management should take such actions at regular intervals so that members feel reinforced and sustain their positive behavior.

10.12 Problems in effective team building

1) **Undefined Objective:** One of the major problems that arise in team building is that members of the team do not have specific and cleared information about the objective of the organization.

2) **Formal relations:** Mosr of the time members of the organizarion get too formal while sharing the problems and solution of given problem. This hinders their potential and ability to resolve the actual problems of the organization.

3) **Lack of participation:** When members do not participate in the team with full interest and dedication, it again becomes a barrier for effective team building.

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4) **Outspokenness:** As we have discussed that there are some people who hesitates to share their view points, so as there are few people in team who get outspoken and does not listen to others. They do not listen and question about their solutions. This makes others uncomfortable and demotivated for their suggestions and hence it hinders in effective team building.

5) **Ineffective communication:** If open lines of communication do not flow within the team, then agendas and action plans remain hidden to the members and thus effective team building lacks thereon.

6) **Autocratic leadership:** There is a probability when team leaders believe in autocratic leadership. It means that lack of shared leadership. This disables others to communicate effectively and hence it acts as a barrier to team building.

7) **Biased decisions:** If the decisions taken are biased and are not with consensus /agreed all the members of the team, then this hinders effective team building.

8) **Uncivilized disagreement:** Uncivilized disagreement means when members of the team raise unnecessary questions on each other vision. When an employee does not agree to what other team members are agreeing to, it happen to create unrest in the team. Also, this makes violent attitude in all the team members and hence team building effectiveness get disturbed.

RAT (Role Analysis Technique)

In organizations, there is always a need of awareness to people, regarding what exactly is their role to play in respect of their job profile. Usually, this work is done by senior level executives. The process of preparing the list of such work requirements for the employees is known as job description. If more systematic attention is given to this process, it is also known as 'job analysis' or 'task analysis'

However, these processes are found to be much suitable for semi skilled level or unskilled level of work. With the increased complexity of work in organizations, these processes are inadequate and lack to give sufficient knowledge to the employees. It is seen that managerial jobs are more complex and are characterized by difficult responsibilities. Also, group of team tasks is increasingly emerging as a way of organizing work in industries. Therefore, to make clear and specific knowledge available to the employees at all level, role analysis technique was implemented.

The role analysis technique (RAT) intervention is designed to clarify role expectations and obligations to team members and to improve team effectiveness. This technique is particularly applicable for new teams, but it may be helpful in established teams where role ambiguity or confusion exits. Role analysis is a structured exercise to provide an overall picture of what role is supposed to achieve, the rationale for its existence in the organization, its interlinkage and the attributes of an effective role occupant (role holder).

A role is the position occupied by an individual in a social system (organization). It is defined by functions that one performs in response to the expectations of the members of the organization and his own expectation from the position occupied by him. **The role being discussed and considered in role analysis is known as Focal Role.**

According to P. N. Singh, "Role analysis is a participatory process which aims at defining the work content of a role in relation to all those with whom the role occupant has significant interaction in the performance of his jobs."

Role analysis is a process of analyzing the role of a manager in relation to the roles of other managers or members of the organization who get affected by his performance. Role analysis technique (RAT) is used to help employees to get a better grasp on their role in an organization.

10.13 Benefits of Role Analysis techniques:

1) Role analysis technique helps to have better role clarity for the team members of the organization.
2) It helps in developing the required competency and skills to perform the key functions
3) Circumstantially, role analysis helps to prepare action plans for achieving the objectives under the key functions.
4) Role analysis also helps in self development of the employee and successful career planning.
5) Higher job satisfaction is derived through role analysis technique. This is because employees get clear with the goals and objectives of them.
6) It also enable improved climate within the organization.

Role analysis leads to the building of Role directory, which contains role analysis, or the major roles in an organization (department/unit/ company). The purpose of role directory is to increase clarity of various roles in the organization, their key functions, critical attributes and norms. The role directory contains role analysis of several roles. For each role, several aspects are covered in role directory.

i) Organizational position: Organizational position is the point in hierarchy of the organization. This is reflected in reporting relationship.

ii) Role set: The role set members are the various members in the department or organization with whom the focal role has to interact to accomplish goals.

iii) Mission of the role: This defines the main purpose of the existence of the role in the organization, its basic and distinct contribution to the organizational goals.

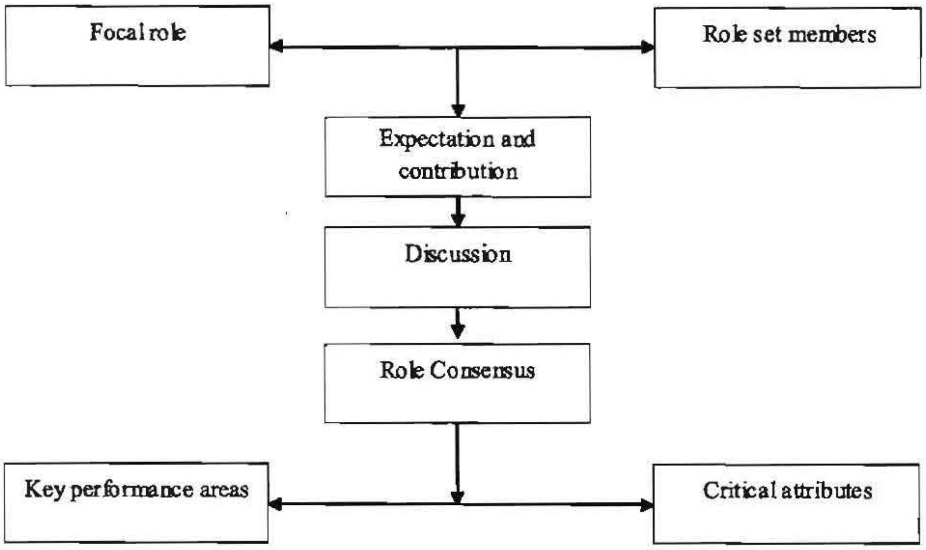
iv) Key functions: Function is a combination of activities. Key functions are those areas which are prioritized over all other functions agreed upon by the focal role occupant and other role set members.

v) Critical attributes: These are certain essential requirements and qualities of a role occupant which are vital to make the role more effective.

vi) Norms: Behavior expected from the focal role occupant and other member of the role set.

10.14 Process of Role analysis technique

The process of role analysis technique starts from the identification of focal role. Later on role set members are identified. The expectation and contributions of both focal role holder and role set members are written and discussed. Finally with two or more steps, the process ends with the review of performance. Below given figure represents the process of role analysis technique in step by step manner.



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1) **Focal role and role set members: Identification of Key Position** : The first step is the identification of the focal role initiated by the focal role individual. The role, its place in the organization, the rationale for its existence, and its place for achieving overall organization goals are examined along with specific duties for office. The specific duties and behaviors are listed on a chalkboard and are discussed by the entire team. People define their perception of their role and contribution to the overall company effort in front of a group of coworkers.

2) **Expectations and contributions** : The second step examines the focal role holder's expectation. The Focal Role (Role Holder) has to write down his expectations from others and his contributions to the Role Set Members. The Role Set Members also have to write down their expectations from him and their contributions to the Focal Role.

3) **Discussion** : In the third stage, the focal role and role set members hold discussion. In this discussion, they compare the two lists of expectations and contributions. Members and immediate superiors question the role holder about the definition of his task. If there is any confusion in their perceptions, the ambiguity is cleared to all.

4) **Role consensus** : The discussion leads to role consensus which the focal role needs to undertake. The role consensus is arrived only after a good discussion on the expectations and contributions that are stated in the two lists.

5) **Identification of key performance areas and attributes**

   Upon the conclusion of this fourth step, the focal role person assumes responsibility for making a written summary of the role as it has been defined. This summary is called role profile. The group i.e. focal role and the role set members identifies 'key performance areas' in which the focal role needs to concentrate. The role set members may be asked to indicate the critical attributes in the areas of knowledge, attitude, skills and behavior required for the focal role. Such critical attributes enable the focal role to perform his role effectively.

6) **Review of performance** : Lastly, the performance of the focal role is reviewed either by the superior of the focal role or by the role set members or any other appraising authority. Necessary feedback is provided to the focal role so that he can correct his weaknesses and consolidate his strengths.

RAT interventions help people to reduce role confusion. This intervention can be a peaceful activity with high payoff. Often the mutual demands and expectations on interdependent team members are not examined. Role analysis clarifies who is to do what and ensures commitment to the role once it has been clarified.

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Structural Intervention and Organizational development

Structural interventions are also known as techno structural interventions. It is a broad class of interventions which includes changes in how the overall work of an organization is divided into units, who reports to whom, methods of control, the arrangement of equipment and people, work flow arrangements and changes in communications and authority. Structural intervention aims at improving organizational effectiveness through changes in task, structural, technological, and goal processes in the organization.

10.15 Socio technical systems

The term socio technical system was coined in the 1960s by Eric Trist and Fred Emery, who were working as consultants at the Tavistock Institute in London. This term is largely associated with experiments attempted to create better fit among the technology, structure and social interactions of a particular production unit in a mine, factory, or office. A socio-technical system is a system composed of technical and social subsystems. An example for this is a factory or also a hospital where people are organized in social systems like teams or departments, to do work for a common goal.

In organizational development, a socio technical system (STS) is an approach to complex organizational work design that recognizes the interaction between people and technology in workplaces. The term also refers to the interaction between society's complex infrastructures and human behavior.

Socio technical systems theory is theory about the social aspects of people and society and technical aspects of organizational structure and processes. Here, technical does not imply technology. "Technical" was a term used in those times to refer to structure and a broader sense of technicalities. Socio technical refers to the interrelatedness of social and technical aspects of an organization. Socio technical theory therefore is about joint optimization, with a shared emphasis on achievement of both excellence in technical performance and quality in people's work lives. Socio technical theory proposes a number of different ways of achieving joint optimization. They are usually based on designing different kinds of organization, ones in which the relationships between socio and technical elements lead to the emergence of productiviry and wellbeing.

As described by Cummings and Worley, Socio technical theory has on two main principles:

- One is that the interaction of social and technical factors creates the conditions for successful (or unsuccessful) organizational performance. This means that effective work systems must jointly optimize the relationship between their social and technical parts.
- The corollary of this, and the second of the two main principles, is that optimization of each aspect alone (socio or technical) tends to increase not only the quantity of unpredictable, 'un-designed' relationships, but those relationships that are injurious to the system's performance.

Check Your Progress

3. What is Action research model of OD?
4. What do you mean by OD interventions?
5. What is congruency/incongruence within OD?

Therefore socio rechnical theory is about joint optimization. Socio technical theory, as distinct from socio technical systems, proposes a number of different ways of achieving joint optimization. They are usually based on designing different kinds of organization, ones in which the relationships between socio and technical elements lead to the emergence of productivity and wellbeing, rather than the all too often case of new technology failing to meet the expectations of designers and users alike.

The scientific literature shows terms like socio technical all one word, or socio technical with a hyphen, socio technical theory, socio technical system and socio technical systems theory. All of these terms appear ubiquitously but their actual meanings often remain unclear. The key term 'socio technical' is something of a buzzword and its varied usage can be unpicked. What can be said about it, though, is that it is most often used to simply, and quite correctly, describe any kind of organization that is composed of people and technology. But, predictably, there is more to it than that.

Congruency/Incongruence within organizational development

In relation with psychotherapy, congruence is concerned with a person's attempts to achieve harmony in their way of being. This is particularly of harmony between body and mind. Body, in this statement, refers primarily to behavior, to all the movements and sensations which constitute our experience of our physical being. Mind refers to our sentiments, beliefs, emotions, thoughts and imagery. Sometimes we make this same distinction by talking about a person's "outer" and "inner" lives.

The term congruence was introduced to psychotherapeutic language by Carl Rogers who regarded it as one of the necessary and sufficient conditions for constructive personality change. Rogers describes the concepts of congruence and incongruence as important ideas in his theory. Congruency is the drive to become what one can be, to realize one's potentialities. At the same time he recognizes the need for positive regard. They are able to lead lives that are authentic and genuine. Incongruent individuals, in their pursuit of positive regard, live lives that include falseness and do not realize their potential. They live lives that are not true to themselves, to who they are on the inside.

Rogers suggests that the incongruent individual is always defensive, and cannot be open to all experiences. They work hard at maintaining/protecting their self concept. Because their lives are not authentic this is a difficult task and they are under constant threat. They arrange defence mechanisms to achieve this. He describes two mechanisms: distortion and denial. Distortion occurs when the individual perceives a threat to their self concept. They distort the perception until it fits their self concept. Denial follows the same process except instead of distorting they deny the threat exists.

Advantages of congruency:

1. Congruence helps in enhancing relationships. Employees feel more at ease with each other if they believe that they can trust them.
2. It helps in improving the climate of the organization. If all employees are genuine with each other and do not hide anything within themselves, there will be less conflicts and improved climate.
3. It helps in achievement of organizational goals. People will work with more dedication and loyalty in respect of their work and goals.
4. It will also lead to better job satisfaction and motivation among employees. This is because of improved relationships and better communication; both at personal and professional level.

Causes of Congruency in employees

1. **Motivation:** If the employees are morally supported and motivated by their supervisors, then they are likely to be congruent and behave according to their real personality.

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2. **Self-confidence:** Self confidence is the power to display the true self to others. When an employee is confident about himself and his work, he behaves accurately and factually with regard to his personality.
3. **Appraisal:** Appraisal means evaluation by the seniors or immediate supervisor. If the employees of the organization are impartially and correctly evaluated for their given performance, they are then supposed to behave congruently and genuinely.
4. **Rational:** There are many people who have the ability to rationalize their thoughts and decisions. Such people are always congruent with their life and work.

Causes of Incongruence in employees

1. **Fear of failure:** Usually, People do not have a tendency to face failures. They fear to face failures and lose their reputation. The same happens to employees in organizations when they could not afford to face discrepancy and inconsistency in their performance and work. Hence, they behave in manner which is artificial and can masks their real personality. This is what we can say incongruence in those types of employees.
2. **Fear of ignorance:** Another type of fear that is commonly seen in employees is the fear of ignorance by their colleagues and society. This hesitation too makes employees restless and they become incongruent to their real self.
3. **Lack of confidence:** In organizations, people work at various levels. A person at junior level is always scared of the person who is at senior level. They loose their self confidence when they face their seniors and top management. Hence, they behave incongruent and hide their true selves.
4. **Past experiences:** Certain times there are employees in organization, who behave incongruently because of their bad past experiences. These people might have faced some bad experiences in related to their personality or behavior. Therefore, to avoid the repetition of such incidents, they behave incongruently.

CASE STUDY

The Challenge

Declining employee morale, conflict within and between workgroups, and employee performance problems led a newly appointed Division Manager of a Federal agency to seek the help of TATC Consulting's Organizational Development practice.

Our Approach

After an initial meeting to obtain background information from the Division Manager, we began work on the project.

Phase 1: Assessed the Situation

- Administered the Campbell Organizational Survey (COS) to all staff
- Interviewed all 25 staff members and supervisors
- Met with EEO staff and union representatives

The assessment identified the following key themes:

- Employees were strongly committed to their work
- Work group supervisors were seen as having an autocratic leadership style and poor listening skills
- No sense of teamwork within/across work units

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- No accountability for completing necessary paperwork
- No regular communication from supervisors/managers to employees
- Only a moderate level of trust in the Division Manager.

A summary of the assessment was reported back to senior management and to all staff in a series of feedback sessions.

Phase 2: Designed and Conducted the Intervention

- Established a staff-based "Process Improvement Committee" (PIC) to develop recommendations for changes in work processes
- Provided individual coaching to senior leaders and supervisors on leadership styles and effective communication and feedback
- Led a series of team-building and training sessions with staff focused on communication processes, conflict management approaches, and preferred work styles

Results Achieved

- Recommendations for revised work systems developed by the PIC were approved by senior management and implemented – resulting in cost efficiencies and time savings
- Measurable increases in morale and intra- and inter-group cooperation
- Supervisors and managers began a program of regular communication with their staff
- Managers and staff experienced a reduction in their work-related stress

10.16 SUMMARY:

- Organization Development (OD) refers to the wide range strategies for organizational improvement. It is the process of improving organizations.
- The process of Organizational development is carefully planned and implemented to benefit the organization, its employees and its stakeholders.
- Organizational development is a systematic approach to improving efficiency, effectiveness and productivity in organizations.
- Organizational development places emphasis on the human factors and data inherent in the organization-employee relationship.
- Organizational development strategies can be used to help employees become more committed and more adaptable, which ultimately improves the organization as a whole.
- OD is a process of changing people and other related aspects of an organization.
- OD interventions are sets of structured activities in which selected organizational units (target groups or individuals) engage in a task or a sequence of tasks with the goals of organizational improvement and individual development.
- Congruency is the drive to become what one can be, to realize one's potentialities. At the same time he recognizes the need for positive regard. They are able to lead lives that are authentic and genuine.
- Incongruent individuals, in their pursuit of positive regard, live lives that include falseness and do not realize their potential. They live lives that are not true to themselves, to who they are on the inside.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

NOTES

1. The term organizational change refers to the wide range strategies for organizational improvements. It is the process of improving organizations.
2. OD professionals or consultants can be employed by the organization or can be hired on a contract basis.
3. Action research may be defined as a process, that is, as an ongoing series of events and actions.
4. OD interventions are sets of structured activities in which selected organizational units (target groups and individuals) engage in a task or a sequence of tasks with the goal of organizational improvement and individual development.
5. Congruence is the derive to become what one can be, to realize one's potentialities. Incongruent individuals in their pursuit of their positive regards, live lives that include falseness and do not realize their potential.

10.17 TEST YOURSELF :

1) Define Organization Development. Explain nature and importance of organizational development.
2) What is the strength of Organizational Development?
3) Explain organizational development process.
4) Give suggestions for effective implementation of OD programme.
5) What is the Action Research Model of OD?
6) What is Organizational development intervention?
7) What factors should consider while planning and implementing an OD intervention?
8) Discuss some major interventions. What possible results of OD interventions?
9) What do you mean by Team Building Intervention?
10) Explain major characteristics of an effective team?
11) What is the Process of team building?
12) What is Role Analysis Technique? Explain benefits of Role Analysis Techniques.
13) What is Structural Intervention?
14) What is congruency and incongruence within organizational development?

10.18 Reference

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10.19 FURTHER READING

- Organization Behaviour- L.M. Prasad.
- Organization Behaviour-Stephen P. Robbins, Seema Sanghi-Pearson Education.

11 Stress Management

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The Chapter Covers :

11.1 INTRODUCTION

Stress has been defined as a physical, mental or emotional response to events which cause mental or bodily tension. In the modern day life stress is a part and parcel of our lives. At the same time, it should not exceed the capacity of an individual to handle it. If it exceeds in proportion to a person's abilities to cope with it, it would cause mental and physical imbalance in the person. Therefore, a major challenge for every one today is to make stress work for you as a productive force rather than as a deterrent which can cause imbalance in an individual.

While handling a stressful situation, the brain signals the release of stress hormones. These chemical substances in turn trigger a set of responses that provides the body with extra energy: Blood-sugar levels rise, the heartbeat speeds up and blood pressure increases. The muscles tense for action. The blood supply is diverted away from the gut to the extremities to help the body deal with the situation at hand.

According to J. C Quick and J.D Quick "Stress, or the stress response, is the unconscious preparation to fight or flee a person *experiences* when faced with any demand".

According to Mikhail A "Stress refers to a psychological and physiological state that results when certain features of an individual's environment challenge that person, creating or actual or perceived imbalance between demand and capability to adjust that result in a non-specific response".

11.2 TYPES OF STRESS

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Stress can manifest itself in a number of ways depending upon the suddenness of an event to be dealt with and types of stressors to be handled by an individual. It may manifest itself either physically, emotionally and mentally, as certain symptoms.

Physical - This happens when the body as a whole suffers due to stressful situation. There are many symptoms like, headaches, tension in the neck, forehead, and shoulder muscles Long periods of stress can cause other serious symptoms like digestive problems, ulcers, insomnia (sleeplessness), fatigue, high blood pressure, nervousness, excessive sweating, heart ailments, strokes and hair loss as well.

11.3 The General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS)

Hans Selye, the world's foremost authority on stress was the first to describe systematically the changes through which the body passes to deal with a perceived threat, he described what he called the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS), an adaptive response that occurs in mree phases: A- an alarm reaction. B- the stage of resistance; and C- the stage of exhaustion. The figure below shows the course of the General Adaptation Syndrome.

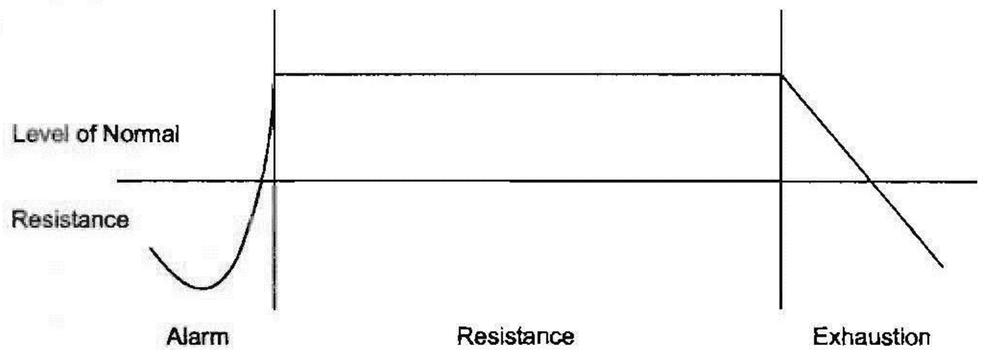

Figure : GAS

The above diagram shows the course of the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) and describes the psychological and physical response to stress -that is, the way a person tries to adapt to a stressor. The syndrome is called "general" because the stress response occurs in several areas of the body. GAS has 3 stages.

1. **Alarm Stage:** According to this model, the general adaptation syndrome begins when a person encounters a stressor and enters the alarm stage. A person in this stage wonders how to cope and feels anxiety, even panic. The person breathes faster, blood pressure rises, pupils dilate and muscles tense. At this stage, the person is coping ineffectively.
2. **Resistance:** Assuming the person can summon the resources to cope with the stressor, he or she begins to feel more confident and to think of how to respond. During the second stage of the general adaptation syndrome, "resistance", the person channels his or her energy and uses it to resist the stressor's negative effects. The person tackles the problem, delegates the challenge, or adjusts to the change. Resistance to the stressor is high, but the person's resistance to other stressors may be low because the body's resources are being used up. Evidence shows that a person's immune system function tends to decline during periods of stress.
3. **Exhaustion: Many stressors are short term:** The person manages to solve the problem, or the situation ends on its own. In such cases, the general adaptation syndrome ends during resistance stage. But occasionally, a stressor persists. In situations where stressors persist, the person may enter the third stage: exhaus-

tion. In this stage, the symptoms of the alarm stage return and the person eventually uses up his or her adaptive energy.

Emotional - These responses are due to stress affecting the mind and include, anxiety, anger, depression, irritability, frustration, over-reaction to everyday problems, memory loss and a lack of concentration for any task.

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Anxiety is exhibited as a response to loss, failure, danger or a fear of the unknown. Anger is a response to frustration or social stress and can become a danger to other individuals, if not kept in check. Depression is frequently seen as an emotional response to upsetting situations, such as, the death of a loved one, illness and failure.

Psychological - Long-term stress can cause psychological problems in some individuals. Symptoms may include social isolation, phobias, compulsive behaviors, eating disorders and night terrors.

11.4 Stress may be classified into two types:

Positive stress (Eustress) -Moderate and manageable levels of stress for a reasonable period of time can be handled by the body through mobilization of resources and is accompanied by positive emotions, such as, enjoyment, satisfaction, excitement and so on. This beneficial element in stress has been defined by Selye (1974) as Eustress (EU- meaning - good). It is often known as curative and pleasant stress which is very important for a person to generate maximum performance and output. Sometimes we don't want to get away from stress because it is actually Eustress.

Eustress, or positive stress, has the following characteristics: Motivates,. focuses energy

- Is short-term
- Is perceived as within our coping abilities
- Feels exciting

Some of the examples of Eustress are:

a) Getting the promotion

b) Excirement of winning a race

c) Accomplishing 3 challenge

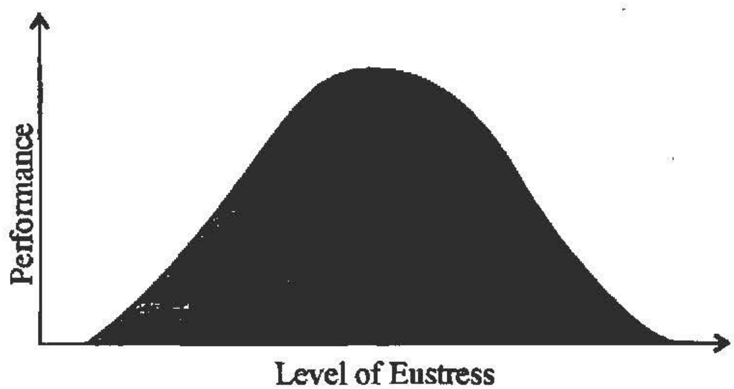

Figure : Eustress

Selye's 1975 model divided stress into two major components: eustress and distress. This model is based on his earlier work on the General Adaptation System (GAS). Persistent, unresolved distress may lead to anxiety, withdrawal or depression.

Negative stress (Distress) - an overload of stress resulting from a situation of either over arousal or under arousal for Long periods of time causes the following: first an unpleasant feeling, followed by physical damage, fatigue and in extreme cases, even death of an individual. This has been termed by Selye as distress (dis- meaning -

bad).

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Distress, or negative stress, has the following characteristics:

- Causes anxiety or concern
- Can be short- or long-term
- Is perceived as outside of our coping abilities
- Feels unpleasant
- Decreases performance
- Can lead to mental and physical problems

Examples of negative personal stressors include:

- The death of a spouse
- Hospitalization (oneself or a family member)
- Being abused or neglected

11.5 POTENTIAL SOURCES OF STRESS

While environmental factors are forces outside the organization, which may act as potential sources of stress due to uncertainties and threats that they create for any organization and its members, factors within organization can also act as potential source of stress. Together or singly they may create a tense and volatile working environment which can cause stress for organizational members because the inability of individuals to handle the pressures arising out of these sources.

For purposes of analysis and understanding, stressors are divided into two classes:

i) Those that lie within the individual, and

ii) Those that are a part of the external environment.

11.6 INTERNAL STIMULI FOR STRESS:

The internal sources of stress are complex and difficult to isolate. There are three internal sources of stress. Each of these internal influences on stress is considered separately, although they function in continual interaction.

1. **Inner Conflicts** : For many people, stress is a constant companion regardless of how favorable or unfavorable external conditions may be. Non-specific fears, anxiety and guilt feelings maintain the body in state of readiness for emergence action on a continuing basis.
   - Conflict in interpersonal relationships
   - Bankruptcy/Money Problems
   - Unemployment
   - Children's problems at school
   - Legal problems
2. **Perceptual Influences** : Perception is influenced by a number of internal factors. Certainly people with inner conflicts sufficient to cause stress are more likely than self-confident people to perceive environmental conditions as threatening. Because the environment is presumed to be full of danger, evidences of danger are perceived everywhere. They are selectively perceived in exaggerated form.
3. **Thresholds of Stress** : The threshold of stress is not independent of the two factors just discussed. People who have few internal conflicts and a minimum of perceptual distortion can withstand external conflict and pressure that weaker personalities would find intolerable. People who have high thresholds for stress

Check Your Progress

1. Define Stress.
2. What is Stress Management?

have high levels of resistance to it.

4. **Motivational Level** : People who are ambitious and highly motivated to achieve are more likely to experience stress than those who are content with their career status. Persons whose selt-expectations exceed their abilities and opportunities are especially stress prone.

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11.7 ENVIRONMENTAL STRESSORS

Environmental and internal conditions that lie beyond an individual's control are called environmental stressors. Such stressors can have a considerable impact on work performance and adjustment. We can organize envitonmental stressors into the following categories:

1. **Task Demands** : Task demands are factors related to a person's job. They include the design of the individual's JOD, working conditions, and the physical work layout. Changes and lack of control are two of the most stressfu' demands people face at work. Change leads to uncertainty, a lack of predictability in a person's daily tasks and activities and may be caused by job insecurity related to difficult economic times. Technology and technological innovation also create change and uncertainty for many employees, requiring adjustments in training, education and skill development.

   Lack of control is a second major source of stress, especially in work environments that are difficult and psychologically demanding. The lack of control may be caused by inability to influence the timing of tasks and activities, to select tools or methods for accomplishing the work, to make decisions that influence work outcomes, or to exercise direct action to affect the work outcomes.

2. **Role Demands** : The social-psychological demands of the work environment may be every bit as stressful as task demands at work. Role demands relate to pressures placed on a person as a function of the particular role he or she plays in the organization. Role conflicts create expectations that may be hard to reconcile or satisfy. Role conflict results from inconsistent or incompatible expectations communicated to a person. The conflict may be an inter-role, intra-role or person-role conflict.

   a. **Inter-role Conflict:** is caused by conflicting expectations related to two separate roles, such as employee and parent. For example, the employee with a major sales presentation on Monday and a sick child at home is likely to experience inter-role conflict.

   b. **Intra-role Conflict:** is caused by conflicting expectations related to a single role, such as employee. For example, the manager who presses employees for both very fast work and high-quality work may be viewed at some point as creating a conflict for employees.

   c. **Person-role Conflict:** Ethics violations are likely to cause person role conflicts. Employees expected to behave in ways that violate personal values, beliefs or principles experience conflict.

   The second major cause of role stress is role ambiguity. Role ambiguity is created when role expectations are not clearly understood and the employee is not sure what he or she is to do. Role ambiguity is the confusion a person experiences related to the expectations of others. Role ambiguity may be caused by not understanding what is expected, not knowing how to do it, or not knowing the result of failure to do it.

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3. **Inter-personal Demands** : All pressures created by other employees, lack of social support from colleagues and poor interpersonal relationships can cause considerable stress, especially among employees with a high social need. Abrasive personalities, sexual harassment and the leadership style in the organization are interpersonal demands for people at work.

   a. **The Abrasive Person:** May be an able and talented employee, but one who creates emotional waves that others at work must accommodate.

   b. **Sexual Harassment:** The vast majority of sexual harassment is directed at women in the workplace, creating a stressful working environment for the person being harassed, as well as for others.

   c. **Leadership Styles:** Whether authoritarian or participative, create stress for different personality types. Employees who feel secure with firm, directive leadership may be anxious with an open, participative style. Those comfortable with participate leadership may feel restrained by a directive style.

4. **Physical Demands** : Non-work demands create stress for people, which carry over into the work environment or vice versa. Workers subject to family demands related to marriage, child rearing and parental care may create role conflicts or overloads that are difficult to manage. In addition to family demands, people have personal demands related to non-work organizational commitments such as religious and public service organizations. These demands become more or less stressful, depending on their compatibility with the person's work and family life and their capacity to provide alternative satisfactions for the person.

11.8 CONSEQUENCES OF STRESS

Stress shows itself in three ways-physiological, psychological, and behavioral symptoms.

1. **Physiological symptoms:**
   - Most of the early concern with stress was directed at physiological symptoms due to the fact that specialists in the health and medical sciences researched the topic.
   - Physiological symptoms have the least direct relevance to students of OB.
2. **Psychological symptoms:**
   - Job-related stress can cause job-related dissatisfaction.
   - Job dissatisfaction is "the simplest and most obvious psychological effect" of stress (Robbins, 2003).
   - Multiple and conflicting demands, lack of clarity as to the incumbent's duties, authority, and responsibilities, increases stress and dissatisfaction.
   - The less control people have over the pace of their work, the greater the stress and dissatisfaction.
3. **Behavioural symptoms:**
   - Behaviourally related stress symptoms include changes in productivity, absence, and turnover, as well as changes in eating habits, increased smoking or consumption of alcohol, rapid speech, fidgeting, and sleep disorders.

11.9 STRESS MANAGEMENT

High level stress affects the individuals directly and through them, their families and organizations are also affected. Therefore efforts should be made to overcome the

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negative consequences of high stress. Following figure presents the situation in which individuals need support to overcome stress.

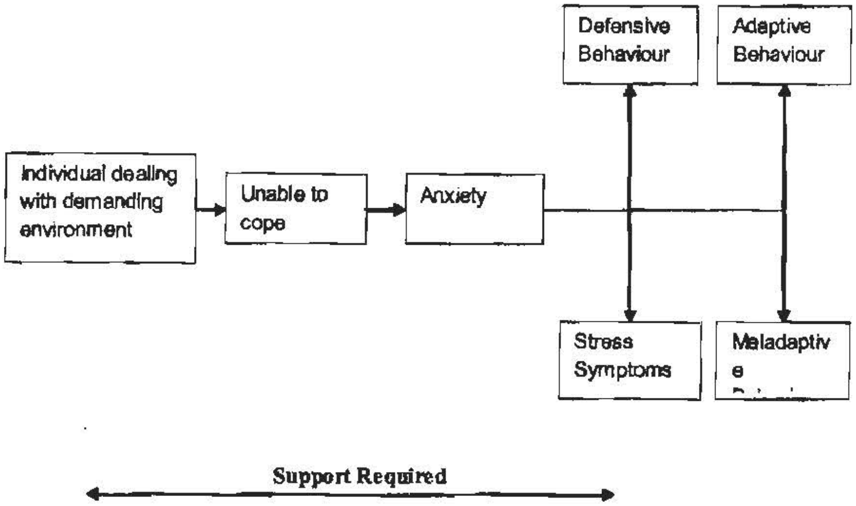

Figure: Stress and Coping Mechanism

Stress management is required when an individual is unable ro cope with the demanding environment. This inability generates anxiety and produces defensive behavior and stress symptoms. Therefore, the actions are required for developing adaptive behavior so as ro overcome the consequences of stress. Such action may be taken at individual level as well as organizational level.

Individual Coping Strategies:

- Effective individual strategies include implementing time management techniques, increasing physical exercise, relaxation training, and expanding the social support network.
- Practicing time management principles also leaves as an important element in managing stress, such as:
  a) making daily lists of activities to be accomplished.
  b) prioritizing activities by importance and urgency.
  c) scheduling activities according to the priorities set.
  d) knowing your daily cycle and handling the most demanding parts of your job during the high part of your cycle when you are most alert and productive.
- Non-competitive physical exercise has long been recommended as a way to deal with excess negative stress levels.
- Individuals can reach themselves to reduce tension through relaxation techniques, such as, meditation hypnosis and bio-feedback.
- Having friends, family, or work colleagues to talk to provides an outlet for excessive stress.

Organizational Coping Strategies:

Strategies that management might want to consider include:

a) Improved personnel selection and job placement leading to right person-job-fit thereby reducing chances of non-performance and stress level.

b) Use of realistic goal setting, redesigning of jobs can help in aligning the individuals and job effectively and reduce stress.

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c) Training in stress management techniques can be helpful

d) Increased employee involvement improves motivation, morale, commitment, and leads to better role integration and reduction in stress.

e) Improved organizational communication helps in creating transparency in organizations and reduces confusion, thereby decreasing stress level at work.

f) Establishment of corporate wellness programmes is an important component in managing stress among organizational members by rejuvenating and refreshing them from time to time leading to increased productivity with renewed energy.

11.10 A SUGGESTED FRAMEWORK FOR STRESS MANAGEMENT

There is a positive side to stress, it provides drive, excitement and motivation for individuals to push themselves to achieve more in their lives in the fulfillment of their set goals, there is no requirement to eliminate stress from one's life. Managing stress should be given importance rather than elimination. The goal should be to find the optimal level of stress that can be handled effectively by an individual which will motivate the person and not overwhelm and distress an individual.

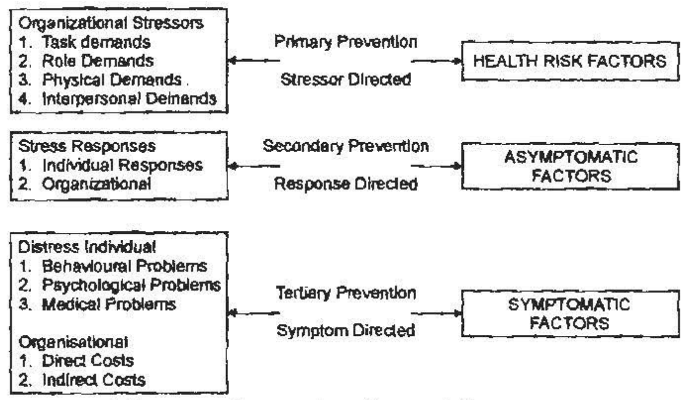

Figure : Preventive Stress Management

How can one find out what is optimal stress for an individual?

There is no single level of stress that is optimal for all people. We are all motivated or distressed by different levels of stimulations in a given situation. Age, mental strength, upbringing and cultural factors can be important elements that may influence our abilities to handle stress.

Preventive Stress Management

Stress is an inevitable feature of work and personal life. Individual and organizational distresses are not inevitable. A framework for understanding preventive stress management is presented in the figure below.

The above figure explains that the three stages of prevention are primary, secondary and tertiary prevention.

- **Primary Prevention:** Primary prevention is intended to reduce, modify or eliminate the demand or stressor causing stress. True organizational stress prevention is largely primary in nature, because it changes and shapes the demands the organization places on people at work.
- **Secondary Prevention:** Secondary prevention is intended to alter or modify the individual's response to a demand or stressor. People must learn to manage the inevitable.
- **Tertiary Prevention:** Tertiary prevention is intended to heal the individual of symptoms of distress and strain. Tertiary prevention is therapeutic, aimed at arresting distress and healing the individual.

How Can One Manage Stress Better?

Identifying unrelieved stress and being aware of its effect on an individual's life is insufficient for reducing its harmful effects. Just as there are many sources of stress, there are many possibilities for its management. There are two choices in this regard - either changes the source of stress and changes your reaction to it. What is the path for doing so?

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1. **Become aware of the stressors and the emotional and physical reactions** : Firstly we should recognize the cause of distress. Ignoring these causes is not a solution. Listing out all the events that cause distress is important. What does an individual tell himself/ herself about the meaning of these events? Determining how the body responds to the stress. Does the individual become nervous or physically upset? If so, in what specific ways?
2. **Recognizing what can be changed** : Is it possible to change the stressors, by avoiding or eliminating them completely? Can their intensity be reduced? Is it possible to shorten an individual's exposure to stress? Can one devote the time and energy necessary to make a change (for example, goal setting, time management techniques may be used)?
3. **Reduce the intensity of the emotional reactions to stress** : The stress reaction is triggered by our perception of danger: physical danger and/or emotional danger. Are we viewing your stressors in exaggerated terms and/or taking a difficult situation and making it a disaster? Are we trying to please everyone? Are we over reacting and viewing things as absolutely critical and urgent? Do we feel you must always prevail in every situation? Work at adopting more moderate views; try to see the stress as something you can cope with rather than something that over powers us is a solution for reducing stress, internally.
4. **Learning to moderate our physical reactions to stress** : Slow, deep breathing will bring your heart rate and respiration back to normal. Relaxation techniques can reduce muscle tension. Electronic biofeedback can help you gain voluntary control over such things as muscle tension; heart rate, and blood pressure. Medications, when needed and prescribed by a doctor can help in moderating the physical reactions. However, these alone cannot do the job. Learning to moderate these reactions on our own is a desirable solution in the long run.
5. **Build our physical reserves** : Exercising for cardiovascular fitness three to four times a week (moderate, prolonged rhythmic exercise is best, such as walking, swimming, cycling, or jogging). Eating well-balanced and nutritious meals are a must. Maintaining the ideal weight is essential. Avoiding nicotine, excessive caffeine, and other stimulants can be a great help in reducing stress. Mixing leisure with work and taking breaks from routine work can relax and reduce stress in a person. Getting adequate sleep is of utmost importance.
6. **Maintaining our emotional reserves** : Developing some mutually supportive friendship ends stable relationships that help in sharing bottled-up emotions and reduce stress. Pursuing realistic goals which are meaningful to, rather than goals that others have for set for us, can help in reducing stress. Expecting some frustrations, failures, and sorrows as apart of life can make us gear up mentally in handling stressful situations rather than succumb to them.

11.11 CRISIS MANAGEMENT

A crisis is a major, unpredictable event that threatens to harm an organization and its stakeholders. Three elements are common to most definitions of crisis: (a) a threat to the organization, (b) the element of surprise, and (c) a short decision time (Seeger, Sellnow & Ulmer, 1998)

There are four types of organizational crises:

- Sudden Crises, such as fires, explosions, natural disasters, workplace violence, etc;
- Smoldering Crises, problems or issues that start out small and could be fixed or averted if someone was paying attention or recognized the potential for trouble;

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- Bizarre, like the finger in the Wendy's Restaurant Chili, a one-of-a-kind crisis; and,
- Perceptual Crises, such as the long-running problem Proctor & Gamble used to have with their former corporate logo, that included a half-moon and stars, which critics would claim were symbols of devil-worship, calling for boycotts of P&G products. (Smith & Millar, 2002).

Irrespective of the size of an organization affected, the main benefits of crisis management would encompass the following:

1. Ability to assess the situation from inside and outside the organization as all stakeholders might perceive it.
2. Techniques to direct action(s) to contain the likely or perceived damage spread.
3. A more effective way to rapidly trigger that part or parts of business continuity management.
4. Better organizational resilience for all stakeholders.
5. Compliance with regulatory and ethical requirements, e.g. corporate social responsibility.
6. Much better management of serious incidents or any incident that could become serious.
7. Improved staff awareness of their roles and expectations within the organization
8. Increased ability, confidence and morale within the organization.
9. Enhanced risk management insofar that obvious risks will be identified, mitigated (where possible) and through crisis and business continuity management as prepared for.
10. Protected and often enhanced reputation a much reduced risk of post event litigation

Steps to effective crisis management:

- Appointing a crisis management team.
- Brainstorm all possible crises that could hit the organization; develop the response required for each.
- Prepare a master plan everyone understands, a plan with clear delegation of responsibility across the organization.
- Designate the official spokesperson at every location, or the one voice for the organization.
- Prepare the field as carefully as headquarters - one team, one voice, one response.
- Secure or activate the best public relations team.

Effective leaders will regard communications within the organization and with all constituents as important as those with the public and the media. They will communicate with integrity and openness, using messages consistent with mission and values. They will stay close to the customer-internal and external, focusing on what the customer values.

The Crisis Management Team (CMT)

Managing a crisis requires a coordinated effort involving members of a team already identified who have received training and is familiar with the contents of this Guide. The Crisis Management Team is the group created for this purpose by authority.

The Crisis Management Team is a focused responsibility group for the crisis management process. The core Crisis Management Team includes members of senior management and representatives from several areas of the University who are in the best position to respond to the emergency.

The main functions of the Crisis Management Team are:

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- Establish a Strategic Crisis Management Team (CMT)
- Assessment of vulnerability assessment, elimination or reduction of the probability of a crisis.
- Preparation of a response plans to different potential crisis.
- Responding to emergencies and direct emergency resources, plan activation.
- Recovery and evaluation: debrief and provide for the evaluation and improvement of the crisis process.
- Reduction of risk of crisis recurrence.

The other additional functions are:

- Recommending appropriate response for each area of the organization.
- Recommending and developing community and media communications during and after the crisis.
- Serving as consultants or providing "third-party" opinions to other members of the team.
- Working with appropriate outside resources to secure information, resources and assistance as needed.
- Participating in, or conducting disaster and emergency preparedness training.
- Developing and/or recommending efforts toward preventing crisis from happening.
- Revising and updating printed materials such as this Guide and brochures
- Assuring that all the signage and designated areas are clearly marked and in place.
- Recommending appropriate training in preparedness.

CASE STUDY

Problem

Northumbria Probation Service (NPS) employs around 600 staff and was looking to tackle stress as an organisation. The core work of the organisation is pressurised and can be stressful and NPS, like many similar organisations, faced some real difficulties in this area. Evidence, both qualitative and quantitative appeared to show that stress levels were high in some areas, particularly among those carrying out the core functions of the organisation i.e. the delivery of probation services to offenders.

NPS identified that something needed to be done as an organisation to tackle stress at work, assess risk, and develop specific strategies to prevent and reduce stress where reasonably practicable. There was a consensus right across the organisation that action was needed, and that managers, employees and their representatives all needed to be involved in developing solutions.

Action Taken

1. **NPS set up a "stress steering group"** involving managers at all levels, HR, Training, Trade Unions (UNISON and NAPO), and Health and Safety.

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The main tasks of the steering group were:

- developing appropriate and effective policy
- organising a risk assessment and benchmarking exercise
- developing appropriate training for managers and staff
- developing support structures and services as needed

In Equilibrium were approached to provide a range of stress management services and worked closely with NPS to help them achieve their objectives in this regard.

2. Policy development

In Equilibrium provided consultancy for the developmenr of a stress policy. For example, In Equilibrium facilitated group work where the steering group put together, discussed and agreed by consensus the key elements and structure of the policy. The policy had to take into account existing procedures, structures and protocols. Meat was then put on the bones of the policy. It was agreed how sections should be worded. Work done contributed substantially to the final policy, which was later finalised by the working group, then approved internally by senior management.

3. Risk assessment and benchmarking

In Equilibrium provided a stress audit to assess stress risk across the organisation and provide a benchmark against which future progress could be measured. The stress audit involved a survey that enabled both quantitative and qualitative analysis. The results indicated where risk was highest (among probation officers) and what the likely causes of stress were (high demands and low control). Our conclusions and recommendations influenced the development of control measures designed to minimise risk e.g. training development priorities, support structures.

4. Training for managers

Following policy development and risk assessment, In Equilibrium facilitated a meeting with the stress steering group to design training for managers. The course was tailored to meet NPS's needs and priorities. A one-day training course was developed and delivered by In Equilibrium to all those with line management responsibility in the organisation. Management training was seen as a priority because managers were the key people involved in implementing the new stress policy.

5. Training for all employees

Once all managers were trained, the working group met to discuss and agree how training to all staff should be organised, delivered and prioritised. In Equilibrium provided consultancy and advice at this meeting, and agreed to support NPS through provision of appropriate resources and training materials.

Results

Training evaluation

The training for managers was highly rated by participants and received an overall satisfaction rating of 91% using NPS's own evaluation - all participants rated the course overall on a scale of 1 (no value) to 6 (excellent). The score here means that 91% of participants scored the course at a 5 or 6. Comments from participants also provided some depth to how the course was perceived:

"A very useful course with a very welcome practical element; easy to understand whilst thought provoking and with good pertinent and useful techniques to apply"

"Offered some practical aids to managing my own stress and that of staff; it has come at a very appropriate time given recent re-structuring and sudden increase in workload and the inevitable implications for staff; the information packs will be very useful guides for my role"

Training for all staff

Training for all staff to provide them with tools and techniques to manage stress more effectively delivered by the stress steering group. In Equilibrium have provided the training materials.

Wellbeing conference

The stress steering group organised a major conference for all NPS staff focussing on employee wellbeing to raise awareness of stress-related issue, and in particular, convey the message that stress should not be seen as a personal weakness but as an issue for the whole organisation.

Employee care and workload prioritisation

An 'Employee Care and Workload Prioritisation Group' was set up to discuss stress risk related to excessive workload, and come up with strategies to minimise risk from this source. The group has raised awareness across the organisation of the results and recommendations from the stress audit, and is continuing its work in finding solutions that are practicable for managers and employees.

Stress policy

The stress policy has now been fully implemented across the organisation.

Effects of management training

The training for managers has influenced management practices and the way stress-related issues can be raised and dealt with effectively. For example, managers in NPS already had structured one-to-ones with staff on a monthly basis (this is common in social work and criminal justice organisations and called 'supervision'). Discussion of stress-related issues involving open 2-way communication is now being built in to these one-to-ones, to improve early identification of stress-related problems. Managers and staff will then be able to work together to develop practical action plans to tackle issues, reducing the risk of stress-related illness (and absence associated with it).

Long-term results

It is difficult to precisely quantify the benefits longer-term as assessing and managing stress risk is a process, not an end in itself. However, it is clear that this work has influenced both policy and practice, and the culture of the organisation. NPS have fed back that they believe this work will have significant long-term benefits both for the organisation and for individual employees in terms of reduced risk of stress and improved health and wellbeing.

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11.12 SUMMARY:

- Stress has been defined as a physical, mental or emotional response to events which cause mental or bodily tension.
- In the modern day life stress is a part and parcel of our lives. Stress can manifest itself in a number of ways depending upon the suddenness of an even to be dealt with and types of stressors to be handled by an individual.
- It may manifest itself either physically, emotionally and / mentally, as certain symptoms.
- Stress may be classified into two types: positive stress (Eustress) and negative stress (Distress).
- Moderate and manageable levels of stress for a reasonable period of time can

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be handled by the body through mobilization of resources and is accompanied by positive emotions, such as, enjoyment, satisfaction, excitement and so on. This beneficial element in stress has been defined by Selye as Eustress (EU- meaning - good).

- Stress shows itself in three ways - physiological, psychological, and behavioural symptoms.
- Managing stress should be given importance rather than elimination. The goal should be to find the optimal level of stress that can be handled effectively by an individual which will motivate the person and not overwhelm and distress an individual.
- A crisis is a major, -unpredictable event that threatens to harm an organization and its stakeholders.

ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Stress, or the stress response, is the unconscious preparation to fight or flee a person experiences when faced with any demand.
2. Stress Management is required when an individual is unable to cope with the demanding environment. This inability generates anxiety and produces defensive behavior and stress symptoms. Therefore, the actions are required for developing adaptive behavior so as to overcome the consequences of stress.
3. A crisis is a major, unpredictable event that threatens to harm an organization and its stakeholders.

11.13 TEST YOURSELF :

1) Explain the concept of Stress Management.
2) What are the different types of Stress?
3) Discuss Internal Stimuli for Stress.
4) Explain various Environmental Stressors.
5) Draw framework for Stress Management.

11.14 Reference

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11.15 FURTHER READING

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