Master of Business Administration

(Open and Distance Learning Mode)

Semester – I

Organisation Behaviour

Centre for Distance and Online Education (CDOE)

DEVI AHILYA VISHWAVIDYALAYA, INDORE

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IET Campus, Khandwa Road, Indore - 452001

www.cdoedavv.ac.in

www.dde.dauniv.ac.in

CDOE-DAVV

Program Coordinator

Dr. Manishkant Arya
Centre for Distance and Online Education (CDOE)
Devi Ahilya Vishwavidyalaya, Indore – 452001

Content Design Committee

Dr. Sangita Jain
Institute of Management Studies
Devi Ahilya Vishwavidyalaya, Indore – 452001

Dr. Yamini Karmarkar
Institute of Management Studies
Devi Ahilya Vishwavidyalaya, Indore – 452001

Dr. Geeta Neema
International Institute of Professional Studies
Devi Ahilya Vishwavidyalaya, Indore – 452001

Dr. Manishkant Arya
Centre for Distance and Online Education (CDOE)
Devi Ahilya Vishwavidyalaya, Indore - 452001

Language Editors

Dr. Arti Sharan
Institute of Engineering & Technology
Devi Ahilya Vishwavidyalaya, Indore – 452001

Dr. Ruchi Singh
Institute of Engineering & Technology
Devi Ahilya Vishwavidyalaya, Indore – 452001

SLM Author(s)

Dr. Neelmegh Chaturvedi
MBA, PhD
EMRC, Devi Ahilya Vishwavidyalaya, Indore – 452001

Ms. Neha Jain Dugeria
MBA
EMRC, Devi Ahilya Vishwavidyalaya, Indore – 452001

Organisation Behaviour

SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE
Organizational Behaviour

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MODULE – 3

INTRODUCTION

A lot of water has flown under the bridge, as they say, since Fredrick Taylor's scientific management principles, where the emphasis was on productivity rather than people. While these principles were considered to be valid and valuable and gained a considerable attention by the industrial world at the time, the Hawthorne experiments of the late 1920s shifted focus from productivity to people and it was recognized that productivity, as a by-product, automatically increased when workers were truly happy with their jobs. Thus the field of organizational behaviour took roots and considerable research and study focussed on the human behaviour in the work environment. Even though intuition and common sense can help us in understanding, predicting and controlling human behaviour, these are poor substitutes for a systematic and analytical approach to the field. This books is specifically designed and prepared to serve such purpose.

We are fast becoming a part of a new area of management. No longer does a manager sit in an ivory tower and issue directives from a distance. The traditional authority structure is giving way to employee involvement, work teams, group spirit, participative decision-making, lateral relations, flexible work structures and more. High productivity and high quality-of-work-life are going hand in hand. The management is becoming more and more aware that an organization has no life but for the people in it. Accordingly, it is becoming more and more people oriented as against task oriented of the previous years.

Organizational behaviour is the study of individual and group behaviour in work settings. This study, complex as it is, has acquired new dimensions with the dynamic social and technological changes of the past two decades. Changing demographics, cultural diversity, more educated work force and awareness of rights and privileges has prompted a new look at the entire organizational structures and systems.

This book has been painstakingly and thoroughly prepared to cover extensively various facets-both micro as well as macro-of the field of organizational behaviour. Its coverage is broad and up to date and it is balanced in terms of concept and application. Since people are the most important asset of any organization, there is increased emphasis on the need for understanding people in a manner that is easily understandable by the students of this subject. The language of presentation is highly communicative so that it becomes interesting and comprehensible.

The book is intended for a wide readership. It will be useful to not only all the students of management, human reasources management, organizational behaviour and behavioural sciences but also to management practitioners who want to understand and enrich their understanding of human behaviour to more effectively manage their work force.

MODULE - 1

UNIT 1 INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Structure

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Very few people will disagree that the success of any organization is a direct reflection of its managerial efficiency and effectiveness. A well-managed organization can survive and even prosper during the most difficult economic times whereas business history is full of instances where badly managed companies declared bankruptcy even during economic upturns. Even though organizational vitality depends upon a number of factors such as general state of the economy, management and even luck—which means being in the right business at the right time—it is primarily the managerial ability or inability that determines the success or failure of an organization.

If the success of an organization is directly dependent upon the ability of management then which critical aspect of management differentiates a "good" management from a "bad" management? In other words, out of all the skills required of management such as technical, analytical, conceptual and human skills, which one is the most crucial as to determine the success or failure of the organization? While technical, analytical and conceptual skills are primarily knowledge based and can be learned and predictably applied, it is human skills that pose the greatest challenge to management due to complexity of human psychological processes and unpredictability of human behaviour. Human skills require effective interaction with others and the quality of this interaction determines the team spirit and dedication within the organization.

Management is commonly defined as "getting work done through other people". This simple definition explains the significance of the role of the people. The work will not be done unless "people" want to do this work and if the work is not done, then there will be no organization. Hence, it is the understanding and the cooperation of the organizational workers that is crucial to the success or failure of the organization.

1.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

- To define an organization
- To understand the concept of organizational behaviour

- To understand the various roles of managers in organizations
- To describe the characteristics of managerial functions and managerial skills
- To understand the internal and external organizational environments
- To describe the various forces and factors affecting organizational behaviour

1.2   WHAT IS AN ORGANIZATION ?

Organizations, according to Gary Johns, "are social inventions for accomplishing goals through group efforts".[1] This definition, though simple, covers a wide variety of groups such as businesses, schools, hospitals, fraternal groups, religious bodies, government agencies and the like. There are three significant aspects in the above definition that require further analysis. These are:

Social inventions   The word "social" as a derivative of society, basically means gathering of people as against plants, machines, buildings, even though plants, machines and buildings are necessary contributors to the existence of the organization. However, organization will cease to exist if there were no people to run these organizations even if other things remain. For example, if "everybody" resigns from a company and no one is replaced, then it is no longer an organization even though all material assets of the company remain until they are disposed of. On the other hand, there are organizations such as neighbourhood associations that have only people in them and are without any physical assets. Accordingly, it is the people that primarily make up organizations.

Accomplishing goals   An organization is not simply a group of people at a given place. For example, a group of people in a department store would not be considered an organization even though they all have the same goal, which is shopping. However, this goal is not the common goal and there are no coordinated efforts to achieve this goal. All organizations have reasons for their existence. These reasons are the goals towards which all organizational efforts are directed. While the primary goal of any commercial organization is to make money for its owners, this goal is inter-related with many other goals. Accordingly any organizational goal must integrate in itself the personal goals of all individuals associated with the organization. For example, General Motors may have the commercial goal of producing and selling more cars every year, community goal of reducing air pollution created by its products and the employee goals of earning and success achievement. Similarly, non-profit organizations such as universities may have the main goal of creating and communicating knowledge along with other goals such as scholarly reputation and teaching excellence. The degree of achievement of such goals reflects the overall performance and effectiveness of the organization.

Group effort   People, both as members of the society at large and as a part of an organization, interact with each other and are interdependent. The concept of marriage and family itself is based upon sharing of life and efforts. The need for such interdependence has both sociological and anthropological roots. From the very beginning of human era, people formed groups to go hunting, and to protect their families from intruders. Secondly, interdependency is necessary for survival as a lone man can accomplish little because of many constraints placed upon him, both physiological as well as societal. Additionally, technological complexities of modern day products necessitate working in groups. For example, no single person can put together a 747 Jumbo Jet. Literally hundreds and thousands of people are involved in coordinated activities in the process of designing and building such an airplane. Individuals in themselves have physical and intellectual limitations and these limitations can only be overcome by group efforts.[2]

1.3   MANAGERS IN ORGANIZATIONS

In addition to the four managerial functions of planning, organizing, directing and controlling, there are ten managerial roles that are commonly defined. These roles can be defined as the organized sets of behaviours identified with the position. These roles were developed by Henry Mintzberg[3] in the late 1960s after a careful study of executives at work. All these roles, in one form or another, deal with people and their behaviour. These ten managerial roles are divided into three categories. The first category of "interpersonal roles" arises directly from the manager's position and the formal authority bestowed upon him. The second category of informational roles is played as a direct result of the interpersonal roles and these two categories give rise to the third category of decisional roles.

These roles, in the context of organizational behaviour, are explained in more detail.

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│          Figurehead          │
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│           Liaison            │
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│     Informational roles      │
│           Monitor            │
│         Disseminator         │
│         Spokesperson         │
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│      Decisional roles        │
│         Entrepreneur         │
│        Problem solver        │
│       Resource allocator     │
│          Negotiator          │
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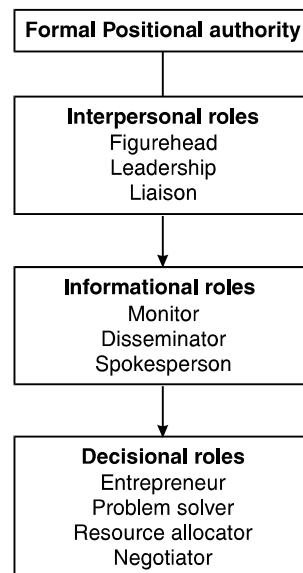
Interpersonal Roles

Managers spend a considerable amount of time in interacting with other people both within their own organizations as well as outside. These people include peers, subordinates, superiors, suppliers, customers, government officials and community leaders. All these interactions require an understanding of interpersonal behaviour. Studies show that interacting with people takes up nearly 80% of a manager's time.[4] These interactions involve the following three major interpersonal roles:

Figurehead role   Managers act as symbolic figureheads performing social or legal obligations. These duties include greeting visitors, signing legal documents, taking important customers to lunch, attending a subordinate's wedding or speaking at functions in schools and churches. All these, primarily, are duties of a ceremonial nature but are important to the smooth functioning of the organization.

Leadership role   The influence of the manager is most clearly seen in his role as a leader of the unit or organization. Since he is responsible for the activities of his subordinates, he must lead and coordinate their activities in meeting task-related goals and he must motivate them to perform better. He must be an exemplary leader so that his subordinates follow his directions and guidelines with respect and dedication.

Liaison role   In addition to their constant contact with their own subordinates, peers and superiors, the managers must maintain a network of outside contacts in order to

assess the external environment of competition, social changes or changes in governmental rules and regulations. In this role, the managers build up their own external information system. This can be achieved by attending meetings and professional conferences, by personal phone calls, trade journals and informal personal contacts with outside agencies.

Informational Roles

By virtue of his interpersonal contacts, a manager emerges as a source of information about a variety of issues concerning the organization. In this capacity of information possessor, a manager executes the following three roles.

Monitor role The managers are constantly monitoring and scanning their environment, both internal and external, collecting and studying information regarding their organization and the outside environment affecting their organization. This can be done by reading reports and periodicals, by interrogating their liaison contacts and through gossip, hearsay and speculation.

Information disseminator role The managers must transmit the information regarding changes in policies or other matters to their subordinates, their peers and to other members of the organization. This can be done through memos, phone calls, individual meetings or group meetings.

Spokesman role A manager has to be a spokesman for his unit and represent his unit in either sending relevant information to people outside his unit or making some demands on behalf of his unit. This may be in the form of the president making a speech to a lobby on behalf of an organizational cause or an engineer suggesting a product modification to a supplier.

Decision Roles

On the basis of the environmental information received, a manager must make decisions and solve organizational problems. In that respect, a manager plays four important roles.

Entrepreneurship role As entrepreneurs, managers are constantly involved in improving their units and facing the dynamic technological challenges. They are constantly on the lookout for new ideas for or in product improvement or product addition. They initiate feasibility studies, arrange for capital for new products and ask for suggestions from the employees for ways to improve the organization. This can be achieved through suggestion boxes, holding strategy meetings with project managers and R&D personnel.

Conflict handling role The managers are constantly involved as arbitrators in solving differences among the subordinates or the employee's conflicts with the management. These conflicts may arise due to demands for higher pay or other benefits or these conflicts may involve outside forces such as vendors increasing their prices, a major customer going bankrupt or visits by governmental inspectors. Managers must anticipate such problems and take preventive action, if possible, or take corrective action, once the problems have arisen. These problems may involve labor disputes, customer complaints, employee grievances, machine breakdowns, cash flow shortages and interpersonal conflicts.

Resource allocator The third decisional role of a manager is that of a resource allocator. The managers establish priorities among various projects or programmes and make budgetary allocations to different activities of the organization based upon these priorities. They assign personnel to jobs, they allocate their own time to different activities and they allocate funds for new equipment, advertising and pay raises.

Negotiator role The managers represent their units or organizations in negotiating deals and agreements within and outside the organization. They negotiate contracts with the

unions. Sales managers may negotiate prices with prime customers. Purchasing managers may negotiate prices with vendors.

All these ten roles are important in a manager's job and are interrelated, even though some roles may be more influential than others depending upon the managerial position. For example, sales managers may give more importance to interpersonal roles while the production managers give more importance to decisional roles. The managerial effectiveness is most often determined by how well the decisional roles are performed.

Managerial Functions

In addition to the ten managerial roles as previously described, the job of a manager is most often described in terms of management functions. There are four basic and interrelated functions that managers perform utilizing human, financial, physical and information resources in order to achieve the organizational goals. These managerial functions are planning, organizing, leading and controlling. The functions and their interrelationship is illustrated as follows:
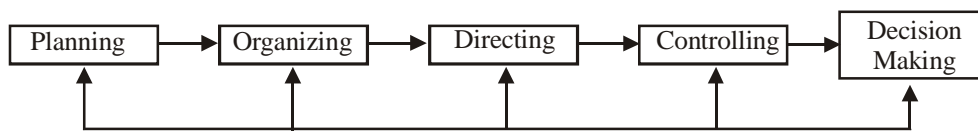
Planning   Planning is considered to be the central function of management and determines an organization's direction. It is a rational and systematic way of making decisions today that will affect the future of the company. It involves the process of ascertaining organizational goals and objectives and deciding on activities to attain these objectives. It is also a process of preparing for change and coping with uncertainty by formulating future courses of action. Planning is particularly important because of scarce resources and uncertain environments with a fierce competition for these resources.

Behavioural characteristics and processes are closely connected to the process of planning. For example, perception plays an important role in scanning and assessing the environment and making intuitional judgements about the future. Similarly, determination of goals and formulation of strategies for achieving such goals reflect some degree of motivation and creativity.

Organizing   Organizing requires a formal structure of authority and the direction and flow of such authority through which work sub-divisions are defined, arranged and coordinated. Each part relates to other parts in a united and coherent manner so as to attain the prescribed objectives. The function of organizing is primarily concerned with:

   (a) identifying the tasks that must be performed and grouping these tasks wherever necessary.

   (b) assigning these tasks to personnel while defining their authority and responsibility.

   (c) delegating the necessary authority to these employees.

   (d) establishing a relationship between such authority and responsibility.

   (e) coordinating all these activities.

The entire process of organizing and coordinating the various activities requires an understanding of human behaviour and group dynamics that are integral parts of organizational behaviour.

Directing   The directing function is concerned with leadership, communication, motivation and supervision so that the employees perform their activities in the most efficient manner possible in order to achieve the desired goals. The leadership element involves issuing of instructions and guiding the subordinates about procedures and

methods in a manner so that the employees follow willingly and with enthusiasm. The communication must be open both ways so that the information can be passed on to the subordinates and the feedback received from them. Motivation is very important, since highly motivated people show excellent performance with less direction from superiors. Supervising subordinates in a friendly but firm manner would give continuous progress reports as well as assure superiors that directions are being properly carried out. All components of the function of leading are important ingredients of organizational behaviour.

Controlling   The function of control consists of those activities that are undertaken to ensure that the events do not deviate from the pre-arranged plans. The activities consist of establishing standards for work performance, measuring performance and comparing it to these set standards and taking corrective actions as and when needed to correct any deviations. Again behavioural processes and characteristics are embedded in this function since control involves performance evaluation, reward and recognition systems and motivation.

Managerial Skills

A skill is an acquired and learned ability to translate knowledge into performance. It is competency that allows for performance to be superior in the field in which the worker has the required skill. All managers need to possess technical, interpersonal, conceptual, diagnostic, communicational and political skills. While technical and diagnostic skills refer to the knowledge and ability of understanding the processes involved and scientifically analyzing problems and opportunities, all other skills deal with people in one form or the other and hence contribute to the understanding of organizational behaviour. These various skills are:

Technical skills   Technical skills basically involve the use of knowledge, methods and techniques in performing a job effectively. For example, engineers, accountants, computer programmers and analysts have technical skills in their areas acquired through education and training. This is a specialized knowledge and expertise that is used in day-to-day problems and activities. This skill is highly necessary at the lower level of management and desirable at the middle management levels, and even the top level management requires some technical skills such as preparing a budget or laying out a production schedule.

Interpersonal skills   Interpersonal skill is the ability to work with other people amicably. It involves patience, trust and genuine involvement in interpersonal relationships. It is the ability to lead and motivate and effectively interact with others. This will create an environment in which the workers work together as a team with a sense of belonging and dedication and this is truly conducive to high morale that is necessary for organizational success.

Conceptual skills   Conceptual skill is the ability to view the organization as a whole and as a total entity as well as a system comprised of various parts and subsystems integrated into a single unit. This skill generally depends upon an organized thinking process that deals with understanding of various functions of an organization, their interdependence and the relationship of the organization with the outside environment in terms of threats and opportunities. This skill is particularly needed at the top level management because the executive managers have continuous contact with the outside world.

Diagnostic skills   Diagnostic skill refers to a manager's analytical ability where he can logically and objectively investigate and analyze a problem or an opportunity and use scientific approaches to arrive at a feasible and optimal solution. It is important however

that a manager gets to the root cause of the problem so that the solution is real and permanent rather than simply a cosmetic one. This skill overlaps with other skills because a manager may need to use technical, human, conceptual or political skills to solve the problem that has been diagnosed.

Communicational skills   Communication skills are basic to all other skills and are important at all levels of management. A manager's best ideas will have little impact if they cannot be communicated effectively. Good communication is the foundation of sound management. Proper communication eliminates delays, misunderstandings, confusion, distortions and conflicts and improves coordination and control. The 10 managerial roles as discussed earlier are based upon the premise that managers possess writing, verbal and non-verbal communicational skills. Accordingly, communicational skill plays an important role in all walks of human life as well as organizational life.

Political skills   Political skills can be described as the ability to get your own way without seeming to be selfish or self-oriented. It is the ability to get your share of power and authority and use it without fear of losing it. It is the most complex skill in the sense that it is required to establish the right connections and impressing the right people and then skilfully using these connections to your own advantage. Political skill is most important at the middle management level because middle managers always aspire to reach the top levels of management.

1.4   MANAGERIAL NETWORKS

Managers maintain a complex set of inter-relationships with persons both within and outside the organization. Strength and weakness are relative terms. Resources available in plenty may appear to be a strength but if not utilized may cease to be strength. Corporate strength is a competitive advantage and through other competencies, a company may exert change mechanisms in a industry. A corporate weakness refers to constraints or hindrances that tend to stop movement of a company in certain directions decided as strategic directions for the company and also inhibit a company to achieve core competencies.

- SWOT analysis develops a framework, based on logic that helps in systematic and step-by-step discussion of a business situation, alternative strategies, and selection of a strategy. A systematic SWOT analysis crosses all the functions of a company and thus covers all the aspects of an organization.
- Based on SWOT analysis, it is possible to compare the external threats and opportunities faced by a company with internal key strengths and weaknesses in an organized way.

The business managers must be responsible to every one who is either directly involved in the organizational activities or is affected by such activities. The internal environment of a manager has both vertical as well as lateral relationships. The vertical relationships involve various superiors and subordinates and lateral relationships involve peers and co-workers. The external environment involves many groups and forces who have some vested interest or claim or effect on management. These groups and forces can be divided into two categories. One category includes those forces that have a direct influence on the organization. The second category consists of indirect environmental forces. These various environments are:

Internal environment   A manager is continuously interacting with his subordinates and superiors as well as his peers and co-workers. He also acts as a liaison between the subordinates and superiors. Most of a manager's time is spent in guiding, informing, interacting and supervising his immediate subordinates.

Check Your Progress

1. What are the various managerial functions
2. Explain various managerial skills.

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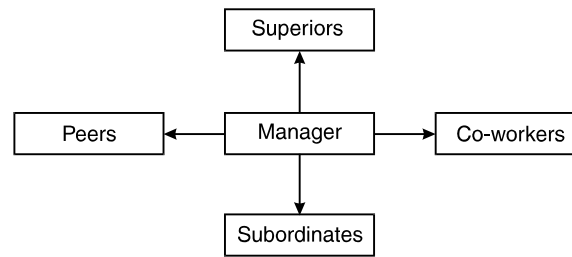
Furthermore, since he is also responsible for the acts of all subordinates below his level, his relationship with his subordinates extends down to their subordinates and so on. Similarly, the manager interacts with his immediate superior and other top level management executives in providing them with operational reports and learning from them any changes in policies or procedures.

The manager is continuously establishing and maintaining lateral relationship with his peers and co-workers and these relationships may be formal or informal in nature as against his vertical relationships with his superiors and subordinates that are always formal. According to John P. Kotter,[5] general managers usually "allocate significant time and effort when they first take their jobs to developing a network of cooperative relationships among those people they feel are needed to satisfy their emerging agendas." Once they are established in their positions, they make use of these networks to enhance their agendas and programmes.

External environment   All organizations are affected by various external environmental forces that may or may not be controlled by the management. Any organization as an open system is intertwined with the outside world. In order for any organization to survive and succeed, it must deal with and adapt to changes in its environment. According to Alvar Elbing,[6] "The external environment of an organization is a subject of increasing challenge for today's managers. In fact managers of societies' major organizations—business, education, government—have been forced by recent events to place an increasing focus on a rapidly changing environment and its effect on the internal organization".

The external environmental forces fall into two categories. First there are direct environmental forces that exert a more specific impact on the organization and are in turn affected by the organization's operations. These forces include customers, suppliers, competitors, labour market and regulatory agencies. Second are the indirect forces that may not have an immediate direct effect on operations, but do influence the organizations in an indirect way and may affect an organization's goals and strategies. The five major indirect environmental forces are economic, social/cultural, political/legal, technological and international. Both the direct and indirect environmental forces are described in more detail:

1.5   DIRECT ENVIRONMENTAL FORCES

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          │  Regulatory   │      │ Competitors │     │ Customers  │
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          │   Labour      │                        │ Suppliers  │
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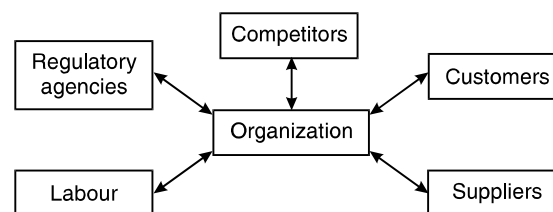
Customers   The basic reason for the existence of any business organization is making profits and the profits are created by customers. Hence fulfilling the needs of the

customers is an organization's primary concern. Accordingly, an organization must continuously monitor the consumer environment in terms of any changes in customers' needs or preferences. Managers must also recognize certain buying preferences as passing fads and plan accordingly. An example of such fads may be the Nehru jacket or the designer jeans.

The customers expect a quality product at a reasonable price with guaranteed satisfaction. Accordingly, it is the management's responsibility to see that the interests of consumers are protected. "The customer is always right" has proved to be a good policy for initiating sales and keeping the customer.

Competitors Competition is the basic element of a free enterprise system. The interest of both the organization and the customers are better served when choices in the market are available. Competition encourages progress and product developments. It forces organizations to be more innovative and productive. For example, in 1955 Harley-Davidson held nearly 70% of the US motorcycle market, but by 1983, this share had been reduced to only 3.7%. This steep decline can be attributed to aggressive competition by Japanese companies such as Honda, Yamaha, Suzuki and Kawasaki, who invaded the market with redesigned products and highly effective marketing strategies. Harley-Davidson failed to envision the strong impact of effective competition.

It is important to recognize that the area of competition is not limited to customers only but it extends to competition for all scarce resources such as raw materials, capital and human resources. Thus management must continuously look for cheaper but quality substitutes for raw materials and must acquire and retain an effective and dedicated workforce by offering good working environment and providing motivation for self-actualization goals.

Regulatory agencies Regulatory agencies are created by local, state and federal government for the purpose of ensuring that organizations operate within the enacted laws. In the United States these agencies enforce laws in their respective fields and also introduce some of their own requirements that can be legally enforced. These agencies regulate the activities of organizations in five principal areas. These are: consumer protection, investor protection, environmental laws, preservation of free market competition and labour conditions. The Consumer Products Safety Commission (CPSC) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) protect the interests of consumers. Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) establishes how public companies must conduct financial and accounting practices and protects investors from illegal securities activities. Various antitrust laws are established to foster free competition and to discourage monopolization of markets. There are many laws protecting the interests of workers. These include equal employment opportunity, affirmative action, the right to work in relatively safe and healthy environment, via Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) regulations. Similarly, Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) protects the environment from being polluted by business organizations in terms of air pollution, water pollution and dumping of chemically hazardous wastes.

Labour There is a very keen competition for qualified personnel and an organization needs the right mix of workers in order to survive and prosper. Accordingly, an organization must create and enhance an image of its environment that is conducive to attracting skilled and ambitious workers. Furthermore, it is necessary for the organization to establish such training programmes that help in developing future managers and leaders. Human resources are the most important resources for any organization because without the skilled people, the sophisticated technology, capital and material are of little value. Accordingly, supply of labour directly affects the successful operations of an organization.

Suppliers Since all organizations transform inputs of materials, equipment, energy, capital and labour into outputs of products and services, an organization must interact with a network of suppliers from whom these inputs are obtained. This interaction is mutual and two-way. Just as an organization is interested that its suppliers maintain the

quality of the materials that it buys from them, the suppliers are equally interested that the buyer organization brings out quality output. Thus the buyers and sellers are inter-acting continuously to maintain such standards. Since quality and costs of raw materials determine whether the output product can meet the quality standards of a competitive market, many organizations look for suppliers from foreign resources that might provide advantages in price, quality or quantity.

1.6   INDIRECT ENVIRONMENT FORCES
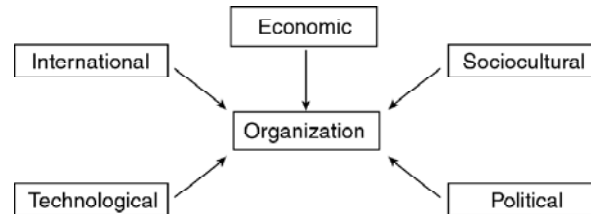
Economic forces   The general national and global economic conditions do not have a direct and immediate effect on the operations of an organization, but in general, they do have an indirect impact. Organizations respond to periods of economic growth or recession in different ways. During prosperous times, organizational expansion is more likely and during times of recession there is retrenchment in operations and personnel. Economic forces are measured by GDP, rate of inflation, rate of unemployment and so on. Hence management must continuously monitor and assess the general economic environment, both at the present time as well as possible changes in such environment in the future.

Sociocultural factors   Social and cultural practices and changes including the prevailing attitudes, values and ethics influence the organization. Management must continue to monitor the changing patterns of social thinking. For example, the work force is becoming more educated and more women are joining the ranks of both blue collar and white collar workers. Accordingly, the generally accepted stereotype role of women being poor risks or less competent as managers must be radically revised. American businesses are tending more towards participative style of management with more autonomy for workers rather than the traditional authoritarian relationships. More and more workers are accepting jobs that offer more flexibility, challenge, freedom and self-esteem. This has prompted many organizations to improve the quality of working life. From the point of view of organizational behaviour, this has led to team work, dedication, organizational loyalty, sense of belonging and motivation to improve performance.

Political factors   As we have discussed before, regulatory agencies and legislation have direct impact on business practices. Hence the philosophy of business thinking on the part of elected officials have an indirect influence on the organization. Accordingly, many organizations have lobbyists working on their behalf at influencing legislators to either pass or defeat certain business oriented legislation depending upon whether it helps or hurts the organization. For example, during President Reagan's term in office as President of the United States, the political environment was pro-business that resulted in tax breaks for businesses as well as deregulation of transportation, telecommunications, banking industries and so on.

For multinational organizations, it is very important to monitor the political stability in the host countries because business policies may change with the sudden and unexpected change in the government.

Technological factors   We are living through the most dynamic organizational environment where technological advancements and breakthroughs are a continuously occurring phenomenon. Accordingly, organizations must be able to respond quickly to

new developments and create innovations of their own. Some of the more recent major technological developments that had a profound impact on most organizations and society in general are the advent of high speed computers, lasers, microwave, robotics, satellite communications, nuclear power, gene splicing and so on. Accordingly, organizations must be adaptable to new technologies and it is relevant from behavioural point of view in that man learns to get more out of machines and thus, is in control of the environment.

International forces Organizations that operate in more than one country, face even more complex scenario's because of the uniqueness of environmental factors that characterize any country. Even if an organization is not international, events in another country can affect the operations of a domestic company. The oil policies of Middle East countries practically dictate the operations of many organizations in other countries that depend on oil as their main source of energy. Some of the factors to be taken into account in case of multinational companies are the economic conditions in the host country, culture, availability of materials and manpower, laws, political stability, regulatory agencies and so on. As one group of writers states,[7] "The firm must determine how the new environment differs from the more familiar domestic environment and decide how managerial philosophy and practice must be changed."

The Field of Organizational Behaviour

The study and understanding of human behaviour has posed a strong challenge to both the scientific thinkers as well as behaviourists. They have long been interested in finding out the causes of human behaviour. Science has always been involved in the "cause" and "effect" phenomenon and the relationship between them as to how a "cause" causes its "effect." Similarly, the behaviour scientists want to find out why people behave the way they do. They want to find a common denominator of human behaviour that can be generalized and classified into standard causes that result into identifiable and functionally dependent patters of behaviour. By discovering and analyzing these causes, the behaviour can be predicted, manipulated and controlled.

Organizational behaviour is concerned with people's thoughts, feelings, emotions and actions in a work setting. Understanding an individual behaviour is in itself a challenge, but understanding group behaviour in an organizational environment is a monumental managerial task.

As Nadler and Tushman put it:

> Understanding one individual's behaviour is challenging in and of itself; understanding a group that is made up of different individuals and comprehending the many relationships among those individuals is even more complex. Imagine, then, the mind-boggling complexity of a large organization made up of thousands of individuals and hundreds of groups with myriad relationships among these individuals and groups..... Ultimately, the organization's work gets done through people, individually or collectively, on their own or in collaboration with technology. Therefore, the management of organizational behaviour is central to the management task—a task that involves the capacity to "understand" the behaviour pattern of individuals, groups and organizations, to "predict" what behavioural responses will be elicited by various managerial actions and finally to use this understanding and these predictions to achieve control.[8]

Organizational behaviour can then be defined as "the study of human behaviour in organizational settings, the interface between human behaviour and the organizational context, and the organization itself."[9]

The above definition has three facets—the individual behaviour, the organization and the interface between the two. Each individual brings to an organization a unique set of beliefs, values, attitudes and other personal characteristics and these characteristics of

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Check Your Progress

3. What are the various indirect environmental forces affecting an organization?
4. Define regulatory agencies.

all individuals must interact with each other in order to create an organizational setting. The organizational behaviour is specifically concerned with work-related behaviour that takes place in organizations. Organizational behaviour is a synthesis of many other fields of study and is built upon contributions from a number of behavioural disciplines. The predominant area of psychology is concerned with the study of individual behaviour. Other behavioural disciplines affect the group dynamics and the organizational system. The interdisciplinary influences on organizational behaviour are shown as follows:
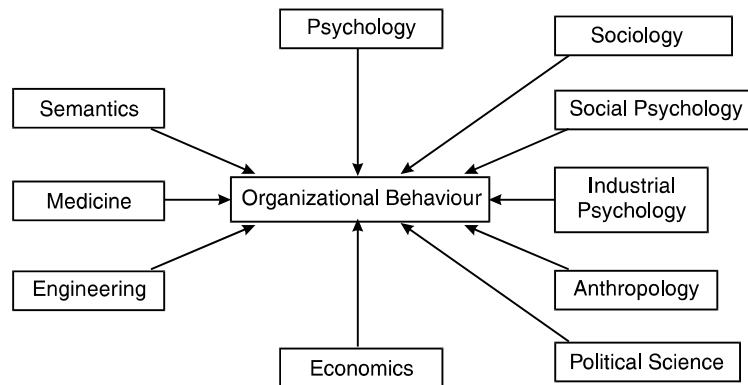
Psychology   Psychology is a science that seeks to study, understand, measure, explain and possibly change the behaviour of humans. Relative to organizational environment, it assists in understanding motivation at work, individual and interpersonal perceptions, functioning of personality, effects of training, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction and attitude measurement. It also studies such behaviour patterns as fatigue, boredom and monotony that impede efficient work performance. It also studies methodologies for behaviour modification, so as to facilitate repetition of desirable behaviours.

Sociology   Sociology, as a science, has a major impact on the field of organizational behaviour. It involves the study of social systems in which individuals exercise their social roles in relation to their fellow human beings, be it within the family or within the organization. Some of the organizational processes considered are group dynamics, organizational structure, bureaucracy, power and conflict.

Social psychology   While psychology deals with individual behaviour, and sociology deals with group behaviour, the social psychology examines interpersonal behaviour. The social psychologists are concerned with inter-group collaboration, group decision making and integration of individual needs with group activities. Another area under investigation by social scientists is the effect of "change" on individuals and how people adjust to "change" both in individual and group context.

Industrial psychology   Industrial psychology helps to understand the individual reactions to industrial environment. It involves selection and placement of individuals into particular jobs through psychological tests, study of mental health as affected by physical industrial environment, impact of organizational structure on human performance and the types of jobs affecting safety and morale of workers.

Anthropology   Anthropology primarily studies the cultural impact on individual behaviour. It is our cultural heritage that builds our value system and our sense of right and wrong that in turn affects our norms of acceptable behaviour. The differences in behaviour under the same set of circumstances can be traced to cultural upbringing and the values learned in the cultural environment. Thus the behaviour, to some degree, can be predicted on the basis of cultural generalities.

Political science   Political Science, even though considered as the study of political systems, has many ingredients that directly affect human behaviour in organizations since politics dominates every organization to some degree. Many themes of interest directly related to organizational behaviours are political manipulation, allocation of

power, conflict and conflict resolution, coalition for power and self-interest enhancement.

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. Organizational behaviour 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.

Engineering Engineering, especially the industrial engineering branch, has contributed significantly in the areas of time and motion study, work measurement, work flow analysis, job design and wage and salary administration. Each of these areas has some impact on organizational behaviour.

Medicine is perhaps the newest field affecting organizational behaviour. 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 an area of study within the organizational setting.

Semantics Semantics, one of the more recent disciplines, helps in the study of communications within the organization. Misunderstood and misdirectred communication or simply lack of communication creates many behavioural problems. Accordingly, total, right and properly understood communication is very important in effective and efficient performance as per directives.

1.7 RELEVANCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR IN TODAY'S BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

According to Jeffery Pfeffer, a Stanford scholar, "people are an organization's most important assets." Similarly, Thomas J. Watson, founder of IBM said, "you can get capital and erect buildings, but it takes people to build a business. This idea of people being the most important assets of any organization, was reinforced by Alfred P. Sloan, who was primarily responsible for bringing General Motors (GM) where it is today, when he said, "Take my assets but leave me my organization and in five years, I will have it all back."

People in organizations today are a part of a new era. High work performance and high quality of work life go hand in hand. The entire world has changed significantly in the last few decades. Ethics and social responsibility have become the core values of organizational growth. Management of diversity is gaining a lot of attention in academics due to wide variety of cultural differences in the work force. Globalization is leaving its imprints on every day living and organizational competitiveness. The landscape of management is continuously being reshaped. New evolving technologies, knowledge management, intellectual capital, e-business and so on are becoming integrated into the world of work. Lean organizations, learning organizations, core competencies, participative decision making, total quality management (TQM) are the hall marks of evolving organizations.

The last decade of the 20th century was especially dramatic in revolutionary changes, in both the pace and the nature of such changes. Intense global competition resulting in outsourcing of jobs both in manufacturing as well as in service industries, highly interdependent international economies, shifting population demographics and new organizational structures and constant emerging information technologies have resulted in a different world order. People in the organizations, both at the working level as well as managerial level, have to adjust their behaviour to meet these evolving and dynamic challenges.

Organizational behaviour is the study of people and their behaviour in work settings. It is about people who work and pursue careers in today's highly demanding work environment. They also have to prepare themselves for future changes and challenges that are not always predictable.

The business environment in India has also changed drastically in the last few years. The movement is towards more participative management and the focus is on people in the organization in terms of quality of life and quality of living rather than just productivity. Quality of life deals with the physical comforts that a good and secure job brings and quality of living deals with respect for decency, ethics and general goodness that are inherent in human beings. A happy work life spills over to a happy family life, which is the backbone of a stable society.

A major change in the work place in India is the emergence of dual career families, where the husband and wife both work to have a better quality of life. While in the West, dual career families are taken for granted, it is comparatively a new phenomenon in India. Where, traditionally, a wife's role has been primarily that of a housewife and a mother. The stress of work life, especially for woman workers at the lower and middle level of management, who have to balance work and home roles, affects the family life and that is one reason why the divorce rate in India is steadily climbing and the nuclear family structure is slowly breaking.

Organizational Behaviour Trends

In today's business environment, focus is shifting from written contracts regarding observance of rules, policies, procedures and productivity to what some scholars call it as a "psychological contract." A psychological contract is based on the expectations of the organization from the workers and the expectations of the workers from the organization. The organizations expect the worker to put in his best efforts to achieve the goals of the organization, put organizational interests ahead of personal interests and develop organizational loyalty. The worker expects to be treated as a family member, be given challenging opportunities and be rewarded for excellence. This psychological contract develops rapport between the worker and the organization.

There are five challenges that have a direct impact on the field of organizational behaviour. They are as follows:

1. *Globalization:* Globalization refers to economic, social and cultural connectivity with the people in all parts of the world. Practically, all the call centers in India are connected with companies that are based primarily in America. Majority of the companies are becoming multinational and are interacting with people from different countries and of different cultures. It opens up new horizons, new career opportunities and provides a greater appreciation of diverse needs and perspectives. It is also one of the increased sources of competitive pressures. These pressures quite often, reduce job security, increase work intensification and demand more work flexibility from employees. In terms of organizational behaviour, scholars are paying more attention to cross-cultural differences. These differences also focus on the success of companies because the best run companies may not be in America but may be in India, Brazil or Germany. This could lead to study of organizational behaviour on the basis of cultures.

2. *Informational technology:* The Internet and other forms of information technology are changing our lives. They are allowing small companies in developing countries to compete in the global market. It redesigns company structures and reshapes the dynamics of organizational power and politics and creates new standards for competitive advantage through knowledge management. Telecommunications and video conferencing have changed the landscape of official meetings and activities. Telecommuting is becoming popular as a work activity where people work from home or remote places. This is considered to be more time effective, as people

save a lot of time in commuting to work. Information technology also facilitates the development of virtual teams. Virtual teams are cross-functional groups that operate across space, time and organizational boundaries. The members of the teams communicate mainly through information resources. Virtual teams are similar in dynamics to local teams, but they require different strategies to build trust and deal with members, because they are not located at the same physical location. It also calls for unique leadership skills as there is no face-to-face communication which would affect the degree of effectiveness and persuasiveness.

3. *The changing workforce:* The managers no longer manage a homogeneous workforce. The workforce of America includes people from different gender, ethnic and racial backgrounds, cultures and national origins and mental and physical disabilities. The demography of workforce is changing and will continue to change. Management has to face the challenge of bringing people of different backgrounds, cultures and values into cohesive work teams.

India is also becoming a more mobile country, where workers from Punjab are employed in the textile mills of Gujrat and Bengalis are employed in the power plants of Madhya Pradesh. Most of the farm workers in Punjab are from Bihar. More and more women are joining the workforce. Management is learning to cope with different cultural values of workers from various provinces within the country. These issues emerge as challenges for organizational behaviour theorists and practitioners.

4. *New employment relationships:* The employees face increasing turbulence in their work and employment relationships due to mergers, corporate restructuring and privatization of government managed industries in some of the countries. Accordingly, they have to continuously learn new skills and develop new competencies, which will keep them employed. This is already happening in Japan where lifetime employment practices are being replaced by more performance-oriented arrangements. More and more workers are becoming contingent workers, where contingent work includes any job in which the individual does not have explicit or implicit contract for long-term employment. Contingent work has increased in recent years because companies want greater flexibility in terms of the number of people employed. Contingent workers are also known as free agents, who possess valued competencies and are unwilling to get stuck with any one company. It is estimated that 15 percent of workforce in America are contingent workers.

5. *Values and ethics:* Values represent stable, long-term beliefs about what is important and right in a variety of situations that guide our decisions and actions. They dictate our priorities, our preferences and our desires. Values, when observed, serve as powerful motivators to keep the workers aligned with organizational goals. They provide a direction for employee behaviour as expected by the organizational philosophy. Globalization has added another factor in that people from different cultures and different values do not deviate from the central philosophical values established by the organization.

Ethics refer to the study of moral principles that determine whether actions are right or wrong as judged by the societal norms and values. Adherence to such moral values lead to what is known as "corporate social responsibility (CSR)." CSR refers to an organization's moral obligations towards all its stakeholders. Stakeholders are the shareholders, customers, suppliers, government and any other group that has a vested interest in the organization. Nearly two-thirds of 1000 chief executive officers surveyed around the world said corporate social responsibility was vital to the profitability of any organization.

These new trends and new challenges are changing the face of organizational behaviour as study of people in work settings. New avenues are being continuously explored to make

sure that in spite of various backgrounds of workers across the globe, their core values are consistent with the organizational philosophy especially for multinational and transnational corporations.

1.8 SUMMARY

The success of any organization primarily depends upon how good the management of the organization is and the effectiveness of management depends primarily on its human skills and how well it understands the human needs and desires.

The field of organizational behaviour deals with the study of human behaviour within work settings and the interface between human behaviour, group behaviour and the organization itself, where an organization is defined as a "social invention for accomplishing goals through group efforts."

The importance of organizational behaviour stems from its relevance to the human context of managerial work environment. All the ten roles of a manager as described by Henry Mintzberg deal with human aspect in one form or the other. Similarly, the four functions of management - planning, organizing, directing and controlling—deal with people as groups in the form of organizations, people as resources and people as individual human beings.

A managerial network consists of forces and interactions within the internal environment of organizations, as well as the external systems with which an organization is interconnected. The internal environment of a manager has both vertical as well as lateral components. The vertical relationships involve various superiors and subordinates and lateral relationships involve peers and co-workers. The external environment of a manager consists of forces that directly affect the operations of the organization and other environmental forces that have an indirect effect on the organizations. The direct environmental forces are generated by competitors, customers, suppliers, labour and labour unions and other governmental or social regulatory agencies. The indirect environmental forces are economic, socio-cultural, political, technological and global in nature. The organization cannot survive without being involved in some form of input from these sources or output to these sources.

The field of organizational behaviour is relatively new as far as an organized and analytical investigation of the field is concerned but it has provoked considerable interest and challenge to not only management and behavioural scientists but also to many other investigators in interdisciplinary fields. These interdisciplinary fields are: Psychology, Sociology, Social Psychology, Industrial Psychology, Anthropology, Political Science, Economics, Engineering, Medicine and Semantics. Each one of these fields has some input into the study of organizational behaviour.

The book is organized according to the concepts of organizational behaviour and is divided into four parts. The first part involves general introductory concept of organizations, managers in organizations and basic approaches to the study of organizational behaviour. The second part deals with the individual in the organization. The third part deals with individual - organization interface and group behaviour and finally, the last part deals with the organizational structure and design and dynamics of organizational change.

1.9 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. How would you differentiate between "good management" and "bad management"? Identify some of the characteristics that are an integral part of effective management.

2. Why are organizations called "social inventions"? Why are the people in the organizations more important than the capital, equipment or buildings?

3. Describe various roles of a manager as proposed by Henry Mintzberg. Which of these roles are more important from organizational behaviour point of view?

4. There are four major functions of management, namely, planning, organizing, directing and controlling. Which function of these is more human oriented? How would these functions be relevant to the functioning of the president of a college?

5. It is said that the external environmental forces, both direct as well as indirect, are least controllable by the management of an organization. However by proper and scientific forecasting and analysis, some of these forces can be reasonably manipulated. Describe some of these external factors over which management can exercise some control.

6. Organizational behaviour is concerned with people's thoughts, feelings, emotions and actions in a work setting. Explain how a person's behaviour at home and in society affects his behaviour in organizational environment.

7. Human behaviour is built on contributions from many different types of disciplines. Explain how the current trends and developments in medicine and engineering affect human behaviour.

8. Differentiate between the fields of psychology, social psychology and industrial psychology.

9. How do the fields of sociology and anthropology contribute in the development of human beliefs, values and attitudes?

1.10 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The various managerial functions are planning, organizing, leading and controlling.

2. The various managerial skills are:

   Technical skills Technical skills basically involve the use of knowledge, methods and techniques in performing a job effectively. For example, engineers, accountants, computer programmers and analysts have technical skills in their areas acquired through education and training.

   Interpersonal skills Interpersonal skill is the ability to work with other people amicably. It involves patience, trust and genuine involvement in interpersonal relationships. It is the ability to lead and motivate and effectively interact with others.

   Conceptual skills Conceptual skill is the ability to view the organization as a whole and as a total entity as well as a system comprised of various parts and subsystems integrated into a single unit.

   Diagnostic skills Diagnostic skill refers to a manager's analytical ability where he can logically and objectively investigate and analyze a problem or an opportunity and use scientific approaches to arrive at a feasible and optimal solution.

   Communicational skills Communication skills are basic to all other skills and are important at all levels of management. A manager's best ideas will have little impact if they cannot be communicated effectively.

   Political skills Political skills can be described as the ability to get your own way without seeming to be selfish or self-oriented. It is the ability to get your share of power and authority and use it without fear of losing it.

3. The five major indirect environmental forces are economic, social/cultural, political/legal, technological and international.

4. **Regulatory agencies** Regulatory agencies are created by local, state and federal government for the purpose of ensuring that organizations operate within the enacted laws. In the united states these agencies enforce laws in their respective fields and also introduce some of their own requirements that can be legally enforced. These agencies

regulate the activities of organizations in five principal areas. These are: consumer protection, investor protection, environmental laws, preservation of free market competition and labour conditions.

1.11 FURTHER READING

1. Johns, Gary, *Organizational Behavior: Understanding Life at Work*, Scott Foresman and Company.

2. Mintzberg, Henry, *The Nature of Managerial Work*, Harper & Row.

CASE STUDY

Girl Scouts of America*

Girl Scouts of America, a non-profit organization, dedicated to meet and guide the developmental needs of young girls, was founded by Mrs. Juliette Low in 1912. Mrs. Low became friendly with Lord Baden Powell, the founder of Boy Scouts in England and based upon his philosophy, Mrs. Low founded the American unit for girls with only eight young girls. Today, this organization has expanded into nearly 3 million members across the country. There are more than 300 local councils. Each council is autonomous with its own board of directors, president and other staff members involved with areas of community interest as fund raising, training and community relations.

However, each council interacts heavily with the national organization. The national organization provides training for scout leaders and in consultation with the local chapters, formulates long range plans and strategic policies. Plans and policies involve identification of such activities that respond to the fast changing social environment and the roles of young women in such environment. Scout leader training involves leadership and communicational skills and team work involvement. Council staff are given training relating to financial management, fund raising and community involvement.

Peter Drucker once noted that the Girl Scouts organization was one of the best managed organizations in America. It is considered to be the largest voluntary organization for girls in the world and is involved in a variety of activities that are unique to girls including cooking, camping, home making and health care.

Girl Scout membership is divided into 5 categories. These are: (1) Daisy Scouts, (2) Brownies, (3) Juniors, (4) Cadets, and (5) Seniors. Daisy Scouts group includes pre-school girls and was started in 1984 in response to growing number of mothers joining the work force. Brownies are the girl scouts between first and third grades in elementary schools. The Brownies become Juniors when they enter the fourth grade. Brownies and Juniors account for about 90% of total non-adult membership. Senior scouts are the girls from senior high schools. Activities are designed with respect to the needs of girls in each category.

The local councils, as well as the national organization, rely heavily on volunteers for their operations even though they do hire some paid employees. The training for volunteer girl scout leaders is mandatory and involves a general orientation to the Girl Scouts as an organization, the various activities of girl scouts and learning of leadership skills necessary in dealing with each girl scout category. A major aspect of leader training is to encourage their troops to behave responsibly and take responsibility for the outcomes of their own decisions and actions. This teaches self-reliance and self-respect to the girls.

Being a not-for-profit organization, its activities are supported by private donations, membership fees, cookie sales and other charities. Their planning and operational style is sometimes envied and followed both by other profit as well as non-profit organizations.

Questions

1. Why is Girl Scouts of America considered as one of the best managed organization?
2. What managerial functions and roles are most prominent in the activities of this organization?
3. How does this organization relate to the field of organizational behaviour? What are the types of interdisciplinary forces that affect the operations of the organization?
4. How does the management of this organization interact with the external environment, if any?

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* This case is based upon "Girl Scout Handbook", published by Girl Scout National Headquarters, 1944 and "Training for Chaning Times at the Girl Scouts", published in "Training", April 1986, pp. 61–63.

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UNIT 2   APPROACHES TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Structure

2.0   INTRODUCTION

Organizational behaviour is a relatively new area of study and research and even though its importance was understood at the same time as that of scientific management proposed by Fredrick Taylor, it emerged as a distinct area of academic and managerial specialization in the late 1950s and early 1960s. There came about a growing awareness that all managerial problems were not technical in nature and that productivity and organizational effectiveness did not depend entirely on the mechanical processes. This awareness focussed on the philosophy that behavioural and social processes have significant impact on the workers in the work place and that an understanding and predictability of human behaviour could help managers make their organizations more effective. Hence, the emphasis shifted to social sciences as well as to psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists and others who had been studying management problems from behavioural perspective and trying to develop a valid and unified body of knowledge concerning organizational behaviour.

2.1   UNIT OBJECTIVES

- To define an organization
- To understand the historical development of the field of management and organizational behaviour
- To differentiate between scientific and behavioural approaches to management
- To look into contingency approach to management as a function of the uniqueness of the situation
- To understand the terms and symbols used in organized research
- To describe the various types of research designs and methodologies
- To compare the validity and usefulness of the different research techniques

2.2 A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The application of behaviour theory perhaps occurred when human beings organized themselves into family units and when the principle of division of labour was probably applied to improve the chances of family survival as a unit. The concept of family itself required that life be organized and resources of food be apportioned in a manner so as to maximize their usefulness. Taking proper steps to safeguard the family from attacks by wild animals, planning on where to go hunting and whom to go with are all subtle ingredients of management, group dynamics and organizational behaviour. Specialized roles were assigned to individuals who were best able to perform them. This belief suggests the likelihood that gender oriented behaviours emerged in response to certain biological and sociological necessities. While women stayed back to look after and raise the children, men took the role of hunting and providing food and other necessities for the family.

The problems of effectively managing people, which involve some aspect of human and organizational behaviour, have been perennial and the early recorded history shows the application of some management techniques as far back as 5,000 BC when the ancient Sumarians used written records in assisting governmental operations. The Egyptian pyramids built as early as 3,000 BC required the organized efforts of nearly 100,000 people. It would be natural to assume that all functions of modern management such as planning, organizing, directing and controlling, played a heavy and coordinated role in the construction of these monuments, where each pyramid covering 13 acres required 2.3 million blocks, each block weighing approximately 2.5 tons. At about the same time, written evidence is available relating to a deliberate concern about managing workers' behaviour and the importance of specialization of labour and hierarchy of authority. These accounts have been provided by Chinese and Mesopotamians between 3,000 and 4,000 BC.[1] In the subsequent years, some of the recorded examples of managerial skills are the highly sophisticated cities of Mohanjodaro in India and the palaces of Assur and Babylon. The writings of Socretes and Plato discuss the universality of management and specialization. Alexander the Great used a staff organization extensively in his military conquests from 336 BC to 323 BC. The Roman Empire showed an outstanding expertise in general administration, political, military and judicial judgement issues, using communications and centralized control.[2]

History does not provide any clear evidence of any further developments in managerial skills or organizational behaviour until the time of Nicolo Machiavelli, an Italian philosopher and political advisor in the early sixteenth century. Machiavelli (1469–1527) recognized the necessity of political effectiveness without any regards for ethics and morality of operations. He endorsed such philosophy as "ends justify the means" that may be considered as ethically questionable. He was a political realist and has been sometimes called the ultimate pragmatist. His views are significant in the sense that even today, management has only the profitability of the organization in mind and uses whatever political maneuverability is necessary to achieve this goal. The field of organizational behaviour becomes important in this respect because the study of human and worker behaviour is meant to give the management tools for predicting and controlling such behaviour.

An organized development of economic science and management as distinct disciplines began around the beginning of the eighteenth century when there was a movement from the cottage (where production of items were limited to family living and working quarters) to the factory system (where products are produced in a centralized location) and this gave birth to the Industrial Revolution in Europe and especially in England. The Industrial Revolution changed the entire behaviour of the civilized world. Adam Smith is known to have established the management principles in the area of division of labour and specialization in 1776.[3]

Before the advent of scientific management popularized by Fredrick W. Taylor, that put emphasis on productivity in the early 1900s, many management scholars recognized the role and input of workers in the management process. For example, Robert Owen (1771–1858) believed that the returns from investment in human resources would be far superior to the investment in machinery and equipment. He believed that the workers should work because they want to work and not because they have to work. This concept is the fundamental thinking behind the study of organizational behaviour. He believed that the manager should take the worker into his confidence and should not only tell him what is expected of him but also why, because an enlightened worker is a better worker. Similarly, Charles Babbage (1792–1871) believed in the importance of human factor and suggested that the interests of employees and management are closely linked and further advocated the idea of profit sharing and participative decision- making. Even though he was, perhaps, the first to propose that decisions be based upon investigation and accurate knowledge and pioneered the use of quantitative methods and industrial engineering techniques in order to maximize productivity, his ideas were based upon an intelligent organization of workers with worker participation and this could be considered as a prelude to the development of behavioural approach to management.

2.3 SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

The scientific management school is primarily attributed to the ideas and works of Fredrick W. Taylor, who is known as "the father of scientific management." He called for a careful analysis of tasks and offered four principles as basis for scientific management. These principles are:[4]

1. Every job should be broken into its elements and a scientific method to perform each element should be established.
2. Workers should be scientifically selected with right attitudes for the job and ability and then properly trained to perform the work.
3. Management should cooperate with workers to ensure that all work is done in accordance with the scientific principles.
4. Scientific distribution of work and responsibility between workers and the managers. The management should design the work, set up and supervise the task and the workers are free to perform the task in the best possible way.

Scientific management quickly became the mainstay of American business thinking. It helped lay the foundation for job specialization and mass production and resulted in the following specific applications.

1. Maximum utility of efforts, thus eliminating waste.
2. More emphasis on fitting workers to particular tasks and training them further to best utilize their abilities.
3. Greater specialization of activities with proper design of jobs, specification of methods and set time and motion standards.
4. Establishment of standards of performance as average output and maximum output per capita.
5. The role of compensation and other incentives for increase in productivity.

The scientific management primarily emphasized on economic rationality, efficiency and standardization and ignored the roles of individuals and groups in the organizations. It basically ignored the social needs of the worker. This resulted in criticism of scientific management and advent of behavioural approach to management that formed the foundations for organizational behaviour. The basic assumption of scientific management that most people are motivated primarily by economic rewards seems to be too

mechanical and physiological and it does not take into consideration the organizational and motivational concerns such as job satisfaction and self actualization.

There has been opposition to scientific management from its very inception, both from the workers as well as the management. Dr. Mathur[5] has listed some of these areas of opposition as follows:

1. It promotes individualism rather than team spirit because of the competitive nature of "more work, more pay."

2. Specialization makes the worker unfit for other types of jobs and thus he is at the mercy of his employer.

3. It ignores or excludes the average worker because of tough competition to be more efficient and productive.

4. Specialization makes the work repetitive and monotonous. Workers are merely converted into machines to carry out a set of instructions thus leaving no room for initiative and innovation.

5. It puts in the hands of employers an immense mass of information and methods that may be used to the detriment of workers because all workers are not going to measure up to the set standards.

6. It is anti-democratic in the sense that it separates manager from the worker, since it gives the management the right and the prerogative to manage, while the workers have a duty to work. In a truly democratic situation, the workers and the management are expected to work together to achieve the integrated individual and organizational goals.

2.4 THE BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH TO MANAGEMENT

The behavioural approach, also known as human relations approach, is based upon the premise of increase in productivity and managerial efficiency through an understanding of the people. The growth and popularity of this approach is attributable to Elton Mayo (1880–1949) and his Hawthorne experiments.[6] These studies (1927–1932) were conducted at Western Electric's Hawthorne plant near Chicago to determine the effect of better physical facilities on worker output. These studies showed that better physical environment or increased economic benefits in themselves were not sufficient motivators in increasing productivity. Thus, the emphasis of the study shifted to psychological and social forces. These experiments demonstrated that in addition to the job itself, there are other factors that influence a worker's behaviour. Informal social groups, management-employee relations and the interrelatedness of many other facets of work environment were found to be quite influential in improving productivity. Mayo discovered that when workers were given special attention by management, the productivity increased irrespective of actual changes in the working conditions.

The Hawthorne studies represented a major step forward in systematically studying worker behaviour, thus laying the foundation for the field of Organizational Behaviour.

Central to this approach was an increased understanding of the individual worker with emphasis on motivation, needs, interpersonal relationships and group dynamics. These experiments suggested that an office or a factory is not only a work place but also a social environment in which the employees interact with each other. This gave rise to the concept of "the social man"[7] whose interactions with others would determine the quality and quantity of the work produced. It must be understood, however, that in spite of the fact that this social environment is an important factor in improving the quality and output, it does not replace economic benefits for low level salaried workers and indeed it may increase turnover of employees, even if the working conditions are satisfactory.

In support of Mayo's contention and findings, Abraham Maslow[8] presented a theory of individual needs. The basic aim of this approach is to increase the organizational effectiveness of its human resources, which could be achieved by properly taking care of human needs. The human needs could be physiological or psychological. According to Maslow, these needs fall into a hierarchy. At the bottom of the hierarchy are the lower level needs such as the need for food, water and physical comfort as well as security of job and love and affection needs. At the upper level are the needs for respect and self-fulfillment. In general, the lower level needs must be satisfied before the higher level needs arise. Being aware of these needs enables a manager to use different methods to motivate workers. This is important and significant because of the complexity of man's nature. Different people will react differently to the same situation or their reactions may be similar even when the situations are different. Hence the management must be aware of these differences and react accordingly. The level of performance of an employee is a function of his ability and his motivation. The first determines what he "can" do and the latter determines what he "will" do. The ability can always be judged and measured and depends upon background, skills and training. Motivation, on the other hand, is the force within. Wherever there is a strong motivation, the employee's output increases. A weak motivation has opposite effect. Hence management must understand what motivates people towards better performance and take steps to create an environment that induces positive and strong motivation.

The behavioural approach had a major impact on management thinkers right through the 1970s and indeed changed the structure of the organization from the bureaucratic to participative in which the workers have more freedom to participate in the affairs of the organization.

Lately, however, some serious questions have been raised whether man is entirely a "social man" and not an "economic man." Not all employees seek self-actualization as their ultimate goal. While some professionals may be motivated by recognition and a feeling of self-fulfillment, it may not be generally true for blue collar workers for whom the increased economic benefits are the only motivators and who may not seek additional challenges or higher responsibility. Additionally, the research results generally do not support the contention of behavioural scientists that an increase in job satisfaction alone leads to higher productivity. Since the human behaviour is highly complex, a number of factors may affect the workers' productivity and indeed the importance of feeling of belonging, recognition and participation cannot be minimized.

2.5 CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO MANAGEMENT

Contingency approach to management and organizational behaviour rejects the notion that a universal set of principles and methodologies can be applied to managing behaviour in organizations.[9] It implies that there is "no one best way" of managing, but the best way depends upon the situation and circumstances. Each situation must be characterized on its own and then managed accordingly. It is necessary to look at all the factors in the situation and then either management should adopt their leadership behaviour to accommodate these different situations or only such managers should be assigned to such situations that are compatible with their leadership styles.

The contingency view of management and organizational behaviour focused on situational analysis and was first proposed by Fred E. Fiedler who stated that management must identify specific responses to specific problems under specific situations. The critics of the situations approach contend that while there are no universal principles applicable to all management and organizational situations, each such situation is not so unique and specific as to require unique and tailor-made responses. Hence, there must be some common grounds and common characteristics of all

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Check Your Progress

1. Define scientific management.
2. Distinguish between behavioural approach and contingency approach to management.

situations that require well planned and measured responses. Fred Luthans, a researcher in organizational structure and behaviour has identified four contingencies that must be addressed by managers.

These are:[10]

1. An organization's structure of management authority must match the demands of its environment.
2. An organization's structure of management authority must coincide with its system of technology.
3. Individual subsystems, such as departments and work groups, must match their particular environment, and management authority must coincide with the technological requirements of these subsystems.
4. The leadership behaviour of managers in the organization, and in its subsystems, must be appropriate to situational demands.

The contingency approach has its value in the sense that it is highly flexible and has sufficient latitude to accept differences in situations so that appropriate responses to these situations can be formulated.

Another advantage of contingency approach stems from the belief that the organizational environment is highly dynamic and constantly changing. This approach forces managers to learn to adapt to these changes effectively.

Research on Organizational Behaviour

Behaviour is a difficult subject matter simply because it is an extremely complex phenomenon. However, behaviour is not totally unpredictable. It has certain generalities that subscribe to "cause and effect" phenomenon. These generalities must be studied thoroughly and systematically so that some foundations can be formed that can describe certain behaviour patterns. Even though each person is unique in his or her own way, some generalities can be drawn about the behaviour either due to reflex action such as pulling your hand away from a heated part of the machinery or due to certain societal forms of reaction such as anger and protests on the part of employees when faced with pay reduction.

While certain aspects of behaviour may be genetic in nature, much of the work related behaviour can be traced to a set of identifiable causes. It is assumed that human action is typically the result of a set of forces that can be identified and possibly measured. If these forces can be accurately studied and their impact on human behaviour correlated, then it would be possible to predict certain aspects of such behaviour. For example, unhappy workers are more likely to leave their current jobs and find employment elsewhere. Thus knowing the reasons for the employees' unhappiness at work and finding solutions for their unhappiness would ascertain their loyalty to the company.

In order for any phenomenon to be usefully reviewed, it is important and necessary that in-depth research be conducted into various characteristics of such phenomenon. Research is an objective and systematic way of gathering information about a phenomenon. This information forms the basis upon which sound managerial decisions are based. Such research in the field of human behaviour has four major goals. These are:

Description Most behaviours are not unique. There are many common aspects of behaviours in a reasonably homogeneous population. Describing such aspects of behaviour leads to commonalities about behaviour that can be placed into certain classifications. These classifications can narrow the field of observation relative to each classification so that each aspect of behaviour can be studied more thoroughly.

Explanation This goal determines the reasons for occurrence of certain types of behaviour, when such types have been clearly defined and described. It is a possible

statement of underlying processes that are responsible for the outcomes of such behaviours. For example, an unhappy sex life with the spouse generally exhibits an irritable behaviour at work. Similarly, financial problems, where the resources are inadequate to meet the demands show up in depression and tension.

Prediction Prediction of behaviour is possible when the connection between the cause and effect phenomenon with regards to behaviour pattern has been accurately established. Thus the effects can be predicted if the underlying causes can be identified with reasonable degree of accuracy. Some behaviour patterns can be predictable on the basis of similar past situations. For example, it is known that when somebody is praised for his contribution and achievement, his morale becomes high and he becomes highly motivated.

Control The ultimate conclusion of any research is the ability to control and manipulate the outcome of events. Once we are able to predict behaviour on the basis of certain causes, we can take some measures to create or induce such causes that would result in a behaviour we want.

Research Terminology

Most research is conducted to determine how a certain outcome is related to certain causes in order to establish that the same outcomes will result from the same causes. This process involves the determination of variables that make up a given phenomenon and the relationship and the degree of interdependency among these variables. Some of the technical and standard terms used in research methodology are:

Independent and dependent variables There are many practical problems in which the values of one variable depend upon the values of another variable and the change in the value of one variable is related to the change in the value of the other variable. For example, the ability of the worker may depend upon the score on his aptitude test. The higher the score, the higher is considered the ability. Thus the ability depends upon the score. This means that the ability is the dependent variable and score is the independent variable. In general, an independent variable is a set of values that is believed to affect changes in the set values of another variable. A value that is affected by the independent variable is known as the dependent variable. For example, if increased advertising causes increase in sales then the sales depend upon advertising. Hence, advertising would be the independent variable and sales would be dependent variable.

Moderating variables A moderating variable is one that is responsible for a change in the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables.[11] It influences the form of the relationship between these two variables. For example, if there is a relationship between an employee's intelligence and his job satisfaction, then this relationship can be moderated by the type of job. This means that intelligence responds favourably to more challenging jobs and less favourably to routine and monotonous jobs. Thus the level of the job would be the moderating variable.

Hypothesis A hypothesis is an assumption based upon hunch or partial information. It is a statement of how the independent variable and the dependent variable are related. Data is collected and studied and based upon the results of such study, a decision is made whether to accept the assumption as being correct or reject the assumption as being incorrect and make alternate assumptions. For example, a consumer may assume that a less expensive brand is similar in quality to a more expensive brand and thus is a better buy. If it turns out to be true, then his assumption or hypothesis was correct. However, additional information about the quality of brands may suggest that the cheaper brand was of inferior quality and this would make the consumer reject his assumption and look for the better brand next time.

Types of Research Designs

A research design is a set of procedures used to test the hypothesis relating to the relationships among various variables. A formulation of research design would include the relevant variables under consideration as to their definition, measurements and relationship to one another. Each design has its own strengths and weaknesses and that design can be selected which most suitably reflects the relationship of the variables. There are four general types of research designs that are often used in the field of organizational behaviour. These are:

Case study   A case study involves detailed informal as well as formal information gathering about an aspect of operation through a review of records, interviews and observations. This design is particularly useful in relatively new areas and where little is known about the phenomenon in question. The case study is intense in nature and the researcher probes the given situation in depth and detail, thus seeking and gathering a wealth of descriptive and explanatory information. It may add a new angle to an existing situation or it may uncover new information that was not known before.

The case study method is an effective research technique for the analysis of organizational behaviour, and is highly adaptable to many situations generally existing in organizations. For example, case study can be very useful in learning about the attitudes of a new employee towards the company or how well he fits in with the group culture that he joins.

One of the major drawbacks of the case study method is that it can only be applied to a unique situation and does not lend itself to comparison with other situations, since no two situations are exactly the same. Secondly, since only the researcher is closely tied to the situation under study, the results can be exposed to the researcher's bias. Finally, it does not lend itself to a systematic investigation of cause-and-effect relationships that require extensive statistical data and its manipulation.

Surveys   Surveys are often used to gather data about organizational behaviour. They rely on a set of questions, oral or written, through personal interviews or by mail, designed to solicit people's responses to a subject of interest. A random and representative sample from the entire group is selected for the purpose of study and analysis and the responses are considered as the responses of the entire group. The primary purpose of the survey is to find out how people feel and think about certain issues of interest. Accordingly, the questions should be designed so as to solicit straight-forward and unambiguous responses so that there is as little bias introduced in the results as possible. These responses are analyzed by the researcher and inferences made regarding the relevant characteristics of the entire population.

Field surveys are useful in that descriptive analysis can be made concerning a variety of subjects within the field of organizational behaviour, including attitudes towards other people such as superiors or co-workers, dissatisfaction about the job or commitment to the organization and so on.

One of the major problems with the survey method is the degree of bias introduced both on the part of the researcher as well as the respondents. The respondents may react to the personal attributes of the interviewer or the type of questions and thus may be vulnerable to the following biases:

- Tendency to give such responses that are more socially acceptable.
- Tendency to agree or disagree without regard to the contents of the question.
- Tendency to rely on or avoid extreme answers when responding to a question.

Laboratory experiments   Laboratory experiments involve creating an artificial setting that is similar to real life situations and the researcher can observe the effect of changes in some variables in the study, while keeping other variables constant, and by

manipulating the changes in some variables, the researcher can examine their effect on other variables. The researcher has the most control for he can decide which variables to choose and how to manipulate them. For example, if we want to know the effect of a style of leadership on the morale of workers, we can conduct the experiment as follows:

A group of subjects is selected and divided into two subgroups. These subjects are selected by the researcher and may be students or housewives. One group is subjected to an autocratic leader where the leader orders certain tasks to be performed in a certain manner. The other group is led by a democratic leader where the group is free to participate in setting goals and tasks and the manner in which the task is to be performed, within the general guidelines of the experiment. After a period of time, a questionnaire is prepared to measure the attitudes and responses to both types of leadership. With other factors being constant and the variable factor being employee attitude towards the leadership style, a relationship can be established between these two variables.

One of the major advantages of laboratory experiments is the high degree of control over variables and the precise measurement of these variables. However, it is generally not possible to accurately duplicate the real-life situations into laboratory settings. For example, if students are chosen as subjects under study, they may not react exactly in the same manner as the employees or the executives in real life organizational environment. Simulating many of the characteristics of real-life organizational structure in a laboratory setting can be extremely difficult. A related problem is the difficulty in generalizing the results obtained from the study in order to apply these to actual organizational situations.

Field experiment   A field experiment is similar to laboratory experiment except that it is conducted in a real-life organizational setting. Similar to laboratory experiments, the researcher manipulates one or more independent variables and studies the changes in the dependent variables in order to assess the correlation between independent and dependent variables so that a cause-and-effect phenomenon can be established. For example, from an organizational behaviour point of view, if there is a problem of excessive absenteeism, an experiment could be designed to find out if flexible working hours would reduce absenteeism. Let us assume that there are two plants with similar organizational environment. A flexible work schedule programme may be initiated at one plant while keeping the same work schedule at the other plant, known as the control plant. The rate of absenteeism would be observed at both plants for a given period of time. If the rate of absenteeism becomes lower at the flexible work schedule plant as compared to the control plant, then it could be concluded that the flexible work schedule is successful in solving the problem and that there is a definite relationship between absenteeism and flexible work schedule.

Since field experiments are designed and conducted in the real organizational environment, rather than in the laboratory, the results can easily be generalized to any population of interest. One of the disadvantages is that the researcher does not have complete control over all the variables since the values of some variables could change due to organizational policy changes. Another disadvantage is the possibility that some bias could be introduced due to the fact that some workers may modify their behaviour, once they are aware that they are being observed.

Comparison of Research Designs

In conducting research studies, it is important to select a methodology that is most suitable to a given situation. According to Glick and Roberts,[12] all the four types of research designs discussed above have both strengths as well as weaknesses and by selecting one over the other, some advantages have to compromised.

One of the major advantages of field experiments is that the study is under realistic environment and the results are as close to realism as possible. It would be natural to assume that the subjects under study such as workers or managers are performing their duties under normal conditions and hence the results can be based upon facts rather than assumptions. To the contrary, laboratory setting involves artificial conditions that may or may not exactly simulate the real conditions.

The field studies as well as laboratory experiments are by nature limited in scope. Case studies and surveys, on the other hand, offer a broad scope and incorporate many variables that are of interest to the behavioural researcher.

In any experiment, accuracy and precision is of supreme importance. Laboratory experiments are conducted under controlled environment and variables under controlled conditions allow the researcher to obtain more accurate information about the variables than any other design of experiments.[13] Laboratory experiments also offer a higher degree of control over the variables and the total situation. It allows the researchers to reproduce a situation repeatedly so that the conclusions are based upon many observations rather than a single observation. Also in the real life situations such as field experiments, all the variables may not be under the researcher's control such as workers behaving deliberately either in a cooperative manner or in a rebellious manner depending upon how they view the study.

Additionally, the surveys and field experiments are very costly and any research must be justified by its costs. Laboratory experiments generally require low set-up costs and relatively fewer resources. Hence where budgets are limited, surveys and field experiments may not be desirable.

The manager must decide, taking all these factors into consideration, as to which strategy would be most effective in terms of criteria set up by the management.

Data Collection

The validity and accuracy of the final judgement depends heavily on how well the data was gathered in the first place. The quality of data will greatly affect the conclusions and hence utmost importance must be given to this process and every possible precaution should be taken while gathering data and assembling the facts. The data and the data gathering techniques must be reliable as well as valid. Reliability is a function of accuracy and consistency of results. For example, a bathroom weighing scale would be useless if it was not reliable and consistent in reading. Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it claims to measure.[14] Accordingly, before a data collection methodology is established, a researcher must clearly define the goals to be achieved and such methodology must be highly useful in achieving such goals. The scope of the study must take into consideration the field to be covered and the time period in which to conduct the study. The time span is very important because in certain areas the conditions change very quickly and hence by the time the study is completed, it may become irrelevant.

Data can be collected in a variety of ways. Some of the widely used methods in collection of primary data, where the researchers are directly involved in collecting the data themselves, are briefly discussed as follows:

Interviews   Interviews could be face-to-face or by telephone. For the results to be effective and valid, the subjects must be chosen at random so that each person in the population being considered has the same chance of being selected as any other person. A telephone interview is convenient but excludes those who do not have a telephone and those who have an unlisted number. The personal interview can usually result in more accurate responses since the interviewer can probe more deeply into answers that show inconsistency in some form. Also, if the questions are not properly understood by the respondent, these can be clarified on the spot.

The quality and accuracy of the interview will depend upon the mutual trust established between the interviewer and the respondent. One of the major problems with personal interviews is the degree of bias that can be introduced because the answers can be highly exaggerated. Some people may be unwilling to provide certain types of information. Accordingly, the investigator must be thoroughly trained and the questions and the language of questions should be such as to induce confidence in the respondent so that he is as objective and accurate in providing information as possible.

Questionnaires A questionnaire is a set of written questions designed to measure the respondent's attitudes, perceptions, opinions and their demographic characteristics. The mail questionnaire method is more often used because of economy and practicality, especially if the population is widely dispersed geographically. However, great care should be taken on the formulation of questionnaires or "schedules" as they are called, so as to promote the particular kind of responses. The wording should be clear and specific. The questions should be short, unambiguous and clearly presented so that they can be easily and correctly answered. They should be such that they elicit clear "yes" or "no" answers or some other statement of facts.

The questionnaires can be totally formal and well structured or they can be unstructured where the respondent is free to answer in any way he likes. Also some new questions can be developed from these answers during the subsequent interview, if necessary, so that the communication has an easy flow like a friendly discussion. This also helps in developing a mutual trust, so important in ascertaining the accuracy of the answers.

Observation Observation simply means observing events and recording them. In direct observation techniques, human or mechanical and electronic devices can be used to record the behaviour being observed. A major advantage of the observation method is that it is more objective because people's behaviour is observed as they are behaving rather than relying only on their verbal or written expressions. The observation can also be conducted in a manner where the subject is unaware that he is being observed so that the observation can be unbiased. The major problem with the observation method is the bias that may be inherent in the observer who may be highly opinionated about the subject and thus interpret the results that may be more subjective than objective in nature.

Non-reactive measures Non-reactive measures have been developed to gather data without disturbing the situation under study. These measures include examination of physical evidence previously collected and recorded. For example, company records can provide data on absenteeism, turnover, number and nature of grievances, performance ratings and demographics. In some cases, these sources yield more accurate data than other methods because they are generated as they occur and the subject is not aware as to how and when this data will be used and for what purpose. For example, an automobile dealer can have some idea about the radio station that the car driver is tuned to by looking at the radio dial when the drivers bring in their cars for repair. This observation (non-reactive) can establish the popularity of any particular radio station.

The basic purpose behind all this research is to determine the "cause" and "effect" phenomenon and the relationship between them as to how a cause causes its effect. The behavioural scientists want to find out why people behave the way they do. They want to find a common denominator of human behaviour that can be generalized and classified into standard causes that result into identifiable and functionally dependent patterns of behaviour. By discovering and analyzing these causes, the behaviour can be predicted, manipulated and controlled.

2.6   SUMMARY

Organizational behaviour emerged as a distinct field of study in the late 1950s and early 1960s, on the basis of the belief that all managerial and organizational problems are not

technical in nature and an understanding and predictability of human behaviour could help managers make their organizations more effective.

Study of human behaviour, being a part of general management, can be traced back to 3,000 BC when the Egyptian pyramids were built or even the dawn of mankind when people hunted in groups and protected their families or communities against hostile environmental forces. Over the years many scholars and practitioners have contributed towards an organized study of human behaviour within organizational environment with special credit going to Elton Mayo (1880–1949) and his Hawthorne experiments (1927–32). These experiments focussed upon an understanding of human needs and desires and their relationship with motivation and performance.

More recent research in the field of human behaviour has been directed to establish a "cause and effect" phenomenon so that causes can be manipulated to obtain the desired effects. Various types of research designs and methodologies have been proposed with each design having its own strengths and weaknesses so that a most useful technique can be selected to study a given behavioural situation. There are four general types of research designs. First is the case study method where information is gathered through a review of records, interviews and observations about a given situation. This information is analyzed and conclusions are drawn. Case study is only applicable to unique situations. The second technique is taking surveys of a random sample from a given population and information is collected by asking pertinent questions either through personal interviews or by mail. The responses are analyzed by the researchers and inferences made regarding the relevant characteristics of the entire population.

The third technique involves creating artificial setting in a laboratory environment, as close to real life situation as possible. The researcher can observe the effect of changes in some variables in the study while keeping other variables constant and by manipulating the changes in some variables, the researcher can examine their effect on other relevant variables.

Finally, the fourth technique involves the field experiments. A field experiment is similar to laboratory experiment but is conducted in a real-life organizational setting. Observations are made when the subjects under study such as workers or managers are performing their duties under normal conditions so that conclusions can be drawn based upon facts rather than assumptions.

The choice of the research method would depend upon the situation and the objectives of the researcher, but the most important aspect of all these methods is that the data collected should be random, free of biases and its characteristics should be as close to the characteristics of the entire population as possible.

2.7 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. Trace the history of organized management as far back in time as possible. Give some examples of the earliest historical events or situations where some of the management principles, as we understand them today, might have been applied.

2. Fredrick W. Taylor is known as the father of scientific management in terms of improving efficiency and productivity. Do you agree with his philosophy? Give reasons for your views either pro or against his philosophy.

3. How do scientific management and behavioural management differ in significant ways? Which managerial approach is more suitable for organizational effectiveness in a democratic society as ours? Illustrate your reasons.

4. Contingency approach to management emphasizes that each situation requires application of a unique set of management principles relevant to the situation. Do you agree with this philosophy? Explain your reasons.

5. Describe some of the common terms used in research.

6. Explain in detail the following research methodologies and the types of situations where these techniques could be most usefully applied.

    (a) Case study method.   (b) Survey method.

7. How do laboratory experiments differ from field experiments? Discuss advantages and disadvantages of both these techniques.

8. Explain various techniques of data collection. Which one of these techniques is the most reliable?

2.8   ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The scientific management primarily emphasized on economic rationality, efficiency and standardization and ignored the roles of individuals and groups in the organizations. It basically ignored the social needs of the worker. This resulted in criticism of scientific management and advent of behavioural approach to management that formed the foundations for organizational behaviour. The basic assumption of scientific management that most people are motivated primarily by economic rewards seems to be too mechanical and physiological and it does not take into consideration the organizational and motivational concerns such as job satisfaction and self actualization.

2. The behavioural approach, also known as human relations approach, is based upon the premise of increase in productivity and managerial efficiency through an understanding of the people. The behavioural approach had a major impact on management thinkers right through the 1970s and indeed changed the structure of the organization from the bureaucratic to participative in which the workers have more freedom to participate in the affairs of the organization. However, Contingency approach to management and organizational behaviour rejects the notion that a universal set of principles and methodologies can be applied to managing behaviour in organizations.9 It implies that there is "no one best way" of managing, but the best way depends upon the situation and circumstances. Each situation must be characterized on its own and then managed accordingly. It is necessary to look at all the factors in the situation and then either management should adopt their leadership behaviour to accommodate these different situations or only such managers should be assigned to such situations that are compatible with their leadership styles.

3. The various types of research designs are:

    (i) Case study

    (ii) Surveys

    (iii) Laboratory experiments

    (iv) Field experiments

4. Data can be collected in a variety of ways. The validity and accuracy of the final judgement depends heavily on how well the data was gathered in the first place. The quality of data will greatly affect the conclusions and hence utmost importance must be given to this process and every possible precaution should be taken while gathering data and assembling the facts. The data and the data gathering techniques must be reliable as well as valid. Some of the widely used methods in collection of primary data, where the researchers are directly involved in collecting the data themselves, are as: Interviews, Questionnaires, Observation, Non-reactive measures.

2.9 FURTHER READING

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CASE STUDY

People Express*

Behavioural approach to management, generally based upon the conclusions drawn from the Hawthorne Experiments, proposes that productivity increases when the workers are recognized as important members of the organizational family. That is what People Express did. Every employee was given a share in the ownership of the company and life time employment security was offered to all. People Express became a classic example of organizational success and managerial effectiveness.

Donald Burr was the founder and chairperson of People Express. He has been credited with building a humane kind of organization where employees were given a great deal of freedom of operation. Since every employee was a part owner of the company, there was no class distinction between the managers and the workers. Managers helped workers in carrying out their duties, pilots helped out in handling the baggage and passenger comfort was given the top priority. Every employee was given the opportunity and encouraged to know the company well. Even top executives rotated from job to job to learn the major aspects of the business.

People Express was expanding its operations very fast. Within 5 years of its formation, it acquired Frontier Airlines and became the fifth largest airline in the country. Since the infrastructure and operational resources did not match the fast expansion, People Express experienced its first losses and with it, its managerial style changed. It changed from participative style of management and a family type organization to a more traditional style. Donald Burr took charge of the airline and began dictating policies and it became risky for employees to speak out. One of the ordinal architects of life time employment at People Express, Lori Dubose was fired when she started asking questions and speaking critically about some aspects of operations. Similarly, another director of the company, Harold Parety who was told to report to work at 6.00 A.M. and stay until 9.00 P.M., irrespective of whether there was enough work for him to do or not felt it to be an insult to his integrity and quit his job and formed his own airline.

Eventually People Express declared bankruptcy because it could not generate enough revenues to meet the operating expenses and other debts.

Questions

1. Do you think that the change from participating management style to a more classic one contributed towards the final collapse of People Express? Explain your reasons.

2. Do you think that a particular style of management that is effective when the company is growing, is equally effective when the company has grown large? Justify your explanation.

3. Why do you think Donald Burr changed his managerial style? Was he justified in firing Lori Dubose because she disagreed with his managerial policies?

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* This case is adopted from "Up, Up and Away? Expansion is Threatening the Human Culture at People Express", *Business Week*, Nov. 25, 1985, pp. 80–94.

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UNIT 3   FOUNDATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

Structure

3.0   INTRODUCTION

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

Psychologist Kurt Levin[1] has conducted considerable research into the human behaviour and its causes. He believes that people are influenced by a number of diversified factors, both genetic and environmental, and the influence of these factors determines the pattern of behaviour. He called his conception of these influences "the field theory" and suggested that:

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

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

killer or a dacoit came to a temple and his whole personality and outlook changed. Thus the environment can change the individual in his or her behaviour. Similarly, the individuals can also change the environment by setting goals and standards and by determination and motivation.

3.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

- To understand what we mean by acceptable behaviour
- To specify relationship between behaviour and both the individual and his environment
- To recognize the genetic nature of behaviour
- To analyze some of the causes of human behaviour in terms of inherited and learned characteristics
- To understand as to how environmental factors affect the behaviour of a person
- To look into the relationship between behaviour and performance

3.2 BIOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS OF BEHAVIOUR

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

According to R.S. Dwivedi,[2] the structures of the nervous system play a significant part in the emerging pattern of behaviour thus bringing about the integration of human behaviour and personality. Some psychologists believe that some aspects of human behaviour can be explained in terms of neural activity and neuro-physiological processes. Dwivedi further explains:

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

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

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

3.3 CAUSES OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

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

The assumption that the study of any subject begins in the realm of superstition has some validity. For example, the scientific field of astronomy started as astrology. Similarly, the study and prediction of behaviour has its roots in superstitious beliefs in supernatural phenomenon. Even though such beliefs are not supported by science, they are still socially prevalent. Any conspicuous event that coincides with some part of general human behaviour is likely to be seized upon as a cause. Many such beliefs have been extensively discussed by B.F. Skinner.[3] He cites as an example, the belief of many people that the position of various planets at the exact time of the birth of the individual determines many aspects of his behaviour, such as whether he is temperamental, impulsive, trustworthy and so on. Millions of people who read the daily horoscope would testify to this belief, even though these horoscopes describe only general characteristics and general predictions that could be interpreted to be applicable to any person, irrespective of when he was born. The "science" of astrology is taken very seriously in most underdeveloped countries and even in the technologically and scientifically advanced countries, astrologers are seriously consulted. In India, for example, many business meetings are arranged on the advice of astrologers. Prime Minister Indira Gandhi of India and President Ronald Reagan of America have been known to have arranged important political conferences in consultation with astrologers. The position of planets at birth, as a cause, is not considered as predicting specific actions or unique aspects of behaviour of an individual, but only general characteristics such as whether the person is impulsive or thoughtful, even though some of these general characteristics may be explained as being responsible for some specific action of the individual. For example, a quick but wrong decision can be attributed to "impulsiveness," that is identified by astrology. It is strange that there is a lack of serious questioning to its validity, even though the process proposes that all mankind can be divided into 12 monthly categories as far as their behaviour pattern is concerned.

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

Another common practice is to explain behaviour in terms of certain physical characteristics of a person, the most important of these characteristics being the lines on the palm. Palmistry or palm reading is often explained as a science and has been made popular by Cherio and Saint Germain,[4] who practised the "art" of palmistry and wrote extensively about it. The four major lines on the palm of the hand are the Life line, the Heart line, the Brain line or the line of education and intelligence and the Fate line. These

major lines are supported by scores of smaller lines, crosses, stars, islands and branches. There are special lines about number of marriages and children and all these lines are supposed to predict not only how long the person will live or whether he will be rich or poor but also such behaviour traits as intelligence, patience, restlessness, trustworthiness, etc.

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

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

The causes of human behaviour can be classified into two categories. These are: (1) inherited characteristics, and (2) learned characteristics. Let us explain each of these two in more detail.[5]

Inherited Characteristics

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

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

Intelligence   Intelligence is primarily an inherited trait, even though children of some very intelligent parents have turned out to be less intelligent and vice-versa. It is also known that intelligence can be enhanced by proper environment or by proper motivation. Einstein was not considered very intelligent during his earlier years. In any case, intelligence as a trait is related to certain behaviours. Intelligent people are easy to convince if the point is right and they can be expected to be much more stable and predictable.[6]

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

Even though some work roles are assumed to be the exclusive domain of women, such as nurses or airline stewardesses, these roles are being modified to accommodate men in these positions. As far as the administration of the management process is concerned, women in general do not differ from men in their operative behaviours.[7]

Age Since age is determined by the date of birth, it is a kind of inherited characteristic. The age may affect the behaviour in physiological as well as psychological ways. Psychologically, young people are expected to be more energetic, innovative, risk taking and adventurous, while old people are supposed to be conservative and set in their ways. Physiologically, with age, older people experience waning of some of their faculties such as memory, stamina, coordination, etc., and hence the related behaviours change as well. According to Lehman,[8] the peak of creative ability is among people between the ages of 30 and 40.

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

Learned Characteristics

Some of the behavioural characteristics that account for enormous diversity in human behaviour are a product of our exposure to various situations and stimuli, both within the family and the outside environment. These characteristics are acquired by learning where learning is defined as a "relatively permanent change in behaviour resulting from interactions with the environment."[9]

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Check Your Progress

1. Define behaviour.
2. What are inherited characteristics and learned characteristics

a certain way, either favourably or unfavourably concerning objects, people or events. For example, if I say that "I like my job", I am expressing my attitude towards my work.

Attitude has three elements in it that lead to measurable outcomes.[10] These are feelings, thoughts and behaviours. Feelings and thoughts can be measured by simply asking individuals about their feelings and opinions. Behaviours can be measured either by actual overt actions or simply by asking the person how he would act in a certain situation. By measuring and integrating these three elements, a person's attitude towards a given situation can be established.

In general, a person may have a positive attitude that is good outlook of life, or negative attitude that means continuous complaining about problems in life. Organizationally speaking, an employee's negative attitude about work may be reflected by substandard work performance, excessive absenteeism, excessive complaining about work environment or disobedience to rules of authority. These attitudes can be changed either by simple persuasion or by training and coaching. Kelman[11] has identified three processes that act as instruments of change. The first is *compliance,* that is application of subtle pressure either through reward or punishment in order to change the behaviour, and expecting this change to be lasting.

The second process is that of *identification* with the person who is affecting the change and is acting as a change agent. This change agent could be a close friend who wants you to change and you respect and love him enough to do so to please him. In marriage, for example, both the husband and the wife make a lot of sacrifices and change their behaviours to please each other. The third process is the process of *internalization,* that is more permanent in nature. This means that the new attitude is integrated with the other attitudes and becomes a part of the person's total personality. This change may occur through internal soul searching and the desire to change that comes from within.

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

Some of these personality traits are highly influential in certain organizational operations from organizational behaviour point of view. For example, Tedeschi and Lindskold[12] propose that people who are open minded seem to work better in bargaining agreements than people who are narrow minded. Similarly, people who are extroverts and outgoing are more likely to be successful as managers than those who are introverts.

Values   Values, according to Milton Rokeach,[13] represent basic convictions that "a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence." They generally identify a person's moral structure on which the concept of good or bad and right or wrong is based. Values are emotionally charged priorities and are passionately defended. Values and behaviour are highly correlated. The values indicate behaviour pattern and while they do not necessarily and accurately predict behaviour, when behaviour occurs, it is likely to be in line with the values one holds. Value system, according to Prof. A. Dasgupta,[14] "is a framework of personal philosophy which governs and influences the individual's reactions and responses to any situations." These reactions and responses direct individuals in a society to selectively attend to some goals and to subordinate other goals. In other words, value systems represent a prioritizing of individual values in

relation to their relative importance. This value system develops from the cultural environment in which the individual is brought up, the concept of nuclear family, religious influences on his code of conduct, respect for traditional concepts of ethics and morality, and degree of faith in the socially inherited religious elements and beliefs. These values are highly stable and enduring and once a value is internalized, it becomes, consciously or subconsciously a standard or criterion for defining action, for developing and maintaining attitudes towards relevant objects and situations, for justifying one's own and others' actions and attitudes, for morally defining self and others' and for comparing self with others.

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

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

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

- A manager's value system influences his perception of problems and his understanding of the various situations that he faces from day-to-day.
- Value system effectively influences a manager's decision-making process as well as his interpersonal behaviour.
- Each manager largely functions within certain ethical and moral parameters and the value systems play an important role in determining the boundaries of such parameters.

3.4 ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECT ON BEHAVIOUR

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

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

for management and workers in the factories and offices in Japan has been known to be highly motivating to workers. Recent studies in "open wall" office concept showed that some employees were more productive and satisfied with their work place in open space when their jobs did not require private office space.[15]

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

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

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

3.5 BEHAVIOUR AS AN INPUT-OUTPUT SYSTEM

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

The basic input-output model can be described as $S<->O->B$ model where S stands for the stimuli generated by the external environment as input, O stands for human organism that is activated by physiological as well as psychological processes, and B stands for behaviour as the output. Before behaviour is exhibited, there is mutual interaction between the stimulus and the organism and except for reflex actions, the organism "decides" as to the type of behaviour outcome. This interaction results in perception and it becomes the cause of human behaviour.

Another input-output model has been proposed by Kolasa[16] that describes human behaviour in terms of a systems model that may describe the process in a more objective manner. The input from the external environment is processed and analyzed through a central processing function that is similar to human organism "O" in the previous model except that this central processing region is the crucial region of cognition consisting of perception and such core processes as thinking, reasoning, logic, problem solving and decision making.

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

3.6 BEHAVIOUR AND PERFORMANCE

According to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn[17] performance is a reflection of 3 characteristics. These are:

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

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

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

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

Organizational support and resources affect human behaviour in a significant way and the performance is influenced by this behaviour. Physical facilities and technology in the organizational structure, as well as advice and direction from the leaders are highly conducive to positive outlook towards work, resulting in high quality performance. Inadequate support systems such as rush jobs, unavailability of best tools to perform work with unclear guidance and instructions; are all negative influences on behaviour and performance. Some of the symptoms of inadequate organizational support are given as follows:[18]

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

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

All the above constraints intrude on work performance.

3.7 SUMMARY

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

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

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

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

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

3.8 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. Behaviour is considered to be a function of the person and his environment. Describe the importance of each of these two factors relative to behaviour and explain as to which one of these factors has more impact on behaviour and why?

2. What do we mean by "biological foundations of behaviour"? Is behaviour really founded on "biological" manipulations? Explain your reasoning.

3. Describe some of the inherited characteristics of behaviour. Do you believe that these characteristics can be changed or modified? Give reasons.

4. Is intelligence an inherited trait or a learned trait? If it is a learned trait, what steps can be taken to improve upon intelligence?

5. Describe some of the learned characteristics of behaviour. Do these characteristics change with the change in the environmental situation? Which of these traits are formed early in years and how difficult it is to change these traits?

6. Define the concept of values and ethics. Are these values absolute in nature or differ from person to person and situation to situation? Explain your reasoning.

7. What type of behaviours affect the performance and productivity of a worker? How important is the organizational support in reinforcing these behaviours?

3.9 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

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

2. Inherited characteristics are:

    (i) Physical characteristics   (ii) Intelligence

    (iii) Sex   (iv) Age

    (v) Religion

    Learned characteristics are:

    (i) Perception   (ii) Attitude

    (iii) Personality   (iv) Values

3. Behaviour is related to performance and productivity. Performance is a reflection of three characteristics. These are an individual's "capacity" to perform, his "willingness" to perform and the extent and nature of the organizational support. While organizational support basically provides an "opportunity" to perform which does affect behaviour to some degree, the capacity and the willingness are directly associated with human behaviour. Human behaviour, being the most complex phenomenon, is most difficult to assess in quantifiable terms, However, since behaviour constitutes a set of responses to external and internal stimuli, some relationship between a given stimuli and its predictable response can be established.

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CASE STUDY

President John F. Kennedy has been considered by historians to be one of the most charismatic and effective leaders in the American history. He was born into a very rich, highly disciplined and a closely knit family. His father was not only an industrial tycoon but also highly politically influential and at one time, he served as the U.S. Ambassador to England. Thus, John Kennedy came from a family of highly placed socio-economic status.

When he ran for the presidency of the United States, odds were stacked high against him. If elected, he would be the first Catholic in that high office and perhaps the youngest president ever. Even though he had been a senator for some time, he was not as well known nationally. As one commentator remarked at the time "Don't send a boy to do a man's job". His leadership quality had not yet been tested. As it turned out, during his brief period of presidency, he was instrumental in passage of many laws to protect human and civil rights. His handling of Cuban missile crisis in October 1962 established him as one of the great leaders of modern times. His personality, his boyish charm, his personal charisma, his sense of humour, his political acumen, his sociability and his grasp of world affairs made him a leader to remember.

Behaviour is considered to be a function of personality and environment so that some of the characteristics exhibited by successful leaders are genetic by nature and others are formed by environmental factors including value systems of the immediate family. Based upon the information provided, answer the following questions:

Questions

1. What are the traits of President Kennedy that you consider as inherited? Explain why these traits could not have been acquired later.

2. What role did these inherited traits play in making him a leader? Is it possible that he may not have been the leader in spite of all these traits?

3. What are some of the traits that he learned from his environment? Are these learned traits exclusive to a particular kind of environment such as rich family or better education? Support your reasons.

4. Keeping the traits aside, how much did his "desire" to become a leader help him in becoming a leader? What is the role of this "desire" and "willingness" in shaping a person's behavioural patterns?

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UNIT 4   PERCEPTION

Structure

4.0   INTRODUCTION

Perception is the process through which the information from outside environment is selected, received, organized and interpreted to make it meaningful. This input of meaningful information results in decisions and actions. It is a result of a complex interaction of various senses such as feeling, seeing, hearing, thinking and comparing with known aspects of life in order to make some sense of the world around us. The quality or accuracy of a person's perception is an important factor in determining the quality of the decision and action. Perception has been explained by Ajit Singh[1] as follows:

> "Perception refers to interpretation of sensory data. In other words, sensation involves detecting the presence of a stimulus whereas perception involves understanding what the stimulus means. For example, when we see some thing, the visual stimulus is the light energy reflected from the external world and the eye becomes the sensor. This visual image of the external thing becomes perception when it is interpreted in the visual cortex of the brain. Thus, visual perception refers to interpreting the image of the external world projected on the retina of the eye and constructing a model of the three dimensional world."

4.1   UNIT OBJECTIVES

- To understand what perception means
- To study perception as a reflection of the characteristics of the perceiver, the perceived and the situation
- To analyze how the outside environment stimuli is perceptually organized
- To learn the concept of perceptual grouping
- To understand how perception is affected by the learning process

● To know barriers that affect perceptual accuracy

● To study the relationship between perception and attribution

4.2 PERCEPTION: AN OVERVIEW

Perception is primarily an individual process so that different people may perceive an identical situation differently. "All that glitters is not gold" and "things are not what they seem", are all reflections of various perceptions about the same situation. People behave on the basis of what they perceive reality to be and not necessarily as what reality is.

The following two examples amply illustrate the difference between what reality is, and as is perceived by different individuals. The first example involves former US President Richard Nixon and one of his aides.[2]

"The President was working alone, very late at night, in a hotel room while on a trip. He opened the door, beckoned to a waiting aide and ordered, "Get me Coffee." The aide immediately responded to the directive. Most of the activities at the hotel including the kitchen, were not operating at such a late hour. Hotel personnel had to be called in and a fresh pot of coffee was brewed. All of these activities took some time and the President kept asking about "coffee" while waiting. Finally, a tray was made up with a carafe of coffee, cream, sugar and some sweet rolls and was rushed to the President's suite. It was only at this point that the aide learned that the President did not want coffee to drink, but rather wanted to talk to an assistant whose name was Coffee." The second example is quoted by an author,[3] from his personal experience and it is given as follows:

"I was in a supermarket when a girl about eight years old came running around a corner. She looked back and screamed, "Stop! Stop! you are killing him. You are killing my father!". I dropped my things and hurried in the direction from which the girl had come. As I turned the corner, I was greeted by a grisly scene. A man was stretched out on the floor and another was on top of him. The man on the top must have been six feet six inches tall and must have weighed 300 pounds. He looked only half human. He had his victim by the throat and was beating his head against the floor. There was blood everywhere. I ran for the store manager.

By the time the manager and I returned to the scene, the police were just arriving. It took quite a while to straighten things out, but here are the facts that emerged. The man on the floor was a diabetic who had suffered an insulin reaction. As a result, he passed out and hit his head as he went down. This caused the cut (actually quite a minor one) that accounted for the "blood everywhere". The "man on the top" had seen the diabetic man fall and was trying to prevent him from injuring himself further while unconscious. He also had been loosening the man's collar.

If I had not returned, I would have sworn in court that I had seen a murder. This perhaps is understandable. But I will never probably recover from the shock I felt when I met the "murderer". This is the man, you will recall that I had seen a few moments before, in broad daylight as a huge, vicious creature. The man was not a stranger. He was my neighbour. I had seen him dozens of times before and knew him by name. He is a rather small man".

These two examples illustrate rather dramatically, what an important role perception plays in our understanding of the world around us and our decisions based upon such perceptions. Both these examples bring to light three influences on the concept of perception about these and other incidents. These influences are:

1. The characteristics of the perceiver.

2. The characteristics of the perceived.

3. The characteristics of the situation.

The characteristics of the perceiver include such factors as needs, values, experience and attitudes. The characteristics of the perceived include his appearance, communication and personal behaviour and the characteristics of the situation include physical location, social setting and organizational setting. These influences are shown diagramatically as follows:

Major Influences on the Perception Process

```
┌─────────────────────┐
│ Characteristics     │
│ of the perceiver    │
│  ● Needs            │──┐
│  ● Values           │  │
│  ● Experiences      │  │
│  ● Attitudes        │  │
└─────────────────────┘  │
                         │   ┌─────────────────┐
┌─────────────────────┐  └──▶│ Perception      │
│ Characteristics     │      │ ● Overall       │
│ of the perceived    │─────▶│   understanding │
│  ● Appearance       │      │   of perception │
│  ● Communication    │      └─────────────────┘
│  ● Behaviour        │  ┌──▶
└─────────────────────┘  │
                         │
┌─────────────────────┐  │
│ Characteristics     │  │
│ of the situation    │  │
│  ● Physical location│──┘
│  ● Social setting   │
│  ● Organizational   │
│    setting          │
└─────────────────────┘
```
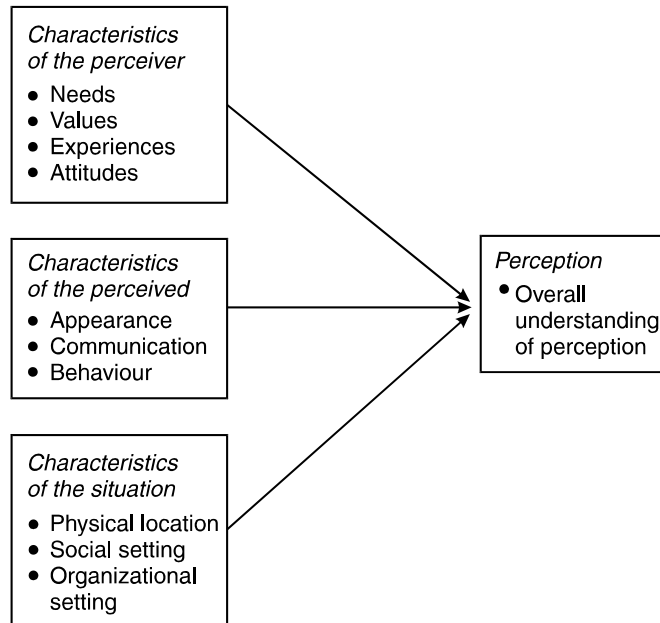
These influences are explained in more detail as follows:

4.3   CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PERCEIVER

A person's needs, habits, impact of past experiences, ethics and values, attitudes and personality, all influence the perception process. For example, a person with strong ego needs would look at other people or situations either as ego satisfying or ego threatening, thus perhaps making the perceptions inaccurate. Similarly, less secure people often find faults with others. Secure persons tend to see others as warm and friendly.

Our ethics and values and our cultural upbringing also play an important role in our perception about others. A non-smoker may prejudge a smoker. Similarly, it is difficult to perceive the personality of a person raised in another culture, because our judgement is based upon our own values.

As an example, a negative attitude towards unions may inhibit the manager towards honest and straight-forward talks with the unions during labour-management negotiations. Similarly, a personnel manager who is biased against women, minorities or handicapped persons will be very sensitive to them during an employment interview. This happens because when we don't like a person, then we always look for negative aspects of that person.

Our attitude towards others is also influenced by our previous experiences with them. For example, if an employee was promised a bonus or a promotion on certain accomplishments and did not receive the promised rewards in spite of such accomplishments, then he would perceive the manager with distrust.

4.4   CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PERCEIVED

It may defy logic and objectivity, but we cannot deny that our perceptions about others are influenced by their physical characteristics such as appearance, facial expressions, age, gender, manner of communication as well as personality traits and other forms of behaviours.[4] For example, when we see a person who appears to be assertive and confident, we assume him to be an executive or a leader. People dressed in business suits are generally thought to be professionals while people dressed in ordinary work clothes are assumed to be lower level employees.

Both verbal and non-verbal communication affect our perception about others. The choice of words and precision of language can form impressions about the education and sophistication of the person. The tone of voice sometimes indicates the mood of the person at a given time. The depth of conversation and choice of topics provide clues to people's intelligence. The body language or expressive behaviour such as how people sit and the movement of their eyes or a smile can indicate whether people are nervous or self confident.

Similarly, the status or occupation of a person creates an impression in our minds. We are awed by people of fame, wealth or professional status. We tend to behave in a more respectful way when we are introduced to a president of a large corporation or a judge of the supreme court or a movie celebrity. When we meet a person who is described to us as warm and friendly, we treat him differently as compared to meeting a person who is known to be cold and calculating.

4.5   CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SITUATION

Physical, social and organizational settings of a situation or event can also influence perceptions. For example, if you meet some lady for the first time and she is with another person whom you respect and admire, you will create a favourable image about her in your mind as compared to a situation in which you see her with a person whom you intensely dislike. Of course, these initial impressions may change over a period of time, but the saying that the "first impression is the last impression" is very valid. Location of a given event is also an important factor in determining behaviour. You will behave with your boss differently at a social function than in the office. In an organizational setting where people are given an opportunity to interact in a friendly and sociable work situation, they become more trustworthy and less defensive.

4.6   PERCEPTUAL ORGANIZATION

Perceptual organization is the process by which we group outside stimuli into recognizable and identifiable patterns and whole objects. Once the stimulus is received from outside, the mental processes begin organizing this stimulus into a meaningful and identifiable whole. For example, a table has a top and four legs and we know what a table looks like so that whenever we see a flat top with four legs attached to it, we immediately organize this stimulus into a whole and recognize it as a table. The top alone or a leg alone would not be meaningful in the organization of the stimulus.

Another example of the process of perceptual organization would be a graphical presentation of data. It is not possible to establish a meaningful interpretation of trends or other conclusions simply from one data point on the graph. The more data points we assemble on the graph, the more likelihood of a pattern emerging so that the graph organized as a whole gives us a meaningful trend on which intelligent decisions can be based. Another example would be reading this sentence. We do not look at each letter

of the word separately, but we take the word as a whole and sometimes the entire sentence as a whole in order to make sense, unless we find a misspelled word. Then we look at that word more carefully and consider each letter.

While it is still not clear how the human mind or brain assembles, organizes and categorizes informations,[5] certain factors are considered important contributors. These are: figure-ground and perceptual grouping.

Figure-ground

The figure-ground principle simply means that we tend to be attentive to such perceived objects that stand out against a background. For example, this sentence is easy to read because it is printed in black against a white background and black stands out. Black words also stand out because we have been mentally locked into one way of organizing what we see and we have been used to black printing against the white paper background. It would be a different story, if we were used to reading white words against a black background. As a matter of fact, there are many advertisements with white words against a black background and the idea is to attract attention.

Because our senses are used to perceptually organizing the incoming stimuli into recognizable words in black against a white page, the following illustration shows the difficulty of recognizing a white word against a black background. The figure itself shows a jumble of black and irregular shapes against a white page. Only when the white letters are perceptually organized against a black background do the words become clear.
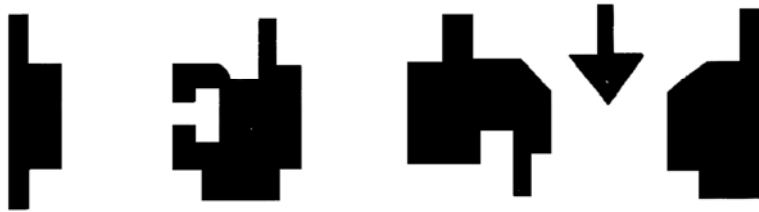
(a) *Source:* Warner Brown and Howard Gilhousen, *College Psychology,* Prentice Hall, 1949, p. 330.
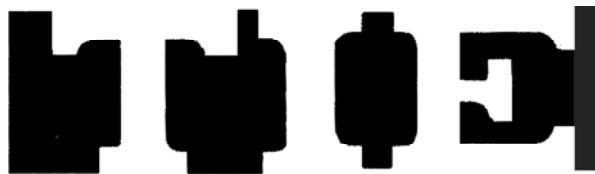
(b) *Source:* Jerome Kagen and Ernest Haveman, *Psychology: An Introduction.* Harcourt Brace & World, 1968, p. 166.

Only a careful and attentive perceptual organization would recognize the world "FLY" in Fig. (a) and the word "TIE" in Fig. (b).

The following figures illustrate further the ambiguity that can be caused when there is no clear figure-ground pattern. These illusions are known as "reversible figure-ground patterns". For example in the Fig. (a) below, do we see a white wine glass or a white table leg against a non-white background or do we see two persons facing each other against a white background? Similarly in Fig. (b), do you see six blocks or seven blocks? If you see as it appears, you see only six blocks. However, if you see it from the

bottoms up (reverse this page upside down) then you will see seven blocks as shown in Fig. (c) [Fig. (b) reverse].

(a)
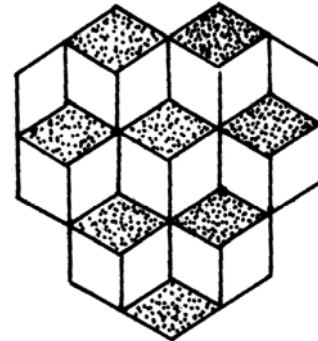
(b)   (c)

Perceptual Grouping

Perceptual grouping identifies our tendency to group several individual stimuli into a meaningful and recognizable pattern. This tendency is very basic in nature and largely seems to be inborn. Some of the factors underlying this grouping are:

Continuity   Continuity relates to the tendency to perceive objects as continuous patterns. If several of the dots lie in a straight line, we tend to perceive it as a continuous phenomenon such as lights of a road as seen from an airplane at night. This type of continuity leads to inflexible and non-creative thinking. Only the obvious continuous patterns and relationships will be perceived. Because of this perception of continuity, the inflexible managers may require that employees follow a set and step by step routine leaving no ground for implementation of out of line innovative ideas.

Closure   Closure is the tendency to perceive objects as a whole, even when some parts of the objects are missing. We tend to close the gaps to make a familiar whole. For example, in the following figure, the sections of the circle are not complete, but being familiar with the shape of the circle, we tend to close the gaps and perceive it as a circle.
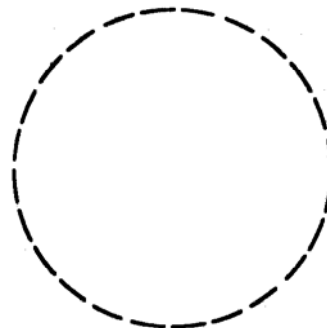
Organizationaly speaking, if a manager perceives a worker, on the whole, a hard working, as diligent and sincer one, then even if he "goofs up" some time (which is a kind of a gap), the manager will tend to ignore it, because it does not fit in with the overall   impression that he has about the worker.

Proximity

The principle of proximity states that a group of objects or people who are physically close to each other may be perceived as related to each other so that they stand out as one unit. For example, several people working on a machine may be considered as a single group, so that if the productivity on that particular machine is low, then the entire group would be considered responsible even though only some people in the group may be inefficient. Similarly, if four persons from a large group working together resigned, the tendency would be to investigate the entire group in terms of morale, working conditions and motivational problems, even if they all resigned for personal reasons.

Similarity

The principle of similarity states that the greater the similarity among the objects or people, the greater the tendency to perceive them as a common group. For example, a cluster of bright stars stands out as a unit from the background of dimmer ones. Similarly, if all visitors to a plant are required to wear white hats while the supervisors wear blue hats, the workers can identify all white hats as the group of visitors. Another example would be our general tendency to perceive minority and women employees as a single group.

4.7   PERCEPTUAL SELECTIVITY

There are a variety and a multitude of stimuli confronting us every day affecting all our senses. Out of all these stimuli, we select only some. Perceptual selectivity refers to the tendency to select certain objects from the environment for attention such that these objects are consistent with our existing beliefs, values and needs. Without this ability of selection, the individuals will not be able to consider all available information necessary to initiate behaviour. This selectivity is enhanced by two related processes. First, it is believed that our senses are activated only by a certain type of stimuli so that some stimuli may go unnoticed if these are not strong, bright or loud enough to activate our senses. The second process, known as "sensory adaptation" relates to our ability to tune out certain stimuli to which we have been continuously exposed. For example, a new home owner near an airport might be excessively bothered by the noise, but such noise does not bother those who have been living there for a long time and have been exposed to this noise over this long period.

Thus many objects or stimuli are stopped from entering our perceptual system by the above two processes. All the remaining stimuli must compete for attention. Various external and internal factors influence our process of stimuli selection. These are:

External Factors

External factors relate to the characteristics of objects or people that activate our senses and thus get our attention. Some of these external factors are:[6]

Size   The larger the size of the object, the more likely that it will be noticed. We are most likely to notice things that stand out because of their size relative to other things in that area. For example, a basketball player, more than seven feet tall will stand out in a crowd. Conversely, we also become aware of the objects that are smaller in size

than their surroundings. For this reason, advertising companies use large billboards and signs that capture the perceiver's attention. This factor is shown below:
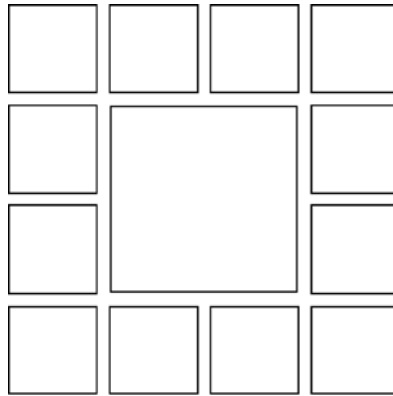
Intensity   Intensity refers to brighter, louder and more colourful objects as compared to other objects around. If all objects are very bright, then the intensity of brightness does not necessarily activate our senses. For example, we tend to listen more carefully to some one who is either yelling or whispering because the intensity of yelling or whispering is different from the usual routine. Similarly, bright lights of a theatre or a hotel on the highway attract attention of a person much more than ordinary lighting. Similarly, a memo from the boss that reads, "report to my office immediately" is more intense and gets immediate attention than a memo that reads, "please stop by my office at your convenience".

Contrast   If an object in some way contrasts with its surroundings, it is more noticeable. For example, a warning sign in a plant, such as "DANGER" written in black against a yellow background would be noticed more quickly because of the contrast factor. A manager who interviews twenty women and one man for a job would remember the man first because of contrast. In the following diagram, the shaded square would be noticed first because of its contrast with other squares.

Repetition   A repeated message is more likely to be perceived than a single message. Work instructions that are repeated tend to be received better. Marketing managers and advertisers use this principle in order to get the customers' attention. As noted by Morgan and King[7], "a stimulus that is repeated has a better chance of catching us during one of the periods when our attention to a task is waning. In addition, repetition increases our sensitivity or alertness to the stimulus". In the following illustration, the letter M will be more often remembered than other letters.

M	M	G	M	M
M	P	M	M	M
M	M	M	M	A
B	M	M	M	O

Movement   Moving objects are more likely to be perceived than stationary objects. Movement increases our awareness of the object before we become aware of the stationary surroundings. A flashing neon sign is more easily noticed. A moving car among parked cars gets our attention faster.

Novelty and familiarity   This principle states that either the familiar or the novel factor can serve as an attention getter. New objects in a familiar setting or familiar objects in a new setting will draw attention. People quickly notice an elephant walking along a city street. Similarly, among a group of people walking towards you, you are most likely to

perceive the face of a friend in the crowd.[8] People with unusual clothing will be attention getters.

Order   According to Secord and Backman,[9] the order in which the objects or stimuli are presented is an important factor influencing selective attention. Sometimes, the first piece of information among many pieces received, receives the most attention, thus making the other pieces of information less significant. Sometimes, the most important piece is left to the end in order to heighten the curiosity and perceptive attention. For example, a writer of a communication may intentionally build up to a major point by proceeding through several smaller and less important points.

Internal or Personal Factors

The internal factors relate to the perceiver and include such factors as learning and motivation. These factors are explained as follows:

Learning and Perception

Learning is an important factor in developing perceptual sets. A perceptual set is basically what a person expects from the stimuli on the basis of his learning and experience relative to same or similar stimuli. This is also known as cognitive awareness by which the mind organizes information and forms images and compares them with previous exposures to a similar stimuli. For example read the phrase in the triangle below in a routine manner:
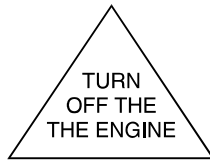
Because of the familiarity with the phrase, a person is apt to read "Turn off the engine" and it will take some time for the reader to realize that this phrase is different than expected, in that it contains the word "THE" twice. This expectation plays an important role in cognitive explanation of behaviour. This view simply states that people initially see what they expect to see. Another example of cognitive awareness is the following illustration.

Ambiguous picture of a young woman and an old woman

What do you see in the figure above? Do you see an attractive and wealthy young women or do you see an ugly, poor and old woman? Obviously, two completely distinct women can be perceived from the given illustration. The difference between the perception of the young woman or the old woman would depend upon the cognitive awareness of the person regarding his prior exposure to the young woman or the old woman. For example, if a person is shown the illustration of a young woman that is clear and unambiguous, as shown below, and then he is exposed to the above ambiguous illustration, then such a person will invariably perceive the illustration to be of a young woman.

Young woman

However, if the person looking at the ambiguous picture was previously exposed to the following picture of an old woman, then the viewer of the ambiguous picture will report seeing an old woman, because of his cognitive comparison with the previous exposure.

Old woman

Some of the other examples and illustrations that reflect upon our cognitive awareness are shown below. Our perceptions and interpretations of such illustrations would depend upon our previous exposures to such situations.
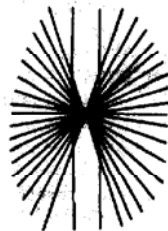
Are the vertical lines parallel?
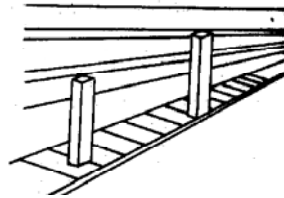
Which vertical post is larger?
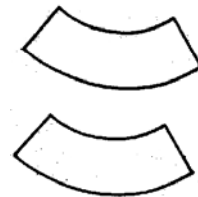
Which figure is smaller?
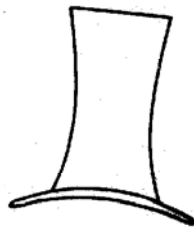
Is the height of the hat longer than the width of the brim?
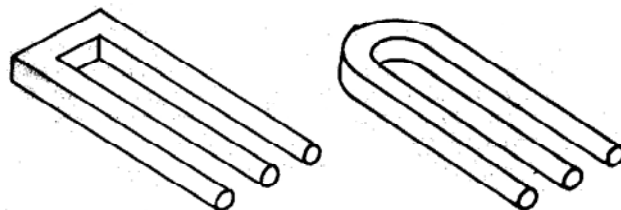
Is the above illustration possible?

In an organizational setting, some employees learn to perceive the environment around them the same way as their previous exposure to similar situations. According to John Swanda,[10] the following statement was distributed to several managers in the same organization for their interpretation.

"I cannot recommend this young man too highly". Although this statement is ambiguous and does not have a single clear interpretation, all the managers interpreted it to be a positive recommendation, simply because they all had learned to perceive the statement in a positive way.

Motivation and Perception

Motivation also plays an important role in influencing the process of perception. A hungry person would be very sensitive to sight or smell of food than a non-hungry person. Similarly, because of the traditional American culture, any mention of sex or a sexually explicit stimulus would be an instant attention getter. In some tribal societies, nudity may not get any attention at all. Another example would be of a person who has a strong need for affiliation. An employee with such a need would look for situations in which he can be with a lot of people. For example, when such an employee walks into the lunch room, he may go to the table where several of his co-workers are sitting, rather than a table that is empty. Similarly, people who are motivated by a need for power will be more attentive to such relative environment variables that enhance power.

4.8 BARRIERS TO PERCEPTUAL ACCURACY

Human beings, as complex as they are, cannot be absolutely objective about their judgements regarding their environment. There are a number of factors that taint our judgements about other people and situations. Since the success of our efforts and decisions is contingent upon the accuracy of the information, as well as the accuracy of impressions, it is necessary to know what the barriers to perceptual accuracy are, so that these can be considered in our judgements or can be eliminated, if possible. Some of these barriers are:

Stereotyping

It is perhaps one of the most common barriers in accurately perceiving others. In order to simplify matters, we often tend to classify people and events into already known or perceived general categories. As an example, suppose you get into an executive's office and notice a man and a woman talking to each other besides a secretary's desk. Our first reaction would generally be to assume that the woman is the secretary and the man is the executive even though the case may be just the opposite. This reaction is based upon our stereotyped impressions that the secretaries tend to be women and executives tend to be men.

In our minds we have established certain categories with certain characteristics or attributes. For example, the category of teenagers would have such attributes as independence, parental defiance, sexual liberation and so on. Then we infer that all persons who fit in a category exhibit the attributes that are associated with that category. Similarly, people associate some positive attributes when they meet a doctor, a judge, a company president or a college professor and negative attributes when they meet a school dropout, a drug addict or an alcoholic, even though, not all people strictly fit into these categories.

Stereotyping is particularly critical when meeting new people, since so little about them is known to us and we tend to characterize them according to certain categories on the basis of age, sex, occupation, religion and ethnic background.

From organizational point of view, some of the more established stereotypes are:

Sex role stereotype Both men and women have been stereotyped into separately perceived categories. Men have been considered as tough with leadership ability, self confidence, competitiveness, ambitiousness and analytical ability, while women are

stereotyped as emotional, impulsive and submissive. Studies conducted by Bartol and Butterfield[11] found that in inter-personal relations, female managers were rated as more effective and in task accomplishments, male managers were rated as more effective.

An interesting anecdote relating to classic sex role stereotype appeared in *Wall Street Journal*.[12] A part of it is reproduced below:

"Your secretary came outside to inspect the no-parking signs we put up at the drive-in teller," the police lieutenant told Martin Hartman, an assistant branch manager from Continental bank. "Hey, that was no secretary", objected Mr. Hartman, "that was my boss".

This example illustrates the traditional perspective that managerial positions are the domain of males and not females. Some of the other stereotype categories in which women workers are traditionally placed are: nurses, airline stewardesses, waitresses and some of the male stereotypes categories are: policemen, firemen, truck drivers, managers and so on.

Age stereotypes Age is another stereotype that presents problems in the organizational environment. Such capabilities as physical, psychological and intellectual are sometimes presumed on the basis of the age of the person. Studies conducted by Rosen and Jerdee[13] found that some business students have clear stereotypes of older employees. The older employees are thought to be:

- more resistant to organizational change.
- less creative.
- less likely to take calculated risks.
- more conservative in nature.
- lower in physical capacity.
- less interested in learning new techniques.
- less capable of learning new techniques.

Not all impressions about older people have a negative connotation. On the positive side, they are considered more experienced for consulting positions. They also tend to be perceived as more honest, dependable and trustworthy. These stereotype impressions affect business decisions regarding hiring, promotions and career development training programs.

Halo Effect

The halo effect refers to the tendency of judging a person entirely on the basis of a single trait that may be favourable or unfavourable. Sometimes, we judge a person by our first impression about him or her. A charming smile may create a favourable impression about the person. Similarly, if we are conscious of how a person is dressed, then a poorly dressed person will create a negative impression on us and a well dressed person would impress us positively. The halo effect can colour a person's image of others with regard to many other "unrelated" attributes based upon the impression regarding one attribute. In studies conducted by Asch,[14] two sets of personality traits of the same person were given to two groups of people. The two lists were the same except that one list contained the trait "warm" and the other list contained the trait "cold". This difference of one word led to significantly different evaluations of the person. The group with the list containing the word "warm" described the person as friendly, humorous, imaginative and intelligent, and the group with the list containing the word "cold" described him as aloof, serious and without many friends.

The halo effect is also likely to be related to our self image. A manager who is always at work on time would view his subordinates who are habitually punctual more favourably than those who are not. This one trait of punctuality can influence a

supervisor's rating of the employee's productivity and quality of his product more favourably, even if the actual performance is not up to the mark.

In our social interaction, we sometimes change our impressions about our long-term friends on the basis of a single act. Many marriages have ended in a divorce on the basis of a single unlikeable trait of the partner.

Expectancy

Expectancy is a tendency to perceive people, objects or events on the basis of what we expected them to be in the first place. It is sometimes referred to as "pygmallion effect."[15] Pygmallion was a mythical Greek sculptor who made a statue of a girl that he wanted and made her come to life so that what sprang to life was what he expected. Through expectancy, you may create certain things in the work situation that you expected to find to start with. This aspect is also known as "self-fulfilling prophecy". For example, if you have become a member of an important committee and you have been told that it is a high-level committee with a membership of intellectuals, you would meet the committee members with certain perceptions and would try to find in the membership what you expect to find based upon these perceptions. On the other hand, if you were told that the committee was set up under pressure for political reasons, you would have different perceptions about the membership of the committee. Now, even if the behaviour of the members was similar, it would be interpreted according to your own preconceived perceptions.

Perceptual Defense

Perceptual defense is the mental process by which we tend to protect ourselves from such objects, situations or stimuli that are emotionally disturbing or perceptually threatening. We tend to ignore such disturbing part of our environment that does not require confrontation. For example, people who live near rail-road tracks may not even hear the trains, because they tend to become unaware or tend to ignore such happenings. Thus, through our perceptual defenses, we tend to distort or ignore information or stimuli that is culturally unacceptable or is in conflict with our established beliefs.

In a study conducted by Haire and Grunes,[16] some college students were provided with a description of some factory workers. Included in the list of characteristics was the word "intelligent". Since the word "intelligent" is perceived to be contrary to the established belief about factory workers, the students chose to reject the description by using conceptual defenses. Four types of rejections were reported:

Denial   Some of the students outrightly rejected the notion that factory workers could be intelligent.

Modification and distortion   This was one of the most common forms of defense in which intelligence was accepted but the common modification was "not intelligent enough" or no initiative to rise above the group to which they belonged.

Change in perception   Some students changed their perception of the worker because of the intelligence trait, though not very enthusiastically.

Recognition, but refusal to change   Some students stated that they recognized the conflict about what they knew about the factory workers and what was told to them regarding the trait of intelligence.

Projection

Projection refers to the tendency of people to see their own traits in other people, meaning that when they make judgements about others, they project their own characteristics into others. For example, while in America, an Indian person meeting another person from India would presume certain cultural characteristics in him that

would be similar to his own characteristics. Similarly, when a professor meets another professor, he would make the same assumptions. As the saying goes, "to an honest man, everybody is honest."

In the case of undesirable or threatening circumstances, projection can serve as a perceptual defense. A person who cheats on his income tax return, can justify this action by thinking that "everybody is doing it". The dishonest worker may say, "sure, I steal from the company, but so does everybody else."[17]

4.9   PERCEPTION AND ATTRIBUTION

Attribution theory refers to the process in which people interpret the reasons or causes for their behaviour. The knowledge about the causes of behaviour brings order and predictability in certain actions and events and assists us in knowing how to respond. For example, if you did not get your promotion that you believe you deserved, you must know whether you did not get it because your boss did not recommend you for this promotion or that you did not get it inspite of his recommendation. Knowing the real cause would determine your interpretation of the behaviour of your boss as well as your attitude towards him.

Harold Kelley,[18] a noted scholar on attribution theory observes:

> "In the course of my interaction with other people, I often wonder why they act as they do. I may wonder how to interpret a compliment a student makes of a lecture I recently gave, or why my friend is so critical of a certain common acquaintance, or why my colleague has not done his share of the work in our joint project. These are questions about the attribution of the other person's behaviour—what causes it, what is responsible for it and to what is it to be attributed".

Essentially, attribution theory suggests that we observe the behaviour of others and then attribute causes to it. For example, if a supervisor believes that poor productivity is attributed to the subordinates, he will have a different behaviour towards them, than if he believes the causes to be beyond their control. Similarly, if a person perceives that his promotion was due to his own efforts and ability, it will reinforce his efforts to continue working towards improved efficiency and quality performance, than if he believes that the promotion was just by chance or by political motivation. This concept is illustrated as follows:

Process	Behavioural event.	Preceived cause of event.	Behavioural response.
Application	I received promotion.	Promotion was due to quality performance.	I will continue to perform better in future.
or			
Application	I received promotion.	Promotion was due to my personal relationship with the boss.	I will continue to develop special relations with boss.
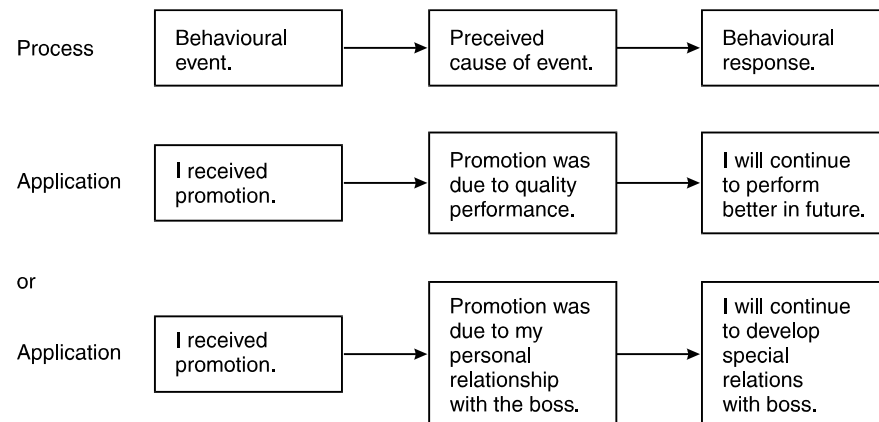
In making attributions about behaviour, it is necessary to determine whether the exhibited behaviour is due to internal causes such as personality traits, emotions, motives or ability, or whether it is due to external factors such as chance, other people or situations. Consider the following situation:

A professor is having a talk with his chairperson regarding his promotion in the chairperson's office with the door closed. After a few minutes, the voices inside become louder and can be heard outside. The professor is heard yelling at the chairperson in an unfriendly manner. After a few minutes, the professor storms out, yells an unflattering remark in anger through the open door. He really seems very angry. The people outside may attribute many causes to this behaviour. The internal causes would include the assumptions that the professor probably has a bad temper generally, or that he is immature and cannot handle pressure well. On the other hand, some observers might make external attributions such as the chairperson provoked him or that the chairperson put in additional and unreasonable work demands on the professor. Thus, different persons may have different interpretations regarding the causes of such behaviour.

One of the explanatory models proposed by Harold Kelley,[19] tends to explain how people determine why others behave as they do. This model suggests that in making causal attributions, people focus on three major factors.

Consistency cues If a pattern of behaviour is consistently similar, so that the same person behaves in the same fashion at different times under similar situations, then the cause of such behaviour can be considered as internally generated. For example, if a professor has generous office hours and consistently keeps them to advise students, it can be assumed that the professor genuinely cares for the students. Similarly, consistently good performers may be branded as "dedicated" workers and consistently poor performers may be perceived as "lazy". However, if there is no consistency and the worker's performance varies from average to excellent, we may look for external factors such as work load or changes in machinery or methods.

Consensus cues Consensus is the extent to which other people in the same situation behave in the same fashion as the person under observation. A person who acts differently from other people or behaves differently than expected, when the expectations are based upon the expected behaviour of other people, then this is seen as revealing the person's true motives and these motives are considered to be internally generated. For example, in a college department where most professors do not keep regular office hours, any one keeping regular office hours would be considered as truly motivated. Similarly, a job applicant in a large company is expected to speak favourably regarding big business because most applicants would do so. Any such job applicant who speaks critically of big business would reflect his true attitude towards big business.

Distinctiveness cues Distinctiveness refers to the extent to which the same person behaves in the same fashion in different situations. Distinctive behaviours are those that are relatively unique to a situation. Thus, when a professor who, in addition to keeping regular office hours, also stays after class to answer students' questions and attends student functions, can be considered as highly student oriented because of this distinctive behaviour, and this behaviour is internally motivated. Similarly, if a worker goes through many jobs and does well at each job, he can be judged as having real ability.

As proper attributions to the causes of a given behaviour gives us some control over the predictability of such behaviour, it is important to know whether these causes are internal or external in order for us to establish whether such behaviour is motivational or situational. In addition to consistency, consensus and distinctiveness cues, the condition whether an action is taken in the absence of other people would determine if such action was internally motivated. When others are present, we might attribute the action to social pressure. For example, during a committee meeting, a person may go along with the majority view even when he disagrees with it. Thus internal motivation is attributable to an act when the person is free to act and exercise this freedom. Similarly, people with higher moral values or higher status are more free and more willing to express their opinions as they really see them.

Judging Behaviour

We have a tendency to judge the behaviour of other people with different standards than our own behaviour. We tend to attribute causes of behaviour of other people to their internal characteristics rather than situational characteristics. This is known as fundamental attribution error. This error is defined as the "tendency to underestimate the impact of external causes of behaviour and to overestimate the impact of internal causes when trying to understand why people behave the way they do."[20]

Thus, if we see some one steal, we tend to characterize him as a thief or a dishonest person rather than thinking that he was forced to steal for some reason. Even if we are told that the person was forced to steal, we still tend to put more emphasis on his internal character rather than situational characteristics, specially when we believe that in a society such as ours, people have free choices and nobody can be forced to do anything.

In a similar manner, people also make attributions about what causes their own behaviour. We have a tendency to attribute successes to our own efforts and failures to the outside factors. This concept is known as "self serving bias". We tend to overestimate our own abilities so that we take compliments as if they were correct and criticism as if it was wrong. For example, if a person gets his promotion, he will think and feel that he got it because he deserved it due to his hard work and ability. However, if he is refused promotion, he will not think that perhaps he did not really deserve it, but will blame it on the system or a biased boss or simply bad luck. This tendency was illustrated in a "*Toronto News*" story in 1977 as to how drivers described their accidents on insurance claim forms, always blaming situational characteristics.[21] Some of the examples are:

- An invisible car came out of nowhere, struck my car and vanished.
- As I reached an intersection, a hedge sprang up, obscuring my vision.
- A pedestrian hit me and went under my car.

In order to be less prone to the attribution error or self-serving bias, it is necessary to reflect on the situation as well as the person. It is also necessary to objectively consider and identify situational forces that could have affected the person's behaviour. This will assist us in reaching a more accurate decision.

Organizational Implications

Perception has many implications in organizational situations in the sense that biased assessments of ourselves and others can occur in many ways. For example, perceptual distortions can occur during the hiring process and factors like stereotyping, halo effect or selective perception can affect the appraisal. There are several areas of performance appraisal where perceptual distortions can occur. First, a work group is likely to blame other groups or departments for their own failure. For example, the marketing department may blame production department for poor sales or it may blame administration for low hiring and training budgets. Secondly, a superior may evaluate many subordinates at the same time and it is likely that first two or three subordinates in the beginning will be rated higher than the following subordinates due to possible fatigue and boredom. Also, if the first two evaluations happen to be excellent then the following subordinates will be judged by comparison thus creating a bias in the mind of the evaluator. Thirdly, research has indicated that in evaluating performance, both effort and ability are taken into consideration, but more weight is given to effort.[22] Thus a poor performer would be seen as "not trying hard enough", rather than his lacking in ability. Finally, if the superior has a particularly favourable impression of a subordinate, then minor instances of poor performance may be ignored. Halo effect and stereotyping may also influence the evaluation.

4.10 SUMMARY

Perception can be defined as a process whereby the outside environmental information as input is selected, received, organized and interpreted so that this information becomes meaningful and based upon this perception, rational and intelligent decisions can be made. The closer our perception is to reality, the more accurate our decisions would be. Thus perception plays a very important role in our lives.

Perceptual process is influenced by three primary factors. First involves the characteristics of the perceiver such as values, ethics, code of conduct, attitude and so on. Second factor involves the characteristics of the perceived as to his appearance, sophistication, behaviour and so on. Finally, the characteristics of the situation would determine our behaviour that reflects our perception of the given situation.

Perceptual organization is the process by which we group outside stimuli into recognizable and identifiable patterns and whole objects. This can be done through figure-ground principle whereby objects that stand out against a background get our attention. It can also be achieved through perceptual grouping that reflects our tendency to group several individual stimuli into a meaningful and recognizable pattern. For example, if a number of dots are next to each other in a straight line, we group them together and consider their grouping as a straight line.

Our perceptual processes are very selective in nature and usually select those stimuli from the environment that are familiar or fit in a known pattern. Either highly familiar or highly unique stimuli get our attention. Some of the attention getters are: size of the object requiring attention in comparison to objects around it, intensity of the object or message, how often the message is repeated, whether the object is moving in stationary surroundings, whether the object is totally novel or highly familiar and so on.

Since perception can be considered as a process through which we interpret the stimuli around us, learning plays a very important part in this process. Learning induces cognitive awareness about a stimuli, thus recognizing such stimuli and preparing an appropriate response.

The correctness of a response to a given situation would depend upon the accuracy of the perception regarding such a situation. There are certain barriers in our stereotyped preconceived ideas about other people or about situations. For example, we may have preconceived ideas regarding performance of women or elderly. Also, we may be used to making judgements about all the characteristics of a person based upon just one characteristic or based upon our first impression about the person.

Our perception is also attributable to the knowledge of certain causes that may facilitate a certain type of behaviour. Knowing the cause of a behaviour contributes to the accuracy of our perception about such a behaviour. For example, if a supervisor believes that poor productivity is attributed to the poor performance of subordinates, he will have a different behaviour towards them than if he believes the causes of poor performance to be beyond their control. Accordingly, we must ascertain whether the behaviour of other people is due to some of their inherent characteristics or whether such behaviour is in response to certain situational characteristics. This would affect our perception about other people.

4.11 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. Perception refers to interpretation of sensory data. Explain in detail as to what we mean by sensory data and how this data is interpreted.

2. What are the various characteristics of the perceiver, of the perceived and of the situation that affect the perceptual process? Explain how each of these characteristics affects or contributes towards the formation of perception.

3. Explain in detail how the "figure-ground" principle applies to our perception about objects. Give examples.

4. Explain how the principle of perceptual grouping applies to our tendency to observe and perceive objects or people around us. Give examples.

5. The process of perceptual selectivity applies to our tendency to select such stimuli from the external environment that gets attention of one or more of our senses. Explain in detail some of the external factors that relate to the characteristics of objects or people that activate our senses and thus get our attention.

6. Does learning, knowledge and experience play a significant role in developing our perceptual processes? If so, give examples to justify your answers.

7. It is understood that the accuracy of response to a given situation would depend upon the accuracy of the perception of characteristics of such a situation. What are some of the factors that become barriers to perceptual accuracy? Justify your answer with examples wherever possible.

8. What is the relationship between perception and attribution? What are the three major factors that contribute towards the validity of attribution theory?

9. How does perception affect the organizational processes? What type of perceptual processes would be detrimental to the efficient operations of an organization? What role does perception play in the general field of organizational behaviour? Give examples to support your answers.

4.12 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Perception refers to interpretation of sensory data. In other words, sensation involves detecting the presence of a stimulus whereas perception involves understanding what the stimulus means. For example, when we see some thing, the visual stimulus is the light energy reflected from the external world and the eye becomes the sensor. This visual image of the external thing becomes perception when it is interpreted in the visual cortex of the brain. Thus, visual perception refers to interpreting the image of the external world projected on the retina of the eye and constructing a model of the three dimensional world.

2. A person's needs, habits, impact of past experiences, ethics and values, attitudes and personality, all influence the perception process. For example, a person with strong ego needs would look at other people or situations either as ego satisfying or ego threatening, thus perhaps making the perceptions inaccurate. Similarly, less secure people often find faults with others. Secure persons tend to see others as warm and friendly. While percieved may defy logic and objectivity, but we cannot deny that our perceptions about others are influenced by their physical characteristics such as appearance, facial expressions, age, gender, manner of communication as well as personality traits and other forms of behaviours. For example, when we see a person who appears to be assertive and confident, we assume him to be an executive or a leader.

3. Motivation represents an unsatisfied need which creates a state of tension or disequilibria, causing the individual to move in a goal directed pattern towards restoring a state of equilibrium, by satisfying the need. Motivation also plays an important role in influencing the process of perception. A hungry person would be very sensitive to sight or smell of food than a non-hungry person. Similarly, because of the traditional American culture, any mention of sex or a sexually explicit stimulus

would be an instant attention getter. In some tribal societies, nudity may not get any attention at all.

4. Barriers to perceptual accuracy are: Stereotyping, Halo effect, Expectancy, Perceptual defense.

4.13 FURTHER READING

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CASE STUDY

Kumar had a minor brush with the law, when at age 18, he stole a camera from a camera shop. He was found guilty and sentenced to two years in prison. He came from a good family and even though he did not go to college, he had completed high school. In prison, he felt ashamed of what he had done and vowed to be always truthful and honest in his dealings. He became determined to work hard and be successful so that he could leave his criminal past behind and be proud of himself and also make his family proud of him.

After coming out of jail, he was worried if he would be able to get a job. With no college education and with a criminal record, there were many obstacles in getting a job. A friend of the family told Kumar that there was a job available as a loading handyman at a major company that was a wholesale distributor of automobile tyres. This family friend knew the manager of the distribution centre and he had said a few good words about Kumar to him.

When Kumar went to see the manager, Mr. Patel, for an interview, he explained to Mr. Patel his prison background but asked for a chance and promised to work hard at the job. Our perception, generally is that once a criminal, always a criminal. Accordingly, Mr. Patel was at first skeptical about hiring Kumar but decided to put his trust in him and gave him the job. Only Mr. Patel knew his criminal background.

Kumar worked very hard, honestly and diligently and completed his college degree on a part time basis. In 20 years, when Mr. Patel retired, Kumar became the distribution manager for the company.

Kumar had been the manager for one year when Ram came to him for a job as a loading operator for loading tyres on to the trucks. Ram also had gone to jail for stealing and he told Kumar about it but asked for another chance and promised to be an honest worker. Kumar, recalling his own problems with the law 23 years ago, gave him the job. Soon, Ram became friendly with every one and did his job very well.

Ram had been working for about six months when another dock worker complained to the manager that his wallet with money in it was missing. Ram, because of his past became the first suspect. Kumar confronted Ram and asked him about the missing wallet. Ram assured him that he had nothing to do with it. Kumar was very upset about the incident but believed Ram. He was considerably relieved when the wallet was found a few days later.

A new clerk in the personnel department, while updating the personnel files, came across the information regarding Ram's jail term. It became common knowledge when the clerk mentioned it to some associates, rather innocently, that it was very nice of the company to give convicts a second chance.

The following day, some money was discovered missing from the petty cash in the book keeping area. Another worker claimed that he had seen Ram in that area on that day. Naturally all eyes were on Ram. Someone even suggested that Ram had stolen the wallet earlier but returned it when he was questioned. Several employees asked Kumar to fire Ram as he could not be trusted. When confronted, Ram denied any knowledge of the missing money from petty cash.

Kumar had a big dilemma on his hands. If he fires Ram while he is actually innocent, it would be a burden on his conscience. If he does not fire Ram, he would lose everyone's trust and the working environment would be very tense. The evidence was purely circumstantial but everyone perceived Ram to be a thief and believed that he stole the money.

Questions

1. Identify as many personal and situational characteristics as possible in terms of perceptual processes.

2. What more information would Kumar require, if any, before he decides whether to fire Ram or not?

3. Why did everyone believe that Ram had stolen the money when nobody had seen him doing so? Is the perception, "A thief is a thief, is a thief, is a thief" justified? Can a thief never become an honest man? Explain your reasons.

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NOTES

MODULE - 2

UNIT 5   LEARNING AND BEHAVIOUR REINFORCEMENT

Structure

5.0   INTRODUCTION

Learning can be defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour or potential behaviour as a result of direct or indirect experience.[1] There are two primary elements in this definition that must both be present in order to identify the process of learning. First is the element that the change must be relatively permanent. This means that after "learning", our behaviour must be different, either better or worse as compared to our behaviour prior to this experience of learning. For example, if you have taken a course in "word processing" and you have learned how to use a computer to do word processing, then this change is long lasting as long as you continue to exhibit this changed behaviour that means that you continue to use the computer for this purpose. Similarly, you "learn" to drive a car or learn to use chopsticks for eating your Chinese food that you did not know before "learning".

The second aspect of the definition is that this change must occur due to some kind of experience or practice. This learning is not caused by biological maturation. For example, a child does not learn to walk, it is a natural biological phenomenon because the child gains strength as he grows older. Similarly, we do not learn to eat or drink. Accordingly, learning must be because of some interaction with the environment and some feedback from such environment that affects behaviour. This experience does not have to be direct experience such as a secretary enrolling for a typing course and increasing her typing speed. It can also be due to indirect experience of observing behaviour changes in others. For example, if you find out that your co-workers who come late to work are severely reprimanded by their supervisors, you would tend to come to work on time. This is an indirect experience.

Some incidents do not change the behaviour but only the behaviour potential. For example, if someone is thinking of using drugs, but has not actually used them and he finds out that a friend of his died because of drugs then he will not get involved with drugs. This experience has changed his behaviour potential.

It must be understood that the learning itself is not observable, but only the change in behaviour is observable that is the direct result of the process of learning. This change in behaviour must be differentiated from changes in behaviour because of other causes. The causes of such changes include aging, such as being stronger or improvement in

memory in the early formative years, instinctive response tendencies such as a timid person being brave at the time of a crisis and such temporary factors as fatigue or use of drugs. Accordingly, as a unique determinant of behaviour, learning cannot take place unless the learner actually experiences what has to be learned.

5.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

- To define learning as a deliberate effort in acquiring knowledge
- To study classical conditioning as an approach to learning
- To understand other approaches to learning such as operant conditioning, cognitive learning and social learning
- To define various types of learning curves
- To study principle of reinforcement in the learning process
- To analyze various schedules of reinforcement
- To realize some of the limitations in learning and behavioural modification

5.2 THEORIES OF LEARNING

There are four general approaches to learning—classical conditioning, operant conditioning, cognitive learning and social learning. Each of these theories is explained in more detail.

Classical Conditioning

The most well-known experiments on classical conditioning were undoubtedly conducted by I.P. Pavlov[2] with dogs, and he established a Stimulus-Response (S-R) connection. This means that certain responses can be predicted that continuously result from certain induced stimuli. In his experiments, Pavlov put some meat in front of dogs. This presentation of meat is "unconditioned stimulus", that is "unlearned" stimulus. The dogs responded to this stimulus by salivating. This response was instinctive or unconditioned. Pavlov next began to ring a bell at the same time as the meat was presented. Ringing the bell in itself, without the presentation of meat was not connected to any responses. But by ringing the bell at the same time as presentation of meat, Pavlov established a relationship between the two stimuli—the bell and the meat—in the mind of dogs. By continuing this process, the ringing of the bell alone was sufficient stimulus to elicit a response of salivating, even when no meat was presented. Thus the bell became a conditioned stimulus, resulting in conditioned or learned response. This process is shown as follows:
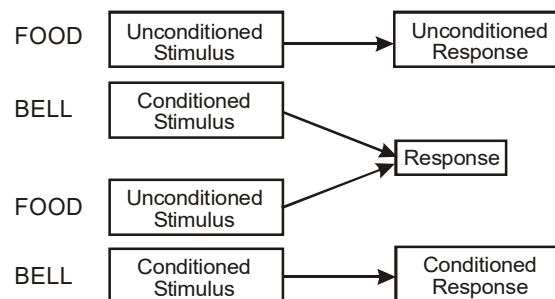
Source: Based upon Ricky W. Griffin and Gregory Moorehead, *Organizational Behavior*, Houghton Mifflin, 1986, p. 106.

Classical conditioning introduces a simple cause-and-effect relationship between one stimulus and one response. It also makes the response reflexive or involuntary after the stimulus-response relationship has been established. This leaves no ground for making choices, that differentiates human beings from dogs. Under certain situations, classical conditioning does explain human behaviour. For example, if someone is always reprimanded by his boss when asked "to step in the boss's office", he may become nervous whenever asked to come to the office of his boss, because of this association.

Another work related example of classical conditioning has been provided by Ivancevich, Szilagyi and Wallace,[3] as follows:

"An illustration of classical conditioning in a work setting would be an airplane pilot learning how to use a newly installed warning system. In this case the behaviour to be learned is to respond to a warning light that indicates that the plane has dropped below a critical altitude on an assigned glide path. The proper response is to increase the plane's altitude. The pilot already knows how to appropriately respond to the trainer's warning to increase altitude (in this case we would say the trainer's warning is an unconditioned stimulus and the corrective action of increasing altitude is an unconditioned response). The training session consists of the trainer warning the pilot to increase altitude every time the warning light goes on. Through repeated pairings of the warning light with the trainer's warning, the pilot eventually learns to adjust the plane's altitude in response to the warning light, even though the trainer is not present. Again, the unit of learning is a new S-R connection or habit."

Since classical conditioning relates to involuntary responses, it does not explain situations where people rationally and objectively choose a course of action. Also, managers are more interested in voluntary and free responses from their workers rather than involuntary and reflex responses.

An alternate approach to classical conditioning was proposed by B.F. Skinner[4], known as operant conditioning in order to explain the more complex behaviour of humans, especially in an organizational setting.

Operant Conditioning

Operant conditioning includes a voluntary change in behaviour and learning occurs as a "consequence" of such change. It is also known as reinforcement theory and it suggests that behaviour is a function of its consequences[5]. It is based upon the premise that behaviour or job performance is not a function of inner thoughts, feelings, emotions or perceptions but is keyed to the nature of the outcome of such behaviour. The consequences of a given behaviour would determine whether the same behaviour is likely to occur in the future or not. Based upon this direct relationship between the consequences and behaviour, the management can study and identify this relationship and try to modify and control behaviour. Thus the behaviour can be controlled by manipulating its consequences. This relationship is built around two principles. First, that behaviour that results in positive rewards tends to be repeated and behaviour with negative consequences tends not to be repeated. Second, based upon such consequences, the behaviour can be predicted and controlled. Hence, certain types of consequences can be used to increase the occurrence of a desired behaviour and other types of consequences can be used to decrease the occurrence of undesired behaviour.

From an organizational point of view, any stimulus from the work environment will elicit a response. The consequence of such a response will determine the nature of the future response. For example, working hard and getting the promotion will probably cause the person to keep working hard in the future.

Cognitive Learning

While both the classical conditioning and operant conditioning result in a Stimulus Response (S-R) situation that is primarily cause and effect phenomenon, cognitive

learning deviates from this model in that, learning is considered as the outcome of deliberate thinking about the problem or situation both intuitively and based upon known facts and responding in an objective and goal oriented manner. Cognition, in fact, is the act of knowing an item of information and this knowledge affects the behaviour of the person so that the information provides cognitive cues towards the expected goal.

The theory of cognitive learning is based upon experiments conducted by Tolman.[6] Using rats in his laboratory, he showed that they learned to run through a complicated maze towards their goal of food. It was observed that rats developed expectations at every choice point in the maze. Thus, they learned to expect that certain cognitive cues related to the choice point could ultimately lead to food. The learning took place when the relationship between the cues and expectancy was strengthened because the cues led to expected goals.

In an organizational setting, based upon Tolman's ideas, some training programs were designed to strengthen the relationship between cognitive cues such as supervision, job procedures and worker expectations such as monetary and other rewards. It was believed that the worker would learn to be more productive by building a relationship between following directions and procedures and expectancy of monetary rewards for these efforts.

Social Learning

Social learning integrates the cognitive and operant approaches to learning. It recognises that learning does not take place only because of environmental stimuli (classical and operant conditioning) or of individual determinism (cognitive approach) but is a blend of both views. It also emphasizes that people acquire new behaviours by observing or imitating others in a social setting. In addition, learning can also be gained by discipline and self-control and an inner desire to acquire knowledge or skills irrespective of the external rewards or consequences. This process of self-control is also partially a reflection of societal and cultural influences on the development and growth of human beings.

Learning by observing others is also known as vicarious learning or modelling, in which another person acts as a role model, whose behaviour we tend to imitate. For example, subordinates may observe their managers in their efforts and attitudes and may try to learn from them and be like them. As Albert Bandura[7] put it:

"Although behaviour can be shared into new patterns to some extent by rewarding and punishing consequences, learning would be exceedingly laborious and hazardous if it proceeded solely on this basis… it is difficult to imagine a socialization process in which the languages, mores, vocational activities, family customs and educational, religious and political practices of a culture are taught to each new member by selective reinforcement of fortuitous behaviours, without benefit of models who exemplify the cultural patterns in their own behaviour. Most of the behaviours that people display are learned either deliberately or inadvertently, through the influence of example."

In addition to observing others as role models, human beings have the capacity of self-regulation. By simply thinking about their behaviour, they can change their behaviour towards betterment and in accordance with the norms of social and organizational living. This process of self-thinking can be reinforced by the help of a friend whom you trust or by organized psychiatric evaluation and assistance.

Acquisition of Complex Behaviours

While operant conditioning and reinforcement is probably the most important single principle for explaining learning and predicting and controlling behaviour, there are some other principles.

5.3   THE LEARNING CURVES

This principle of learning involves the time factor and repeated efforts in order to gradually increase the strength of the response. This is specially true when the behaviours to be learned are comparatively complex such as skills that are learned and improved by practice. For example, a person who wants to learn typing would execute awkward strokes in the beginning, but under guided supervision, with time and conscious repeated efforts, the skill is improved and as the person gains confidence, the rate of typing speed increases until a maximum rate possible for him is reached. The limiting factor may depend upon motivation, coordination or other physical constraints. This means that as the practice time increases, the degree of skill also increases. However, "the rate of increase" in the degree of skill is higher in the beginning but decreases with time until it reaches zero and the person has obtained the maximum skill. This is known as diminishing-returns curve as shown below:

This type of curve reflects learning to perform most of the specialized routine-type jobs and the horizontal line above the curve suggests a limit beyond which the performance cannot improve and with proper motivation and dedication an individual may reach this absolute limit. For example, one typist may learn to type sixty words per minute and may not to be able to improve upon it and another typist may reach a maximum of eighty words per minute. However there is a maximum finite limit for every person.
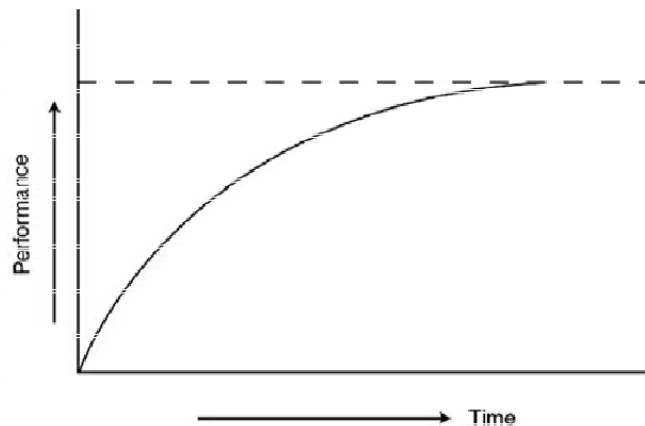
Another type of learning curve is the "increasing-returns curve" which is just the opposite of "diminishing-returns curve", in the sense that there are certain learning skills where the rate of increased learning is slow in the beginning and then it increases until the maximum potential for learning is reached, as shown below:
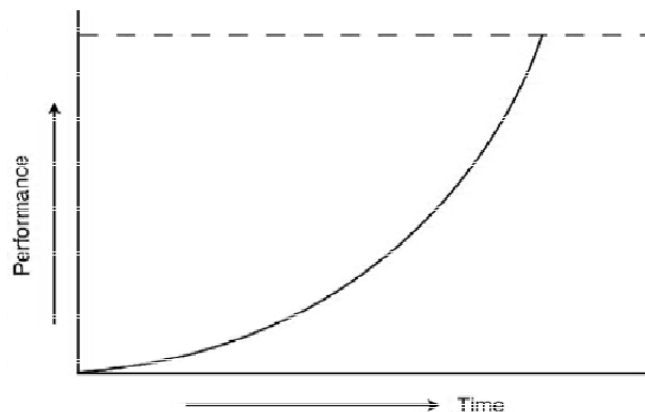
This curve is less common and usually occurs when a person is learning a completely unfamiliar and new task. For example, some engineers and market researchers may find

that initial learning may progress very slowly and after sometime, learning becomes much faster.

A combination of both the "diminishing-returns curve" and the "increasing-returns curve" follows an "S-shaped curve" as shown.
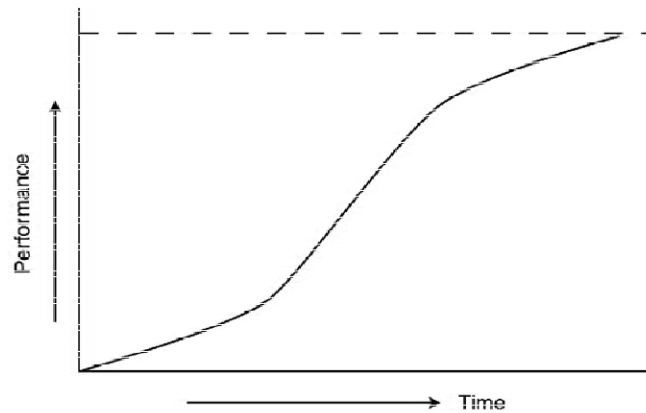
Theoretically, if a person is totally new to the skill that he is learning, then all learning will probably follow an S-shaped curve. The lower portion of the curve represents the initial stages of acquiring a skill with very slow learning, followed by successively greater returns, eventually reaching the absolute limit. Learning many of the highly skilled jobs in a technical industry might follow an S-curve.

A rather complex pattern of skill acquisition is shown in the following diagram.
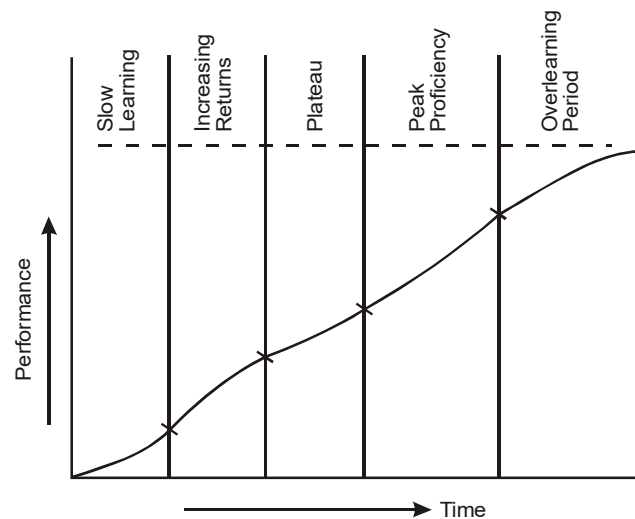
Source: Based upon George Strauss and Leonard Sayles, *Personnel: The Human Problems of Management*, Prentice Hall, 1972, p. 451.

The initial stage in the above curve is that of slow learning because of the newness and difficulty of skill. Once the learner has acquired some basics of his operations, he gains some confidence and thus the second stage consists of increasing returns. When the learner feels that he has acquired the required skill, he reaches a comparative plateau where no further gains in skills are acquired. However, this may be a false plateau and the learner may be developing new ideas in improving efficiency. The development and application of new ideas may further improve upon his skills until he reaches the peak in efficiency, beyond which the skill becomes a kind of habit and an integral part of operations. This period is termed as over learning because the learning becomes automatic and unforgetable. As an example, a person learning typing skills may be very

slow in the beginning when he types one letter at a time. Then he increases his proficiency and learns to type entire words without looking at the individual letters. Then a kind of plateau occurs because of constraints of looking at words and then typing them. The top typist may then increase his performance still further by scanning phrases and sentences and typing reflexively and automatically and this he never forgets.

5.4 TRANSFER OF LEARNING

The learning curves assume that the person is learning new skills and has no previous proficiency in that skill. However Berelson and Steiner[8] suggested that learning can be transferred from one situation to another and the extent of such transfer is a function of the extent of similarity in the stimulus or response. If a person experiences a similar situation that he dealt with before, then some of his previous experience would be transferred to the new situation and his learning time in the new situation would be considerably decreased.

There are two concepts that help in explaining the transfer of learning. These are as follows:

Generalisation   No two situations are exactly alike. However, responses to certain situations can be applied to somewhat similar situations. Because of the principle of generalisation, the individual can adjust to new learning situations more smoothly because of the previous learning experiences. Otherwise, it would be extremely difficult to adopt to every new situation that a person encounters. For example, a student in business administration learns the actual management and business problems through case studies during his classes. It is expected that the insights and methodologies developed during these case analyses will be "generalised" to career experiences.

Discrimination   While generalisation is a reaction to "similarities" of stimuli or responses, discrimination is the ability to differentiate between relatively similar stimuli where generalisation would yield negative consequences. For example, a red light and a green light are both "light and color stimuli", but elicit different responses from the driver of an automobile. Thus the driver is able to "discriminate" between the two similar stimuli.

From organizational point of view, another example is quoted by Fred Luthens.[9] Suppose that there are two equally productive workers. Both workers produce great quantity, but one has a lot of rejects and the other pays attention to quality as well. The supervisor will learn to discriminate between the two workers, responding more positively to the high quality producer. Thus the element of quality becomes the discriminating factor.

5.5 PRINCIPLE OF REINFORCEMENT

Reinforcement is the process by which certain types of behaviours are strengthened. Thus a "reinforcer" is any stimuli that causes a certain behaviour to be repeated or inhibited. The organizations are interested that the employees behave in a manner that is desirable by the organization. Conversely, they are interested in eliminating undesirable behaviour among workers. By introducing some reinforcers, the organizations can maintain or increase the probability of such behaviours as quality oriented performance, accurate decision making, high level of attendance and punctuality and so on. Some reinforcers work by their application to a situation, while other reinforcers work by their removal from the situation. Thus these reinforcers work as behaviour modifiers.

There are four basic reinforcement strategies: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment and extinction. The first two reinforcers, namely positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement both seek to encourage "desirable" behaviour

by different approaches. The remaining two enforcers, namely punishment and extinction, both seek to discourage "undesirable" behaviour through different approaches. These reinforcers are explained in more detail.

Positive Reinforcement

A positive reinforcement is a reward for a desired behaviour. The reward should be sufficiently powerful and durable so that it increases the probability of occurrence of desirable behaviour. Money is probably the most powerful reinforcement for positive behaviour, since money can be used for a number of other resources. However, some other positive reinforcers are participative decision making, recognition for a job well done, challenging tasks, freedom to decide how the job is to be done and so on.

Since all individuals have different motivations for performance, it is important that the positive reinforcers be individually tailored in order to facilitate the repetition of desired behaviour from a given individual. This means that the reinforcer must be valued by the employee. Thus money would be less of an enforcer to an employee who values praise for his performance more. Additionally, the reward must be directly linked with behaviour so that "the greater the degree of performance of the employee, the greater should be the reward".

Not only the extent of the reward but also the timing of the reward is important: This is known as the principle of immediate reinforcement. The reinforcer will have a more profound effect if it is administered soon after the desired behaviour has occurred. The longer the delay in rewarding desired behaviour, the less effective such a reward will be as a positive reinforcer.

Negative Reinforcement

Also known as "escape conditioning" or "avoidance learning", it is also a method of strengthening desired behaviour. However, unlike the positive reinforcement where an employee works hard to gain financial and other rewards, under avoidance learning, the employee works hard to avoid repercussion, reprimand and other negative aspects of the organizational environment. For example, the manager may like his subordinates to dress in a business suit when they come to work and may criticise individuals who dress casually. To avoid criticism, the employees may dress well to keep the manager happy. Thus they are engaging in desirable behaviour to avoid an unpleasant or aversive consequence. Similarly the students study hard, write term papers and do their homework on time to avoid the consequences of failure in the exams, and we park our car at the right parking space even if it is inconvenient in order to avoid getting a ticket.

Extinction

This type of reinforcement is applied to reduce undesirable behaviour, specially when such behaviours were previously rewarded. This means that if rewards are removed from behaviours that were previously reinforced, then such behaviours would become less frequent and eventually die out. The method involved is a suitable form of punishment in the form of withholding the positive enforcement or simply ignoring the undesirable behaviour. For example, if a student in the class, is highly mischievous and disturbs the class, he is probably asking for attention. If the attention is given to him, he will continue to exhibit that behaviour. However, if he is continuously ignored then such undesirable behaviour will vanish over a period of time. To such a student, attention is a positive enforcement and when this enforcement is withheld from him, his disturbing behaviour is expected to decrease in frequency and eventually disappear.

From organizational point of view, if an employee is consistently late to work and thus consistently fails to get praise from his superior and is not recommended for a pay raise, then we would expect this non-reinforcement to lead to "extinction" of the habit or behaviour of coming late to work.

Punishment

Punishment is the most controversial method of behaviour modification and involves delivering an unpleasant consequence contingent upon the occurrence of an undesirable behaviour. The punishment process is similar to the extinction process in that both have the effect of decreasing and eliminating the undesirable behaviour, but technically there is a difference. In the extinction process, we withhold rewards for behaviour that has previously been rewarded because the behaviour was not considered undesirable previously. The punishment process, on the other hand consists of "application" of an undesirable consequence or "withdrawal" of a desirable consequence for an undesirable behaviour that has never been associated with the reward before.

According to B.F. Skinner,[10] who has done extensive work in the area of human behaviour, punishment is still the most common technique of behavioural control in today's life. When a child misbehaves, he is spanked. If a worker does not behave according to the way the organization wants him to behave, he is fired. If a person does not behave as the society or law wants him to behave, he is ridiculed, or ignored or he is punished by arrest and jail. All religions threaten punishment in the life after, if a person does not behave according to God's and religious rules.

Does the punishment system work? Is it effective in changing behaviours that may be undesirable from other's point of view but may not be undesirable from the point of view of the person who is exhibiting such behaviour? Does the prison system reform the criminal? Does spanking make a good child? This area has received considerable attention and has also become highly controversial in this day and age. It is suggested that while punishment has immediate and short term effect in changing behaviour, the long term effects are highly questionable. A driver who gets fined for jumping a red light where he is supposed to stop which is undesirable behaviour, may vow never to do it again at that time, but as the time passes, he will do it again. Similarly, if an employee is reprimanded by his manager for taking unauthorised work breaks, the behaviour may stop, but only when the manager is around. When the manager is not visible, these breaks may occur once again. Specially, if a worker is punished for an occasional undesired behaviour, it will have a negative effect on his morale, make him bitter and this will affect his social interaction. On the other hand, the manager who frequently punishes subordinates may find that his presence in the work unit is not welcome and this affects the cordial working of the group in a negative way. Accordingly, management usually discourages application of any form of punishment and usually the positive reinforcement techniques are preferred.

However, there are situations where punishment becomes necessary in behaviour modification. Many of our life experiences teach us how to behave by means of punishment. The burned child has been punished for touching flame and he is not likely to touch the flame again. Eating unsuitable food, drinking too much, falling off a bicycle or going out in the rain without an umbrella are all forms of punishment for an undesirable behaviour and we often learn effective behaviour as a result.[11] Furthermore, certain undesirable behaviours must be punished, otherwise they will have far reaching effects. For example, an employee who sexually harasses a co-worker or a worker who steals from his place of employment should not go unpunished.[12]

Accordingly, in situations where punishment is desirable as a means of behaviour modification, certain guidelines would make it more effective thus minimising its dysfunctional consequences. First, an old rule of thumb should be followed, which is "praise in public; punish in private." A private reprimand can be constructive, while a reprimand of an employee in front of others could be highly embarrassing and is likely to cause undesirable emotional effects and behaviour. Second, apply punishment before the undesired behaviour has been strongly reinforced. Thus the punishment should immediately follow the undesired behaviour. An unnecessary long time interval between

the punishment and the occurrence of undesired behaviour tends to reduce the effectiveness of the punishment. For example, the employee who comes late should be reprimanded the second time rather than the tenth time he comes late. Thirdly, the punishment should focus on the behaviour and not on the person. The employee should be informed clearly as to what he did wrong and what was the desired alternative behaviour, and the punishment should be proportionate, fair, impersonal, consistent over time and impartial.

The debate is still going on whether the concept of punishment should be modified in such a manner that it becomes the last resort. Punishment should be restricted to those undesirable behaviors that result in considerable damage to social order or organizational operations. Furthermore, punishment should not only be proportional to the effect of the undesired behavior but also should be sufficiently effective. It there are some definite and identifiable causes of undesirable behavior, these causes should be addressed and if such undesirable behavior still exists then punishment would be justified. It should further be noted that the punishment should be such that it does not create hostility to such a degree that the solution becaues more harmful than the problem. Hence the obtain of punishment should be undertaken when other methods of change in undesirable behavior have not been effective.

These four reinforcement strategies are illustrated below as an example where a superior advises his employees to come to work on time.

In general, reinforcement as an element of operant conditioning is a very good tool to modify the behaviour and channel it in the right direction. However, the management must be sufficiently skilled in the area of interpersonal relationships and must use techniques that highlight the interpersonal relationships. This would require close supervision and contact with the worker so that the worker sees the necessity for change as well as the potential benefits of such a change because it is much easier to change the person who is willing to change. Accordingly, the management must develop a sense of confidence in the worker, not ridicule him for his mistakes but gently guide him to do better and keep up with the promise of benefits, once the behaviour changes.
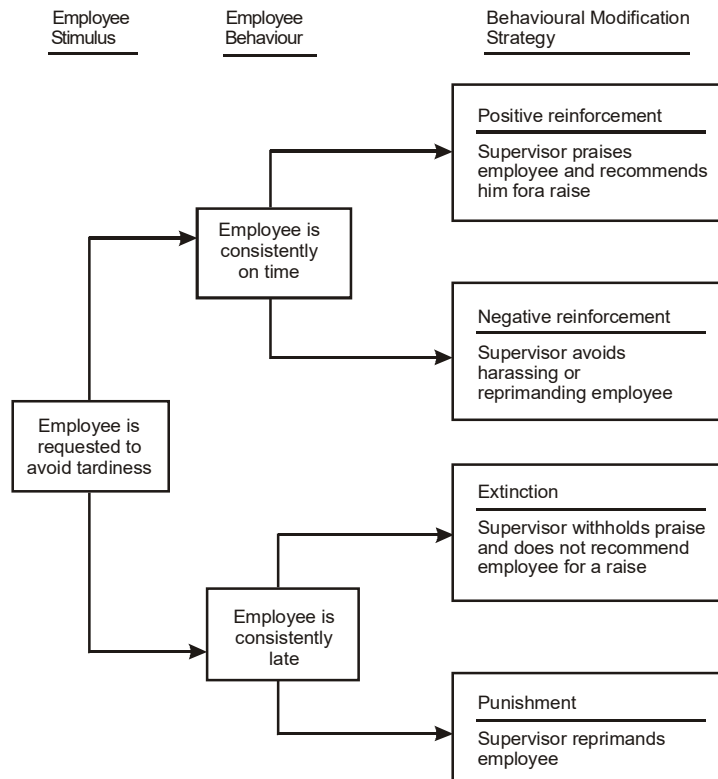
5.6   SCHEDULES OF REINFORCEMENT

While it is necessary to know as to which type of reinforcement would be most effective in a given situation, it is equally important to examine the various ways or "schedules" of administering these techniques of reinforcement. How often should reinforcement be provided for the desired behaviour to be learned? Should we apply a reinforcer immediately after the desirable behaviour occurs or should we wait for some period of time? Should every correct behaviour be reinforced or only a portion of correct responses? As Castello and Zalkind[13] put it, "the speed with which learning takes place and also how lasting its effects will be, is determined by the timing of reinforcement". Accordingly, management must be aware of various reinforcement schedules so that a proper schedule can be selected that will have maximum impact on employee performance.

The various ways by which the reinforcement may be administered can be categorized into two groups. These are continuous and partial reinforcement schedules. These categories are explained in more detail.

Continuous Schedule

A continuous schedule is the one in which the desirable behaviour is reinforced every time it occurs and the reinforcement is immediate. This results in fast acquisition of the desired response and the learning is rapid. However the behaviour learned by continuous reinforcement strategy tends not to persist when such reinforcement is applied less frequently or is stopped. Continuous reinforcement strategy is not always feasible in the organizational environment where continuous observation of behaviour is not possible due to time constraints imposed upon management. Also continuous observation of subordinate performance is not conducive to good interaction.

Partial Reinforcement Schedule

A partial reinforcement schedule rewards desirable behaviour at specific intervals. It is believed that "behaviour tends to be persistent when it is learned under conditions of partial and delayed reinforcement."[14] Partial reinforcement schedules result in slower learning in comparison with continuous reinforcement schedule but the learning is more persistent with stronger and long lasting retention. There are four kinds of partial reinforcement schedules. These are:

Fixed-interval schedule   In this type of schedule, a response is reinforced at fixed intervals of time. For example, workers get their paycheck every Friday and the paycheck itself can be considered as a reinforcer for work performance. Fixed-interval schedules produce an uneven pattern of responses. The highest rate of response occurs fairly close to the time when reinforcement occurs. For example if performance appraisals are conducted every six months at a prefixed time, then employees are likely to work harder as the time for appraisal nears. Similarly, if you have three equally spaced announced tests during the semester in your class, you will see that the students will study harder as the time of test approaches because the test itself is a reinforcer and their studying behaviour is reinforced by the opportunity to demonstrate their knowledge and earn a good grade.

Variable-interval schedule   In this type of schedule, the reinforcement is administered at random times that cannot be predicted by the employee. "Surprise quizzes" in the classroom is one of the examples of variable-interval schedules. Similarly, some bank auditors tend to schedule their visits, according to a variable-interval schedule arranged around some average number of inspections per year. This acts as a reinforcer since the visit of the officers is unannounced and the bank should be continuously prepared for

inspection. Another example would be that of a security guard who would not dare leave his post for fear that the supervisor may come to check on him when he is not there.

Fixed-ratio schedules In a fixed-ratio schedule, the reinforcement is administered only upon the completion of a given number of desirable responses. Reward is consistently tied to the output. An example would be the piece-rate pay system where rewards are proportional to the number of items produced. Similarly a professor may receive a promotion after a certain number of research articles have been published. It elicits an immediate and high rate of response since the higher rate is tied in with higher rewards. The person soon determines that reinforcement is based upon the number of responses and performs the responses as quickly as possible in order to receive the reward.[15]

Variable-ratio Schedule It is similar to fixed-ratio schedule except that the number of responses required before a reinforcement is determined, are not fixed but vary from situation to situation. However, the number of responses vary around some predetermined average. An example would be gambling or fishing. In both cases the payoff occurs at varied and unpredictable times. In gambling, the slot machines are programmed according to variable-ratio schedule, there is a pay-off after a variable number of attempts and the ratio of pay-off to plays is approximately fixed. For example, if the pay-off is fixed after 100 plays on the average then it could come after 75 plays or after 125 plays thus averaging 100 plays. Some managers plan their rewards for their subordinates on irregular basis. For example, the first bonus to the sales person may come after five sales and the second bonus may be given after ten sales with the average bonus schedule being about seven sales.

The variable-ratio schedule elicits a rapid rate of response. The value of the reward and its unpredictability keeps the behaviour at high level of desirability. Thus compulsive gamblers keep on gambling because of the random possibility of winning.

5.7 ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

Organizational behaviour modification may be defined as 'the systematic use of learning principles to influence organizational behaviour'. Organizations make use of these principles in bringing about a desirable change in the behaviour of their employees. If some behaviour patterns are exemplary, they are made into examples for others to follow. At the same time, any undesirable behaviour is eliminated. There are various strategies that help in carrying out this process. Positive reinforcement is one such technique, whereby participative decision making, recognition for a job well done, challenging tasks, etc., are practised. Organizational behaviour is considered of prime importance today as the entire operations are centred around it.

Limitations of Behaviour Modification

While in general, some of the behavioural modification techniques, as discussed previously are effective in eliciting desirable behaviours from employees in work situations, there are some limitations that make these techniques ineffective in certain situations. First, behaviour modification is an overall structure and ignores individual differences. People have different needs, desires, values and abilities. They cannot all respond to the same stimuli in the same manner. For example, not all people value praise for their performance as a desired reinforcement, nor are all people equally skilled to carry out the desired behaviours. As Hammer and Organ[16] put it, "what is reinforcing to one person may not be reinforcing to another person because of the latter's past history of satiation, deprivation and conditioning operations." This means that within the bounds of organizational policies and goals, reinforcement programmes should be tailor-

made to motivate each employee to apply his best potential. This means that management, when hiring, should be careful in selecting those employees, who most closely accept the rewards offered by the organization. Alternately, the management can invite the employees to participate in the formulation of reinforcement policies. This would allow employees to have a greater input in designing their work environments. As long as the employees are given the feeling that their participation and input is genuinely and sincerely sought by the management, it would lead to such reinforcement policies that would result in desirable behaviour outcomes.

Secondly, behaviour modification programs assume that extrinsic rewards are the key factors in behaviour modification and they ignore the fact that employees can be intrinsically motivated. The extrinsic rewards in the form of money and praise, primarily satisfy the lower level needs, while there are some people who strive for higher level needs such as self-esteem and self actualisation that are satisfied by the nature of the job and pride in accomplishing such a job. Thus, management can also look into redesigning jobs in such a manner as to provide the intrinsic motivation to employees that in turn will induce desirable behaviour.

Third limitation of behaviour modification is that it ignores prevailing work-group norms. It is important for the management to recognise the power of work-group norms. Most people working together tend to be emotionally attached to each other, thus sympathizing with each other's sacrificing personal needs in favour of groups needs. This is reflected in strikes and protests by all members of the group, even when some members may not agree with the validity of the values for which the group is protesting.

The power of group-norms can reduce the effectiveness of most reward systems. Specially, when the employees feel that they are being exploited by the management, then group norms emerge that aim to control the degree of employee cooperation with the management. For example, if the group feels that their higher productivity is rewarded simply by praise and not by higher pay, they may resent such reinforcement programme and restrict the output. Accordingly, management must respect the work-group norms and must give the employees a feeling that they are an integral part of the organization and that they will not be exploited in any manner that would only benefit the organization.

5.8 SUMMARY

Learning is a continuous process in life and it can be defined as a comparatively permanent change in our behaviour and activities brought about by knowledge of new ideas and skills. It is an induced change and not a natural change that comes as a part of growing up. This change must be a lasting one, otherwise it cannot be attributed to the process of learning.

There are four approaches to learning. First is known as the classical conditioning that is based upon Stimulation-Response (S-R) connection, where a given and predictable response occurs with a given induced stimuli. It introduces a simple cause and effect relationship between one stimulus and one response. For example, when we get a flat tyre, our initial reaction is to get mad. The second approach is known as operant conditioning proposed by B.F. Skinner and it suggests that behaviour is a function of the consequences of such behaviour. Desirable consequences result in desirable behaviour. For example if a promotion is given due to hard work on the part of an individual, then hard work becomes a pattern of behaviour for that individual.

The third approach known as cognitive learning deviates from the other two in that learning is considered as the outcome of deliberate thinking about the situation and responding in an objective manner. Cognition basically involves known information and this information provides cognitive cues towards the expected goal. Finally, the fourth

approach is known as social learning and it integrates the cognitive and operant approaches to learning. It recognizes that learning does not take place only because of environmental stimuli or only becames of individual determination but is a blend of both views. This approach emphasises that learning takes place due to social interaction or by observing the behaviour of role models in a social setting.

Learning is time oriented and behaviours change slowly over a period of time. Behaviours that involve skills are learned and improved upon with practice. For example, learning to use a computer may be slow and tedious in the beginning, but under guided supervision, time, and conscious repeated efforts, the skill is slowly improved until the maximum potential is reached.

Certain behaviour can be strengthened or inhibited by appropriate stimuli. This process is known as reinforcement. The reward for the desired behaviour is known as positive reinforcement. Similarly, negative reinforcement induces employees to work hard not so much to get rewards but to avoid being fired. The third approach to reinforcing a given behaviour is known as extinction and it involves simply ignoring the undesirable behaviour. Finally, the actual punishment for undesirable behaviour does sometimes change such behaviour. For example, failing a student for not studying hard, sometimes makes the student work hard to get better grades.

Reinforcement can be on a continuous basis so that every time a desirable behaviour occurs, a desirable consequence is applied. Or it can be partial and spread over a period of time. It can also be a one-time reward such as promotion for a continuous desirable behaviour sustained over a long period of time.

People differ in many ways regarding their background, their skills and their expectations. Hence same type of reinforcement may not bring about similar results for all people. Accordingly, management must recognise these differences and develop reinforcement process and programs with employee needs in mind.

5.9 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. Explain the concept of learning in detail and with examples. How does learning differ from the change in behaviour that occurs due to natural growing up such as a baby "learning" to talk?

2. How do you relate Pavlov's experiments with dogs to the human behaviour? Give examples as to how a known stimuli results in a known response.

3. Explain in detail the various approaches to learning. How does each approach differ from one another? Which one of these approaches explains the process of learning more completely?

4. Is any of the four theories of learning applicable to changing complex behaviours, where the exhibited behaviour is a combination of many undesirable behaviours? Support your answer by justified reasoning and examples.

5. Describe in detail the various types of learning curves. Give examples of "diminishing-returns curves" and "increasing-returns curves".

6. Explain in detail the four basic reinforcement strategies employed in encouraging desirable behaviour and discouraging undesirable behaviour.

7. Does punishment strategy work in changing undesirable behaviours? Does the legal punishment system reform the criminals into law abiding citizens? Justify your reasoning.

8. Explain in detail the schedules of reinforcement. In your judgement, which one of these schedules is more suitable for continuous desirable behaviour? Justify your assertions.

9. What are the limitations of behaviour modification? Is there any type of behaviour that cannot be changed? If so, give reasons and examples.

5.10 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Social learning integrates the cognitive and operant approaches to learning. It recognises that learning does not take place only because of environmental stimuli (classical and operant conditioning) or of individual determinism (cognitive approach) but is a blend of both views. It also emphasizes that people acquire new behaviours by observing or imitating others in a social setting. In addition, learning can also be gained by discipline and self-control and an inner desire to acquire knowledge or skills irrespective of the external rewards or consequences. However, cognitive learning is based upon experiments conducted by Tolman. Using rats in his laboratory, he showed that they learned to run through a complicated maze towards their goal of food. It was observed that rats developed expectations at every choice point in the maze. Thus, they learned to expect that certain cognitive cues related to the choice point could ultimately lead to food. The learning took place when the relationship between the cues and expectancy was strengthened because the cues led to expected goals.

2. Classical conditioning introduces a simple cause-and-effect relationship between one stimulus and one response. It also makes the response reflexive or involuntary after the stimulus-response relationship has been established. This leaves no ground for making choices, that differentiates human beings from dogs. Under certain situations, classical conditioning does explain human behaviour. For example, if someone is always reprimanded by his boss when asked "to step in the boss's office", he may become nervous whenever asked to come to the office of his boss, because of this association. While Operant conditioning includes a voluntary change in behaviour and learning occurs as a "consequence" of such change. It is also known as reinforcement theory and it suggests that behaviour is a function of its consequences. It is based upon the premise that behaviour or job performance is not a function of inner thoughts, feelings, emotions or perceptions but is keyed to the nature of the outcome of such behaviour.

3. The learning curves assume that the person is learning new skills and has no previous proficiency in that skill. This type of curve reflects learning to perform most of the specialized routine-type jobs and the horizontal line above the curve suggests a limit beyond which the performance cannot improve and with proper motivation and dedication an individual may reach this absolute limit.
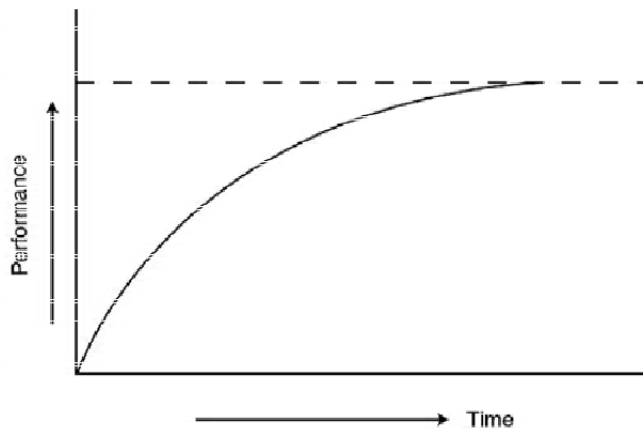
4. A positive reinforcement is a reward for a desired behaviour. The reward should be sufficiently powerful and durable so that it increases the probability of occurrence

of desirable behaviour. Money is probably the most powerful reinforcement for positive behaviour, since money can be used for a number of other resources. However, some other positive reinforcers are participative decision making, recognition for a job well done, challenging tasks, freedom to decide how the job is to be done and so on. It is also a method of strengthening desired behaviour. However, unlike the positive reinforcement where an employee works hard to gain financial and other rewards, under avoidance learning, the employee works hard to avoid repercussion, reprimand and other negative aspects of the organizational environment.

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CASE STUDY

Billions of dollars are spent each year on purchases of perfumes and other cosmetics in America. Most cosmetics are sold, through elite department stores. However, one cosmetics sales company, Avon Products felt that the department stores were highly impersonal and their locations were generally not close to the residential areas and hence the company became successful by visiting women at their homes, specially in the areas outside the major cities and selling the cosmetics to them on a more personal basis. Another successful company with similar but slightly different sales techniques is Mary Kay Cosmetics Inc.

Mary Kay Ash started her company in 1963. Her approach was to market the cosmetics, specially skin care products directly to consumers at previously arranged parties at somebody's house, where one of the company representatives known as "beauty consultants" would informally meet with up to five potential customers, give them a sales pitch on the usefulness of the product and take orders for the product. The idea became so successful that within 20 years, the company had a sales force of 200,000 people, mostly women, working under 4,000 regional sales directors.

Full time employees of the company earn over $25,000 per year and top sales people are rewarded with vacations and other material rewards such as diamond rings, mink coats and even automobiles. Mary Kay Ash herself introduced the concept of awarding a pin, called "ladder of success pin" where a diamond is put on each "rung" of the pin for meeting successive sales goals. The number of diamonds on the pin would show the degree of the sales success. This pin is envied as a symbol of success and every one attempts to have as many diamonds on the pin as possible.

Each regional sales director holds regular meetings with the beauty consultants on Monday nights discussing different selling ideas and promoting social interaction with each other. The meeting is structured to build and maintain motivation, teach new sales skills and reward performance. The first hour is usually devoted to an orientation for new prospective beauty consultants. The meetings are informal in nature and the director praises the sales accomplishments of various consultants who are at the meeting. The group applauds and congratulates those who did well in sales.

In the same meeting, new goals are set for all consultants individually on the basis of feedback and suggestions of these consultants. If a consultant is unable to meet her goal, there is no negative feedback or repercussions. Instead, other experienced consultants give suggestions as to how the individual consultant can reach her goal.

Questions

1. Explain as to what steps the company is taking to reinforce positive behaviour patterns for achieving sales success.
2. Could the same techniques of positive reinforcement be used in other marketing oriented organizations? Give reasons.
3. Does the monetary or material reward always act as a reinforcer? If not, what other types of rewards can be used to reinforce positive behaviour?

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UNIT 6   PERSONALITY

Structure

6.0   INTRODUCTION

Personality is a concept that we use continuously in our day-to-day routine when dealing with people. We talk about people as having a good personality or a bad personality or arrogant and aggressive personality. Sometimes we refer to disagreements among people as being due to personality conflicts. Personality can be reflected in a person's temperament and is a key factor influencing individual behaviour in organizations. Often the wrong type of personality of a superior proves disastrous in terms of worker unrest and protests. Sometimes the personality difficulties are the root cause of labour strikes. No matter how good the superior is in technical knowledge or other behavioural characteristics, it is the "temperament" of the superior that is crucial in cordial interaction with subordinates.

Personality has been defined by Salvatore Maddi[1] as follows:

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

There are several aspects of this definition that need to be considered. The first aspect is that of relative stability of characteristics. These characteristics account for "consistent patterns" of behaviour. If a person's entire personality could change suddenly, then we would not be able to predict his personality traits. For example, if a person is sometimes warm and friendly and at other times he is cold and hostile, then we cannot conclude that his personality is warm and friendly. Accordingly, when assessing a person's personality, we need to look for characteristics that are relatively stable or that change only very slowly over a long period of time.

The second aspect is the "commonalties and differences" in the behaviour of people. We are interested in understanding as to what an individual has in common with others as well as what sets that individual apart from others. Every person is in certain aspects,

- like all other people
- like some other people
- like no other person

Organizationally, a manager must understand that all subordinates are not alike and that each subordinate is unique and may or may not respond to the same stimuli, such as pay raise or reprimands.

Finally, we are interested in such aspects of personality that induce people to behave in a manner as required by social pressures or biological pressures. For example, if your boss wants you to do a job in a certain way, you will do it even if you disagree with your boss. That is a kind of social pressure. Similarly, you will stop working and go for lunch because you are hungry. That is a biological pressure. Hence, these behaviours do not require any explanation in terms of personality factors because the causes of such behaviour are clearly understood.

6.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

- To study the concept of personality as a reflection of individualistic characteristics
- To differentiate between type A and type B personalities
- To learn the nature of factors contributing toward formation of personality
- To understand various dimensions of personality
- To differentiate between introvert and extrovert personality
- To know the psychoanalytical theory of personality
- To study personality as a reflection of inborn traits
- To study personality as explained by self-concept theory and social learning theory

6.2 TYPE A AND TYPE B PERSONALITY

One dimension of personality that is getting attention both from organizational as well as medical researchers is the Type A and Type B behaviour profiles. A person exhibiting Type A behaviour is generally restless, impatient with a desire for quick achievement and perfectionism. Type B is much more easy going, relaxed about time pressure, less competitive and more philosophical in nature. Some of the characteristics of Type A personality are given below[2].

- Is restless, so that he always moves, walks and eats rapidly.
- Is impatient with the pace of things, dislikes waiting and is impatient with those who are not impatient.
- Does several things at once.
- Tries to schedule more and more in less and less time, irrespective of whether everything is done or not.
- Usually does not complete one thing before starting on another.
- Uses nervous gestures such as clenched fists and banging on tables.
- Does not have time to relax and enjoy life.

Type B behaviour is just the opposite and is more relaxed, sociable and has a balanced outlook on life.

Type A behaviour profile tends to be obsessive and, managers with such behaviour are hard-driving, detailed-oriented people with high performance standards. Such managers have difficulties in creating cordial interpersonal relationships and create a lot of stress for themselves and the people they deal with. They specially feel pressurised if they have to complete a task within a given deadline. Type B persons on the other hand do put in extra effort in order to meet a deadline but do not feel pressurised.

Those persons who are classified as Type A have a strong desire and tendency to control all aspects of the situation and if they are unable to control a situation, they react with anger

and frustration. Because of their obsession with perfection, they are more apt to fear of failure and even if their work is good, they tend to underestimate the quality of their work. In the case of negative outcomes, they blame themselves more than the external factors.

A comprehensive identification of Type A personality is given by Karen A. Mathews[3] as follows:

> "The Type A pattern can be observed in any person who is aggressively involved in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons. The overt manifestations of this struggle include explosive, accelerated speech, a heightened pace of living, impatience with slowness, concentrating on more than one activity at a time, self-preoccupation, dissatisfaction with life, evaluation of the worthiness of one's activities in terms of numbers, a tendency to challenge and compete with others even in noncompetitive situations, and a free floating hostility. The major facets of "core" elements of the behaviour pattern are extremes of aggression, easily aroused hostility, a sense of time urgency and competitive achievement surviving."

Research has indicated that such patterns of behaviour as exhibited by Type A personality profile, lead to health problems, specially heart related illness.[4] In contrast, Type B persons may be hard working but feel no pressing conflict with people or time and hence are not prone to stress and coronary problems.

6.3 MAJOR CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO PERSONALITY

While we know what personality is, we are interested to know how a given personality is formed. What determines an individual's personality? Personality can be compared to a jigsaw puzzle in which we are interested in finding out the sources of all the pieces in the puzzle as well as their interrelationships.

There are two broad categories of factors that influence the formation and development of personality. These are heredity factors and environmental factors. It is debatable as to which of these factors have a greater influence on the structure of personality. Some behaviour scientists argue that personality characteristics are derived from heredity factors and the right type of environment only brings them out. Others feel that the effect of environment is quite strong. According to Maier,[5] "knowledge, skill and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behaviour. Learned modifications in behaviour are not passed on to children, they must be acquired by them through their own personal experience."

The probable consensus is that heredity and environment jointly affect personality development. The full potential of a person may or may not be achieved due to environmental constraints and requirements, but the potential for development, both physically and psychologically is determined by the complex set of genes.

The factors affecting personality development are illustrated as follows:
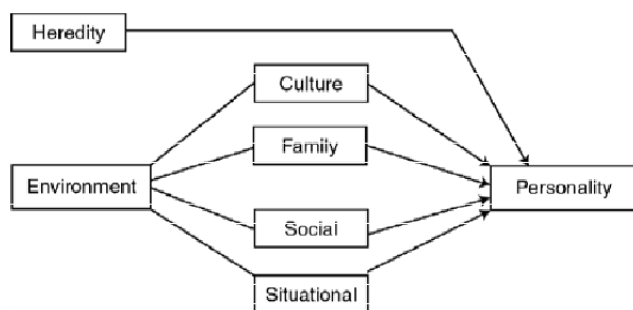
The impact of these factors is explained more in detail:

Heredity

The notion of heredity characteristics as contributing towards personality structure is deeply grained in our minds. Sayings such as "like father, like son", when referring to characteristics has some validity.

At conception, each parent normally contributes twenty three chromosomes containing thousands of genes that seem to be the transmitters of traits in certain combinations. Even two real brothers may have different personality traits. These traits are those of physique, eye colour, hair colour, attractiveness, height and nervous systems. Our personality is formed on the basis of how others react to our appearances and intellect. For example, a short person who is usually laughed at, develops a defense mechanism that is reflected in his personality. Similarly, intelligence or lack of it, creates certain impressions on other people where reactions affect the behaviour of the individual.

Another aspect of the influence of heredity factors on personality as proposed by Maier,[6] is the impact of a person's endocrine glands. For example, an underactive thyroid gland results in a person becoming generally tired, sluggish and unable to concentrate. If it overfunctions, then one becomes restless, irritable and prone to excessive worry. These characteristics affect the behaviour of a person who is in a state of biological disequilibrium such as being hungry or fatigued, and thus is more prone to irritation and lack of concentration. Thus, certain body functions unrelated to heredity, also affect the behaviour tendencies.

Environment

Some of the factors constituting the environment are:

Culture   One of the environmental influences on personality is that of culture within which a person has been brought up. Individuals born into a particular culture are exposed to existing values, beliefs, and norms of that culture concerning an acceptable form of behaviour. Such cultures would also define the processes by which these behaviours are reinforced. For example, a spirit of independence, aggressiveness and competition is rewarded by American cultural environment, while Japanese culture reinforces attitudes of cooperation and team spirit. Similarly, in America, the authority in organizations is more impersonal and functional that is the result of cultural influences, while in Japanese culture, managers take active interest in personal lives of their workers.

The person and his culture are so interwoven with each other that it is difficult to distinguish the individual from his cultural context. On the basis of cultural upbringing, the attitudes will differ concerning such subjects as work habits, risk taking, introducing and accepting change, material gains, attitudes towards women and so on.

Culture has been defined by Hoebel[7] as "the sum total of learned behaviour traits which are manifested and shared by the members of the society." It is a unique system of perceptions, beliefs, values, norms, patterns of behaviour and a code of conduct that influences the behaviour of individuals in a given society.

While the impact of culture on personality and similarly in behaviour patterns is well recognized, there is no linear relationship between personality and culture so that individuals within the same culture can differ in their behaviours and personality formats. This is partly due to the existence of sub-culture within culture. For example, the Protestant work ethic is usually associated with Western culture. However, there are extreme differences among individual behaviours within this culture and these differences are based upon socio-economic classes, ages, education, professions and geographic regions. Similarly, blue collar workers are not influenced by the same culture

as managers, and skilled workers have different behaviour patterns than unskilled workers. Hence, management must recognise these differences when dealing with people in the organizational context.

Family   The immediate family plays an especially important part in the early personality development. The nature of such influences depends upon the socioeconomic level of the family, family size, birth order, race, religion, parent's educational level, geographic location and so on.[8] For example, a person brought up in a poor family has different experiences and attitudes towards life than persons coming from rich or stable families. Similarly, being an only child exposes him to different type of environment than being raised with seven brothers and sisters. Studies have shown[9] that first born children are more responsible, rational and view the world as more predictable. In addition, they are likely to be more independent, ambitious and more sensitive to social acceptance. This may be due to the fact that the eldest child in the family is made to be responsible for other members of the family during the absence of the father. Parents usually serve as role models with which the children strongly identify.

A substantial amount of empirical evidence indicates that the home and family environment, created by the mother and the father as well as their own behaviour is highly influential on personality development of the child. According to Mussen.[10]

"Children between the ages of four and six from democratic homes are more stable, less argumentative, more sensitive to praise and blame, more socially successful and more considerate than children from authoritarian homes. Overattention or overindulgence at home also leads to many kinds of maladaptive, infantile behaviour—for instance crying easily, dawdling, lack of independence and persistence, withdrawal and high dependence on adults".

It would be natural to assume that the most common element in the histories of maladjusted persons is the maladjustment and friction between their mother and father.

Social   Social influences relate to a person's interaction with other people throughout his life, starting with playmates during childhood. While the interaction with environment in the earlier years has a more lasting influence on patterns of behaviour and personality, the social contacts and group belonging in later years continue to have considerable impact on the person's life. As it is said correctly, "A man is known by the company he keeps."

In addition to family members, such factors as friends, peers at work, associates, groups to which an individual belongs, all influence a person's behaviour. Much of the behaviour is an outcome of respect for norms and laws of the society in which the individual exists. Norms are unwritten rules and informal expectations about how people behave in certain social situations. For example, standing in the back of a line for a service is expected behaviour from people. Any person jumping the line will be ridiculed and perhaps not allowed to do so. These norms are useful in standardizing behaviour of all people in a particular environment.

A person's personality is reflected by such behaviours, and the social influences, both within the work environment as well as outside, continue to influence people's personalities and behaviours throughout their lives.[11]

Situation   It is often said that "Life is nothing but a collection of experiences." Each individual's life is unique in terms of events and experiences that he goes through. These events and experiences can serve as important determinants of personality. Some traumatic experiences can sometimes change the structure of the entire personality. There are a number of stories in Hindu scriptures where a dacoit or a killer came to a religious temple and a single interaction with the priest changed him into a saint. Many "born again" Christians can testify that the change in their life styles occurred due to a single but traumatic incident. Sometimes, certain incidents reveal the personality of a person that was so far hidden. For example, a shy and timid person may spontaneously

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Check Your Progress

1. Differentiate between type A and type B personality.
2. What are the various factors affecting personality development?

perform heroic actions in saving other people's lives without regard to his own safety. Similarly, some of the most religious and law abiding citizens have indulged in unethical or illegal behaviour due to situational pressures and constraints. The role of psychiatrists in personality shaping and changing is well known.

6.4   PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS

There is an enormous number of human traits. It has been estimated that there may be as many as 5000 adjectives that could be used to describe personality traits.[12] As has been discussed before, personality is a set of relatively stable characteristics or dimensions of people that account for consistency in their behaviour in various situations. Some of the more important dimensions of personality that are closely linked with interpersonal and organizational behaviour are discussed as follows:

Authoritarianism   Authoritarianism refers to blind acceptance of authority. Authoritarian people believe in obedience and respect for authority. They adhere to conventional values, are generally conservative, endorse strong parental control in keeping the family close and together, are concerned with toughness and power, are closed minded and generally less educated[13].

Because of their beliefs in hierarchical order, they make good followers, work better under directive supervision and are more productive within authoritarian organizational structure.

A closely related term to authoritarianism is "dogmatism" that refers to the rigidity of a person's beliefs. A highly dogmatic person is closed minded, and believes in blind obedience to authority and intolerance towards others. They are generally known as fanatics such as religious fanatics or political fanatics like hard core communists or right wing Nazis.

Bureaucratic personality   A bureaucratic person differs from an authoritarian person in that his respect for authority is not total and blind, but is based upon respect for organizational rules and regulations. A bureaucratic person values subordination, rules, conformity, orderly processes in the organization, and impersonal and formal relationships. They are generally not innovative, do not take risks and are at ease in following established directives. Bureaucratic managers are better supervisors in types of work that are routine, repetitive and procedurized.

Machiavellianism   Machiavellianism is a term associated with Niccola Machiavelli, a sixteenth century author who identified personality profiles of noble men of the day.[14] This personality believes in manipulating others for purely personal gains and keeping control of others. People with Machiavellianism have high self confidence and high self-esteem. They are cool and calculating and have no hesitation in using others or taking advantage of others in order to serve their own goals. They believe that ends justify means and do not feel guilty in using unethical means to serve their own interests. They are skilled in influencing others and they approach the situations thoughtfully and logically. They would not hesitate to lie if necessary and they are not easily swayed by a sense of friendship, trust or loyalty. They are specially successful in exploiting structured situations and vulnerable people.

Problem solving style   Individuals have their own style of making decisions and this style reflects their personality in certain ways. Some people are very thorough, meticulous and detail oriented. Others are impulsive and are easily swayed by what seems to be obvious. The problem solving style has two dimensions. One is the information gathering that involves getting and organizing data and the second dimension is the evaluation of such data and making decisions. Further, there are two styles involved in information gathering. One style is known as sensation. Sensation oriented people prefer routine and order, structured situations, and put emphasis on precise and

well-defined details. The second style known as intuitive style, involves individuals who dislike routine, dislike repetition and prefer new problems. They enjoy learning new skills but follow their instinct and jump to conclusions. Such a person often enjoys fantasy, daydreams a lot and thus is subject to greater error of fact. They change their minds quickly and often do not finish what they start before going to a new project.

Evaluation involves making judgements on the basis of the information so gathered. The evaluation style also has two dimensions. One style involves more emphasis on feeling while the other involves more emphasis on thinking. Feeling type people are sensitive to conflict and try to avoid issues that might result in disagreements. They are emotional and spontaneous and base their decision on how they feel about the situations. They do not like to hurt other people and friendly relationships to them are more important than efficiency or achievement. Feeling type managers find it hard to reprimand their subordinates for inadequate performances and would rather advise, guide and help them.

Thinking type people are more logical, analytical and use reason when solving problems. They are unemotional and are unsympathetic to other people's feelings when making judgements. They are very stubborn about defending their "principles" and what they believe is right. They are organized and well-structured and they carefully consider all options before making decisions.

When the two dimensions of information gathering and the two dimensions of evaluation are combined, it results in four problem solving styles. These are:[16]

1. *Sensation-feeling style*. These people are dependable, friendly, social and approach facts with human concern. They are pragmatic, methodical and like jobs that involve human contact and public relations. Some suitable areas of jobs include teaching, customer relations, social workers, sales people.

2. *Sensation-thinking style*. They are practical, logical, decisive, sensitive to details and prefer bureaucratic type organizations. They are not highly skilled in interpersonal relations and are more suited to such technical jobs as those of production, accounting, engineering and computer programming.

3. *Intuition-feeling style*. These people are enthusiastic, people oriented, charismatic and helpful. Some of the professions suitable for this style are public relations, advertising, politics and personnel.

4. *Intuition-thinking style*. These people are creative, energetic, ingenious, and like jobs that are challenging in terms of design and analysis such as system design, law, research and development, top management and so on.

Locus of control   Locus of control is the extent to which the individuals believe that:

- they control their own lives, or
- external forces control their lives that are beyond their control.

A person with a strong "internal locus of control" believes that he controls events concerning his own life and that his internal traits determine what happens in a given situation. He believes that he is the master of his own destiny. One the other end, a person with a strong "external locus of control" feels that outside forces are affecting the events in his life and he is at the mercy of destiny, chance or other people. He believes that "whatever will be, will be" and everything happens by the Will of God.

Research has indicated that "internals" are highly confident of themselves and seek out situations where they would use their own wisdom and energies to direct the events and control the outcomes such as starting their own companies.

Research has further shown that internally oriented persons hold jobs of higher status, advance more rapidly in their careers and prefer intrinsic rewards such as feeling of achievement while externally oriented persons are more interested in job security and other extrinsic rewards.

The following figure illustrates the possible consequences relative to internal locus of control and external locus of control:

6.5   INTROVERT AND EXTROVERT PERSONALITIES

Introvert persons are basically shy, prefer to be alone and have difficulty in communicating. Extroverts are outgoing, objective, aggressive and relate well with people. According to L.W. Morris,[17] the introvert is behaviourally described as "quiet, introspective, intellectual, well-ordered, emotionally unexpressive and value oriented, prefers small groups of intimate friends and plans well ahead". On the other hand, an extrovert is best described as, "sociable, lively, impulsive, seeking novelty and change, carefree and emotionally expressive".

From organizational point of view, it can be assumed that most managers would be extroverts since a manager's role involves working with and through other people. One the other hand, an extreme introvert works best when alone in a quiet office without external interruption or influences.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem is the degree of respect a person has for himself. Self-esteem is a measure of self-confidence and respect for one's abilities and motivation. It is also a higher level need in Maslow's model of hierarchical needs. Self-esteem is positively related to assertiveness, independence and creativity.[18] High self-esteem persons are very friendly, affectionate, find it easy to form interpersonal attachment and find good in other people. Low self-esteem people are usually critical of others, are generally depressed and blame others for their own failures.
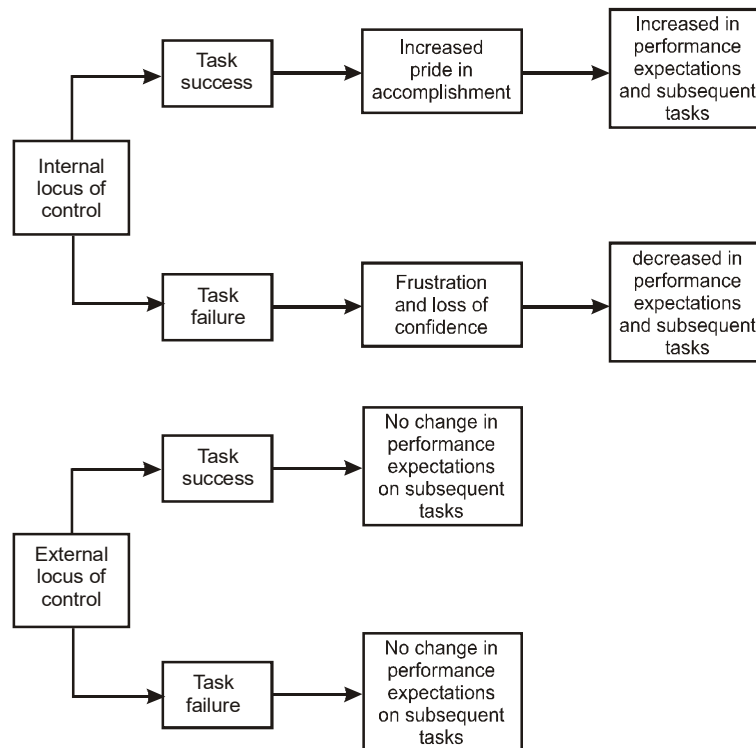
Source: Richard M. Steers, *Introduction to Organizational Behavior*, Scott Foresman, 1981.

Organizationally speaking, high self-esteem people are high performers while low self-esteem contributes to poor performance, that in turn reinforces low self-esteem. According to Abraham K. Korman.[19]

"People of high self-perceived competence and self-image should be more likely to achieve on task performance than those who have low self-image concerning the task or job at hand, since such differential task achievement would be consistent with their self-cognitions. This assumes that task performance is seen as valued."

6.6 PERSONALITY THEORIES

Since personality variables reflect consistent and enduring patterns of behaviours, these patterns can be classified into certain categories, so that the behaviour can be predictable once we identify the pattern of behaviour as belonging to a given category. People in a given category would have a similar pattern of attributes, and personality theories tend to identify such attributes in order to group people into these various categories. Some of the personality theories are illustrated as follows:
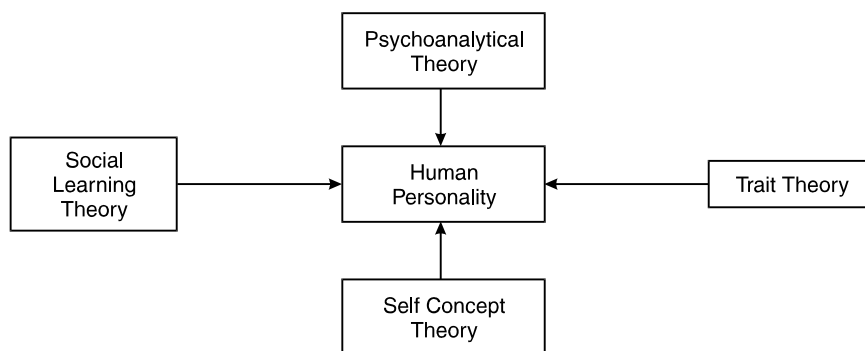
These theories are explained in detail as follows:

Psychoanalytical Theory

The Psychoanalytical theory of personality as a reflection of behaviour has been based primarily on the Freudian concept of unconscious nature of personality. Freud noted that his patient's behaviour could not always be consciously explained. This led him to believe that the personality structure is primarily founded on unconscious framework and that human behaviour and motivation is the outcome of such conflicting psychoanalytic concepts as the id, the ego and the super ego. Id is the foundation of the unconscious and is the base of libido drives. It strives for sexual pleasure and other biological pleasures and has animalistic instincts of aggression, power and domination. Ego is conscious in nature and is a mechanism to relate our conscious urges to the outside real world. It keeps the id in check through the realities of the external environment. While id demands immediate pleasure, whatever the cost, ego controls it so that these pleasures are granted at an appropriate time and in an acceptable manner. Because of difficulty of keeping the id under control, ego is supported by super ego. The super ego is the higher level restraining force and can be described as the conscience of the person. The conscience creates standards of what is wrong and what is right and is generally subconsciously developed by the absorption of cultural and ethical values of the social environment. All these three Freudian elements are inter-related and each cannot exist in isolation from others. In order to create a "normal" personality, there must be a balance in the relationship among these three forces. For example, an overdeveloped super ego would make the person highly moral and make him feel guilty for every little thing that was a slight deviation from the norm. This would not be considered practical or rational. Similarly, an underdeveloped super ego would let

the id urges loose and would characterise the person with few and weak morals and values.

The psychoanalytical approach to personality structure analysis has made some impact on organizational behaviour.[20] For example, stages of creative process are unconscious in nature and can be brought out by psychoanalysis. Similarly, such employee behaviours as daydreaming, forgetfulness, absenteeism, tardiness, sabotage, alcoholism and drug abuse can be analyzed through psychoanalytical studies. In terms of organizational development, such techniques as transactional analysis in order to improve interpersonal communicational skills can be explained within the psychoanalytic concepts.

The psychoanalytical theory was taken a step further by Carl Jung.[21] While Freud conceived the idea of "personal" unconscious motivators that drive life, Jung proposed that there is a collective unconsciousness that exists in a personality that is deeper and includes the cumulative experiences of all the past generations. This may be a far-out theory but certain personality traits cannot really be explained rationally.

Trait Theory

Trait theory visualises personality as a reflection of certain traits of the individual. Even though there are many traits that are common to most people, there are many other traits that are unique to a person and are not shared by other individuals. One the basis of the traits theory, people can be described as aggressive, loyal, pleasant, flexible, humorous, sentimental, impulsive, cool and so on. Traits are the basic elements of personality and can be used to summarise behaviour. For example, if we see people behaving in an extrovert and forceful manner in most situations, we could label their personality as aggressive. Similarly, if a person is observed in different situations as letting someone else take the initiative in deciding what to do, we could describe his personality as "submissive".

Cattell[22] used groups of traits to describe the underlying structure of personality. He compiled a list of words that can be used to describe personality traits. He put these traits into two basic categories. These are the source traits and the surface traits. For example, stammering would be a surface trait resulting from the basic source trait of timidity. Some of the surface traits are: wise-foolish, sociable-seclusive, honest-dishonest and so on. Similarly, some of the source trait categories are: trustful-suspicious, forthright-shrewd, relaxed-tense, dominant-submissive, cheerful-depressed and so on.

Self-concept Theory

This theory is organized around the concept that personality and behaviour are largely determined by the individual himself. We tend to act in ways that are consistent with our own image of who we are. For example, a man known as a flirt would hardly stop at flirting. Carl Rogers[23] is most closely associated with this theory. According to him, the best vantage point for understanding behaviour is from the internal frame of reference of the individual himself. An individual himself is the centre of experience. His self image is integral to how he views himself and his perception of how others view him. This self-concept is a result of a person's interaction with his environment. This interaction in the form of learning experience helps us to develop, grow and mature, and we modify our self-concept as a result of these experiences. When we get positive feedback from others as a response to our behaviour, our self-concept is positively reinforced. On the other hand, when we get negative feedback from others, our self-regard is lowered, resulting in tension and anxiety.

From the point of view of organizational behaviour, the management must recognize that each individual's self-concept is unique and the applications of various types of motivation, job enrichment and leadership styles will have different effects on different

people. Thus, an employee with a self-concept of high intelligence, independence and confidence may not look for such reinforcement techniques as monetary rewards, job security or directive supervision. He may look for a challenging environment where he looks for recognition, responsibility and achievement. On the other hand, the monetary rewards and job security may be more effective on workers who have a self-concept of dependence, insecurity and who lack confidence in themselves.

Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory differs from the psychoanalytical theory in two ways. First, it is believed that personality development is more a result of social variables than biological drives. Secondly, motives can be traced to known and conscious needs and wants rather than unconscious and latent desires. Thus, learning theory looks at personality as the sum total of all that a person has learned.

The social learning theory uses "reinforcement and punishment" approach in understanding personality. For example, frustration caused by external environment, causes and reinforces aggression as a personality trait. Also, good behaviour is rewarded by the society in terms of praise that further reinforces good behaviour. Thus, behaviour and external environment have mutual interaction. Behaviour partly creates the person's environment and the environment affects the behaviour as well.

Learning can also occur simply from observation rather than interaction with the environment. We watch the behaviour of other people, draw conclusions from it and express our own behaviour.

6.7 SUMMARY

Personality is considered to be a set of characteristics that are stable and do not change either over a period of time or from situation to situation. These characteristics account for consistent pattern of behaviour. It is the stability of these characteristics that sometimes assists us in predicting behaviour of a given person.

Personality has been classified into two basic categories. One is Type A personality where behaviour is generally restless, impatient and with a desire for quick achievement. Type B personality is much more easy going, relaxed about time pressures, less competitive and more philosophical in nature. Knowing the personality type of a person makes his behaviour predictability easier and comparatively accurate.

There are many factors that contribute towards the formation of personality. These factors can be classified into two broad categories. One category consists of all such factors that are considered as hereditary and the second category comprises of environmental factors. The heredity factors are transferred through genes and chromosomes and may reflect physiological built and the nature of nervous systems. The activity of endocrine glands that control the metabolism may also be partially hereditary. The environmental factors include the influences of culture, family, social interaction and situational characteristics.

Personality may manifest itself in various forms. The personality may be authoritarian in nature where a person believes in obedience and respect for authority and adheres rigidly to conventional values. A bureaucratic personality differs from an authoritarian person in that a bureaucratic person's respect for authority is not total and blind but is based upon his respect for organizational rules, regulations and order. Then there is Machiavellian personality that believes in manipulating others for purely personal gains and keeping control over others. Another personality style is highly objective, meticulous and detail oriented. These people are cool, calculating, logical and analytical when responding to various situations.

Since personality attributes are comparatively stable and some knowledge about these attributes helps in predictability of behaviour, some theories have been developed to identify such attributes in order to group people into various categories. These theories include: Psychoanalytical theory based upon Freudian concept of personality being founded on unconscious framework of id, ego and superego where id is the unconscious animalistic urge to seek pleasures at any cost and ego and super-ego keep id in check through social and moral values. Depending upon the strength of ego and super ego, some personality traits can be identified.

Then there is the trait theory of personality that describes people on the basis of traits such as aggressive, flexible, humorous, sensitive, sentimental, impulsive and so on. By observing some of these traits, we may be able to identify a personality.

The third theory of personality is known as self-concept theory that promotes the idea that a person's behaviour reflects his own image about himself. For example, a known flirt is expected to flirt in social situations.

Finally, there is a social learning theory that is based upon the premise that personality development is more a result of social variables than biological drives or unconscious desires. Personality is a sum total of all that a person has learned so that the learning process can be manipulated to develop or change a personality.

6.8   EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. How do you define personality? What are the specific traits that constitute the concept of personality?
2. What are the primary characteristics of Type A personality. How do these characteristics differ from Type B personality? Can a Type A person become a Type B person? Justify your reasons.
3. What are the primary hereditary factors that contribute towards formation of personality. How can we be sure that all such factors are hereditary in nature?
4. Explain in detail some of the environmental factors that form a part of the personality. Can a change in these factors change the personality as well? Support your reasons.
5. Differentiate between authoritarian and bureaucratic personality. Emphasise the commonalities and differences among them.
6. Is Machiavellian style of personality still predominant in an organizational environment? Is it necessary in the present participative style of management to exhibit Machiavellianism to be successful? Give reasons.
7. Differentiate between introvert and extrovert personalities. Is one form of personality necessarily better than the other? Discuss the pros and cons of both types.
8. Describe in detail the psychoanalytical theory of personality. Is this theory empirically verifiable? Support your reasons.
9. How does trait theory of personality differ from social learning theory? Can some of the traits be socially learned?

6.9   ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Characteristics of Type A personality are as: Is restless, so that he always moves, walks and eats rapidly. Is impatient with the pace of things, dislikes waiting and is impatient with those who are not impatient. Does several things at once. Tries to schedule more and more in less and less time, irrespective of whether everything is done or not. Characteristics of Type B personality is just the opposite and is more relaxed, sociable and has a balanced outlook on life. Type B persons may be hard working but feel no pressing conflict with people or time and hence are not prone to stress and coronary problems.

2. Factors affecting personality development are: Heredity, Cultural environment, Social environment, Family environment.

3. Self-esteem is the degree of respect a person has for himself. Self-esteem is a measure of self-confidence and respect for one's abilities and motivation. It is also a higher level need in Maslow's model of hierarchical needs. Self-esteem is positively related to assertiveness, independence and creativity. High self-esteem persons are very friendly, affectionate, find it easy to form interpersonal attachment and find good in other people. Low self-esteem people are usually critical of others, are generally depressed and blame others for their own failures.

4. Trait theory visualises personality as a reflection of certain traits of the individual. Even though there are many traits that are common to most people, there are many other traits that are unique to a person and are not shared by other individuals. One the basis of the traits theory, people can be described as aggressive, loyal, pleasant, flexible, humorous, sentimental, impulsive, cool and so on. Traits are the basic elements of personality and can be used to summarise behaviour. For example, if we see people behaving in an extrovert and forceful manner in most situations, we could label their personality as aggressive. While social learning theory uses "reinforcement and punishment" approach in understanding personality. For example, frustration caused by external environment, causes and reinforces aggression as a personality trait. Also, good behaviour is rewarded by the society in terms of praise that further reinforces good behaviour. Thus, behaviour and external environment have mutual interaction.

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CASE STUDY

Frank Lorenzo had a dream from the very childhood to own an airline. He grew up in New York city in the shadow of LaGuardia Airport, became fascinated with the airline industry and vowed one day to be an owner of a major airline.

He and a friend invested $25,000 each in 1969 to start an airline consulting firm called Jet Capital. In 1971, they took control of a small, regional airline known as Texas International. He was successful in running this airline and was able to take over a major carrier, Continental Airlines in 1981.

Being an aggressive and determined decision maker, Lorenze decided to streamline the operation of Continental Airlines. He authorized a detailed and analytical study of its cost structure and concluded that the overhead costs were too high, specially the labour costs. His study indicated that the labour costs for US Airlines were about 20 per cent higher than the comparable labour costs of International carriers. He decided to take steps to lower the labour costs.

Lorenzo asked the labour unions to negotiate lower wage rates in order to make Continental Airlines more competitive. The unions refused. Lorenzo was adamant and stuck to his position that labour costs had to be reduced and he refused to consider other options. In a bold move in 1983, Lorenzo declared bankruptcy for Continental Airlines to break the existing labour contracts and employ non-union workers at a much lower cost.

Even though the labour unions became his enemies, he was able to hire new employees and with lower labour cost, Continental was able to reduce fares and increase its market share rapidly.

In 1986, Lorenzo made a series of bold moves and acquired People's Express Airlines, Frontier Airlines and Eastern Airlines, that was one of the largest airlines in America. Eastern Airlines, at this time, was having its own trouble with its labour unions and these unions were very strong and enjoyed tremendous power in negotiating settlements with the management. Lorenzo's acquisition of Eastern Airlines made the unions even more determined to get what they wanted.

During negotiations, virtually every concession he requested from labour was denied. The unions went on strike in 1989. Lorenzo, once again, took Eastern into bankruptcy, hoping to repeat the success of Continental experience. It did not work. The unions were too strong. Eventually, his control of Eastern was taken away from him by the courts. In 1990, he also relinquished Texas Air and in January 1991, Eastern Airlines was shut down once and for all.

In a bold attempt to come back into the airline industry, Frank Lorenzo applied to start another airline names ATX to serve East coast points from Washington area. His bid has been opposed by the unions who consider him as a destroyer of airlines. His bid may or may not be approved but he has become the most controversial and perhaps most disliked person in the airline industry because of his management tactics in managing an airlines.

Questions

1. Discuss the personality traits of Frank Lorenzo and establish whether he is a type A or type B personality.
2. How did the attitudes of both Lorenzo and the Unions affect the operations of Eastern Airlines?
3. If you were hired as a consultant and as an arbitrator to handle the dispute at Eastern Airlines, what recommendations would you provide to solve the problem amicably?

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NOTES

UNIT 7 MOTIVATION AND BEHAVIOUR

Structure

7.0 INTRODUCTION

People differ by nature, not only in their ability to perform a specific task but also in their will to do so. People with less ability but stronger will are able to perform better than people with superior ability and lack of will. Hard work is crucial to success and achievement. This belief was underscored by Albert Einstein when he said that "genius is 10% inspiration and 90% perspiration." This "will" to do is known as motivation.

The force of motivation is a dynamic force setting a person into motion or action. The word motivation is derived from motive that is defined as an active form of desire, craving or need that must be satisfied. All motives are directed towards goals. New needs and desires affect or change your behaviour that then becomes goal oriented. For example, if you ordinarily do not want to work overtime, it is likely that at a particular time, you may need more money (desire) so you may change your behaviour, work overtime (goal oriented behaviour) and satisfy your needs.

Viteles[1] defines motivation as follows:

"Motivation represents an unsatisfied need which creates a state of tension or disequilibrium, causing the individual to move in a goal directed pattern towards restoring a state of equilibrium, by satisfying the need."

7.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

- To know the meaning of motivation
- To understand the nature of the motivational process
- To know the various types of motivation

- To look at the history of the study of motivation as a resource for behaviour modification
- To understand content theories of motivation such as Maslow model of hierarchical needs, ERG theory of motivation, McClelland theory of needs and Herzberg'z two-factor theory of motivation

7.2   MOTIVATION: AN OVERVIEW

Motivated people are in a constant state of tension. This tension is relieved by drives towards an activity and outcome that is meant to reduce or relieve such tension. The greater the tension, the more activity will be needed to bring about relief and hence higher the motivation. Thus the basic motivation process can be depicted as follows:

The concept of motivation has 3 basic characteristics.[2] These are:

Effort   The amount of effort put into the activity identifies the strength of the person's work related behaviour. Hard work usually reflects high motivation. A student who works very hard to get top grades can be referred to as highly motivated. A professor who is engaged in research and publishes many high quality articles is exerting extensive effort relating to his job.
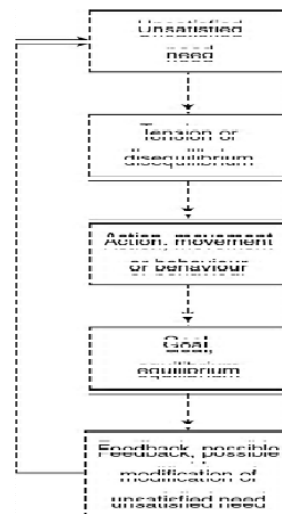
Persistence   Motivation is a permanent and an integral part of a human being. Its second characteristic is persistence in the efforts. Motivation is continuously goal directed so that once a goal is achieved, a higher goal is selected and efforts are exercised towards this higher goal. For example, a professor who published simply to get a promotion and then stops or reduces research efforts would not be considered as highly motivated. Accordingly, high motivation requires persistent efforts.

Direction   Persistent hard work determines the quantity of effort while direction determines the quality of the anticipated output. All efforts are to be directed towards the organizational goal. This would ensure that the persistent effort is actually resulting into accepted organizational outcomes. For example, a quality control inspector is consistently expected to direct his efforts in discovering defects in the produced items so that the organizational goal of high quality output is met.

As an example, let us assume that a professor has established a goal for himself to get a promotion and monetary raise in order to improve upon his standard of living. Thus the professor will shape his behaviour to achieve that goal. He will choose a course of action designed to obtain promotion. This course of action may comprise five published

articles or one published book. He will be highly motivated and will put in persistent efforts in research and publish the desired number of articles or the book.

Once the promotion has been obtained, the professor will re-evaluate his achievement relative to his initially established objective. If the pay raise is not adequate and there are grounds for further promotion and pay raise, the professor will establish a higher goal and strive towards it. This example fits the basic motivational process as follows:

In the above example, if the motivator (publishing) does not serve the required purpose then the professor will look at other alternatives as motivators such as service to the college and community, student guidance and curriculum development and good interactive relations with peers and superiors. Thus the motivation process involves the following steps.

1. *Analysis of situation* The situation that needs motivational inducement must be sized up so as to ascertain the motivational needs. From organizational behaviour point of view, it must be recognized that since the needs of different employees differ both in nature as well as intensity, a composite view of the collective needs of the group is established with appropriate recognition of differences in individual needs.

2. *Selecting and applying appropriate motivators* A list of all devices of motivation is drawn and a selection made of such motivators that motivate different types of people under different circumstances. Proper timing and the extent of motivation is also to be considered. The individual goals should be given adequate attention within the framework of group goals and the organizational goals.
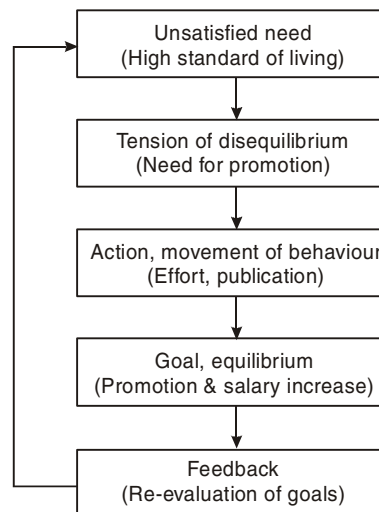
3. *Follow-up* It is important to know that the motivators selected are indeed providing the desired motivation. This can be accomplished by getting and evaluating the feedback. If these motivators are not showing the optimum effect, then alternative motivators should be selected and applied.

7.3 SOURCES OF MOTIVATION

Experts in the organizational behaviour field have a divided opinion as to whether workers are motivated by factors in the external environment such as rewards or fear or whether motivation is self generated without the application of external factors. It is quite well understood that under the same set of external factors, all workers are not equally motivated. Some of these motivational sources are:

Positive motivation Positive motivation involves proper recognition of employee efforts and appreciation of employee contribution towards the organizational goal achievement. Such motivations improve the standards of performance, lead to good

team spirit and pride, a sense of cooperation and a feeling of belonging and happiness. Some of the positive motivators are:[3]

- Praise and credit for work done.
- A sincere interest in the welfare of subordinates.
- Delegation of authority and responsibility to subordinates.
- Participation of subordinates in the decision making process.

Negative or fear motivation   This motivation is based upon the use of force, power, fear and threats. The fear of punishment or unfavourable consequences affects the behavioural changes. Some examples of negative motivation include the fear of failing in the examination, and fear of being fired or demoted. Fear of failure in the examination induces motivation in many students to work harder and pass the course. Similarly, fear of being fired keeps the workers in line with the organizational rules and regulations as well as do a satisfactory job.

While the fear of punishment and actual punishment has resulted in controlling individual misbehaviour and has contributed towards positive performance in many situations and is necessary and useful in many other situations such as disciplining a child or handling a riot, it is not recommended or considered as a viable alternative in the current business and industrial environment. This is based upon the changing trends in the workforce including higher level of employee education and extensive employee unionization.

However, punishment or fear of it is still the most common technique of behaviour modification or control in today's life. When a child misbehaves, he is still spanked. If a worker does not behave according to the way the organization wants him to behave, he is fired. If a person does not behave as the society and law wants him to behave, he is punished by arrest and jail. All religions threaten punishment in the life hereafter if a person does not behave according to God's and religious rules.

Does the punishment system work? Does it change behaviour? Does the prison system reform the criminal? Does spanking make a "good" child? This area has received considerable attention and has become highly controversial. It has been proposed that while punishment has immediate and short-term effect in changing behaviour, the long-term effects are highly questionable. A driver who gets fined for jumping running a red light where he is supposed to stop, may vow never to do it again at that time, but as the time passes, he may do it again.

In the context of organizational behaviour, no worker likes to be criticized, or threatened with employment termination. Specifically, if the worker is punished for an occasional undesired behaviour, it will have a negative effect on his morale, make him bitter with a hostile state of mind, affecting negatively his social interaction as well as his sense of loyalty, perhaps resulting in poor performance and productivity and quality.

Extrinsic motivation   This type of motivation is induced by external factors that are primarily financial in nature. It is based upon the assumption that the behaviour that results in positive rewards tends to be repeated. However, the reward for the desired behaviour should be sufficiently powerful and durable so that it improves the probability of occurrence of desirable behaviour. Money is probably the most important incentive for positive behaviour since money can be used for a number of other resources.

These financial incentives and rewards have been a subject of debate whether they really motivate the employees or simply move them to work and perform. These include higher pay, fringe benefits such as retirement plans, stock options, profit sharing schemes, paid vacations, health and medical insurance, sympathetic supervision and people oriented company policies.

Intrinsic motivation   Intrinsic motivation stems from feelings of achievement and accomplishment and is concerned with the state of self-actualization in which the satisfaction of accomplishing something worthwhile motivates the employee further so

that this motivation is self-generated and is independent of financial rewards. For example, there are many retired doctors who work free in the hospital because it gives them a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction. Mother Teresa's work in the slums of Kolkata (India) not only motivated the people who worked with her but also many others who simply heard about her work and then wanted to join the team. Similarly, Peace Corps workers work in uncomfortable environments at a minimal pay. Some of the intrinsic motivators are praise, recognition, responsibility, esteem, power, status, challenges and decision making responsibility.

7.4 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The concept of motivation can be traced back nearly twenty-three centuries to the Greek and Indian writings. The idea that we are motivated to do what brings us the best results for our benefit is found in the early Indian philosophy through such writings as "Charvak".[4] The most ancient concept of "Nirvana", as proposed and propagated by earliest Aryan thinkers and religious scholars, motivates us to be "good" people so that we can achieve the final "oneness with God."

The Greek view of motivation has been dominated by the concept of hedonism which is a view that people seek pleasure and comfort and avoid pain and discomfort.[5] This view was based upon intuition and common sense that an individual does what he does because he believes that it will give him more pleasure than anything else he might do. This philosophy, though still popular, depends excessively upon rational evaluation and does not take into consideration the effect of instincts or even the value system. Hedonism, based on maximizing personal pleasure, cannot explain why some people would sometimes risk their own lives to save others in times of crisis or why volunteers would spend so much of their time in collecting money for charitable causes. However, this view prevailed right up to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and is evident in the social and economical philosophies of such famous men as Adam Smith, Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill.[6]

The principle of hedonism seems to be too narrow-minded and is empirically insignificant since it does not attempt to evaluate just what the individuals anticipate to be the results of their behaviour and how do they measure pleasure. For example, a person who risked his own life to save another had rationally decided to become a "hero" or did he act on "impulse," believing that it was the right thing to do irrespective of cost or consequences? The principle of hedonism can be more easily explained "after the fact" when the behaviour has already been completed. Thus even the acts of simple kindness can be explained with the motives of "feeling good" about them or earning the gratefulness of those who have been helped by these acts. Since hedonistic explanations work best in explaining actions after they occur, they cannot be relied upon in predicting behaviour. These limitations of hedonistics' viewpoints brought motivation under a different light during the late 1800s and early 1900s. William James[7] and Sigmund Freud[8] argue that instinctive behaviour and unconscious motivation are also an important element in human behaviour and these largely determine an individual's interpretation of, and response to, situations.

Instincts, that are inborn or innate predispositions and are not consciously rational, can explain certain aspects of human behaviour. These instincts that influence human behaviour include the need for autonomy, curiosity, sociability, sympathy, fear, jealousy, love dominance, harm avoidance, play and sex. The instinct behaviour is like a reflex action, meant for survival and hence caters primarily to physiological needs. It is not learnt and is not dependent upon the consequences of an action. Most instincts are common to all people and would exhibit similar behaviour under similar circumstances. For example, if somebody has a flat tyre while driving, the first instinctive reaction is to get mad.

Check Your Progress

1. Define motivation.
2. Differentiate between positive and negative motivation.

The unconscious motivation, of which an individual is unaware, was brought up by Sigmund Freud who suggested that unconscious motives are primarily sexual and aggressive in nature and even though unconscious, they greatly influence everyday behaviour. These unconscious motives are revealed in dreams, symbolism, slips of speech (known as Freudian slips) and hypnotic suggestions.

Both the instinctive motivation and unconscious motivation do not stand the scientific analysis. Contemporary psychologists explain behaviour by complex cognitive and environmental interactions.

The concept of motivation came under scientific scrutiny during 1930s and has led to formulation of many theories and models that try to scientifically explain the concept of motivation.

7.5   THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

There are basically two types of theories that relate to and define the motivational processes. These are the "content theories" that attempt to determine and specify drives and needs that motivate people to work and "process theories" that attempt to identify the variables that go into motivation and their relationship with each other. These theories are described in greater detail.

7.5.1   The Content Theories of Work Motivation

The content theories have been developed to explain the nature of motivation in terms of types of need that people experience. They attempt to focus on factors within a person that initiate and direct a certain type of behaviour or check certain other type of behaviour. The basic idea underlying such theories is that people have certain fundamental needs, both physiological and psychological in nature, and that they are motivated to engage in activities that would satisfy these needs. Thus the nature of needs establishes the nature of motivation that results in a specific behaviour aimed at reaching the goal of satisfying such needs.
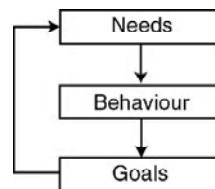
Some of the more important content theories are:

7.5.2   McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor (1906–64)[9] was a professor of industrial management at Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) for most part of his career. His contribution to management thought lies in his proposal that a manager's assumptions about the role of employees determines his behaviour towards them. According to him, the classical organization - with its highly specialized jobs, centralized decision-making and communication from top downwards through the chain of command was not just a product of the need for productivity and efficiency, but instead it was a reflection of certain basic managerial assumptions about human nature. These assumptions, that McGregor somewhat arbitrarily classified were designated as Theory X. Theory X identified the classical approach to management based upon the ideas generated in the late 1800s and early 1900s, and was primarily based upon the assumption about economic rationality of all employees. This evolved around the classical assumption of

Adam Smith that people are motivated by economic incentives and they will rationally consider opportunities that provide for them the greatest economic gain. To the classical thinkers, an efficiently designed job, efficiency centred organization and proper monetary incentives to workers were the proper tools of motivation.

This approach was effective because it was a product of its times. In the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century, technology change was relatively slow and predictable, labour was abundant, competitors were known and productivity was the main focus.

This approach was based on the following assumptions.

Theory X Assumptions

1. Most people dislike work and avoid it whenever possible.
2. They need to be directed, controlled and threatened with punishment in order to move them to work and achieve organizational goals.
3. An average person is lazy, shuns responsibility, prefers to be directed, has little ambition and is only concerned with his own security.
4. Most people avoid leading and want to be led and supervised. They are unwilling to accept responsibility.

McGregor believed that managers who hold Theory X assumptions are likely to treat workers accordingly. These managers practice an autocratic management style and may use the threat of punishment to induce employee productivity. The communication is primarily directed downwards and the environment is characterized by minimal manager-employee interaction.

In contrast, Theory Y emphasizes management through employee input and delegation of authority. According to Theory Y, managers make the following assumptions.

Theory Y Assumptions

1. Work is natural to most people and they enjoy the physical and mental effort involved in working, similar to rest or play.
2. Commitment to goals and objectives of the organization is also a natural state of behaviour for most individuals.
3. They will exercise self direction and self control in pursuit and achievement of organizational goals.
4. Commitment to goals and objectives is a function of rewards available, especially the rewards of appreciation and recognition.
5. Most people have the capacity for innovation and creativity for solving organizational problems.
6. Many individuals seek leadership roles in preference to the security of being led.

Managers who hold Theory Y assumptions treat their workers as responsible persons and give them more lattitude in performing their tasks. Communication is multidimensional and managers interact frequently with employees. These managers encourage innovation and creativity, minimize the use of supervision and controls and redesign the work to make it more interesting and satisfying with regard to higher level needs of workers such as self-esteem and self-actualization. They integrate individual goals and organizational goals so that with commitment and dedication, both goals are achieved at the same time.

Compared to Theory X, Theory Y has the greater potential to develop positive job relationships and motivate employee performance. It must be understood, however, that in some situations where workers do require close supervision and greater controls, Theory X assumptions are more effective in achieving organizational goals.

7.6 MASLOW'S MODEL

Maslow's "needs hierarchy theory" is probably the most widely used theory of motivation in organizations. Abraham Maslow[10] suggested that people have a complex set of exceptionally strong needs and the behaviour of individuals at a particular moment is usually determined by their strongest need. He developed his model of human motivation in 1943, based upon his own clinical experience and formulated his theory of hierarchical needs by asking the same question, "What is it that makes people behave the way they do?" and made a list of answers from which he developed a pattern. His theory is based upon two assumptions. First that human beings have many needs that are different in nature ranging from the biological needs at the lower level that is the level of survival, to psychological needs at the upper extreme that is the level of growth. Second that these needs occur in an order of hierarchy so that lower level needs must be satisfied before higher level needs arise or become motivators. Mahatma Gandhi, the Indian leader, once remarked that "even God cannot talk to a hungry man except in terms of food."[11] Similarly, there is a quotation from the Holy Guru Granth Sahib, the holy scripture of Sikhs in India that quotes a holy man saying to God, "Take you rosary beads away. I cannot worship and meditate on you when I am hungry". This means that if the people's basic needs that are biological in nature are unsatisfied, than their total attention will be focused upon these needs and it will not be possible to communicate with them about other matters.

This model of hierarchical needs explains human behaviour in a more dynamic and realistic manner and is primarily based upon people's inner states as a basis for motivation and the environmental conditions do not play any significant role. Maslow postulates five basic needs arranged in successive levels. These needs continue to change resulting in change in goals and activities. These five needs are arranged in the form as shown. The first three levels of needs at the bottom are known as "deficiency" needs and they must be satisfied in order to ensure the individual's very existence and security and make him fundamentally comfortable. The top two sets of needs are termed "growth" needs because they are concerned with personal growth, development and realization of one's potential.
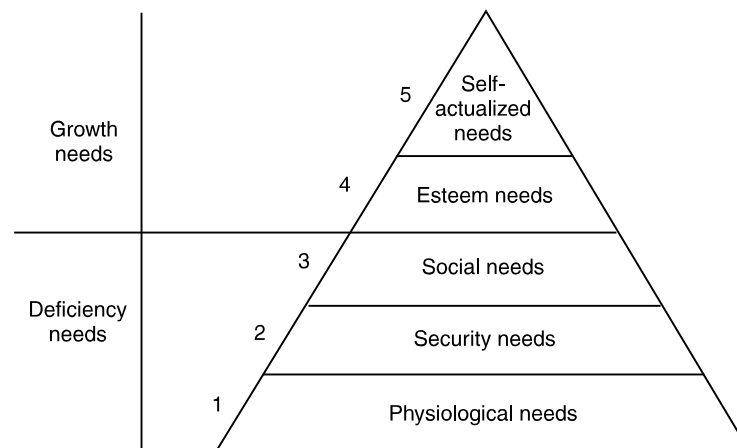
These needs are explained in detail as follows.

Physiological Needs

The physiological needs form the foundation of the hierarchy and tend to have the highest strength in terms of motivation. These are primarily the needs arising out of physiological or biological tension and they are there to sustain life itself and include the

basic needs for food, water, shelter and sex. Sexual need and desire is not to be confused with that which is at the third level. Once these basic needs are satisfied to the degree needed for the sufficient and comfortable operation of the body, then the other levels of needs become important and start acting as motivators.

Security and Safety Needs

Once the physiological needs are gratified, the safety and security needs become predominant. These are the needs for self-preservation as against physiological needs that are for survival. These needs include those of security, stability, freedom from anxiety and a structured and ordered environment. These safety and security needs are really provisions against deprivation of satisfaction of physiological needs in the future. It also involves a sense of protection against threats and danger of losing the job in the future. In a civilized society such as ours, a person is usually protected from threats of violence or extremes in climate or fear of material safety, so that the safety and security needs dwell upon economic and job security, life and medical insurance and other protective measures to safeguard the satisfaction of physiological needs in the future that may be unpredictable.

Love and Social Needs

After the needs of the body and security are satisfied, a sense of belonging and acceptance becomes prominent in motivating behaviour. These needs include the needs for love, friendship, affection, and social interaction. We look for an environment where we are understood, respected and wanted. That is one reason for "polarization" where people of similar background and beliefs tend to group together. "Love they neighbor" has perhaps a profound meaning.

Esteem Needs

The need for esteem is to attain recognition from others that would induce a feeling of self-worth and self-confidence in the individual. It is an urge for achievement, prestige, status and power. Self-respect is the internal recognition. The respect from others is the external recognition and an appreciation of one's individuality as well as his contribution. This would result in self-confidence, independence, status, reputation and prestige. People then would begin to feel that they are useful and have some positive effect on their surrounding environment.

Self-actualization Needs

This last need is the need to develop fully and to realize one's capacities and potentialities to the fullest extent possible, whatever these capacities and potentialities may be. This is the highest level of need in Maslow's hierarchy and is activated as motivator when all other needs have been reasonably fulfilled. At this level, the person seeks challenging work assignments that allow for creativity and opportunities for personal growth and advancement.

This need is for soul searching and is inner-oriented. A self-actualized person is creative, independent, content, and spontaneous and has a good perception of reality. He is constantly striving to realize his full potential. Thus, "what a man 'can' be, 'must' be".

Maslow's model is a general model in which all needs interact with each other to some degree. Needs are not necessarily linear, nor is the order of needs so rigid. The relative dominance of many needs is variable and is continuously shifting. For example, a self-actualized person may shift his priority to social needs and love needs instead of prestige and status, if suddenly there occurs a vacuum due to loss of a loved one. Similarly, a person may not go to the higher need, even when his lower needs are

satisfied. It is also likely that a well-prepared elite person may decide to enter a commune where there is overwhelming emphasis on love and affection rather than climb the corporate ladder.

Maslow's theory made management aware that people are motivated by a wide variety of needs and that management must provide an opportunity for the employees to satisfy these needs through creating a physical and conceptual work environment, so that people are motivated to do their best to achieve organizational goals.

The first level needs in the hierarchy, the physiological needs can be satisfied through such organizational efforts and incentives as adequate wages and salary, acceptable working conditions in order to improve comfort, and avoid fatigue, more leisure time and acceptable work environment in terms of lighting, ventilation, rest rooms, working space, heat and noise level. Some bonuses and other fringe benefits will be highly motivational.

The second level needs of safety and security can be satisfied through management's initiative to provide life insurance, medical insurance, job security, cost of living increments, pension plans, freedom to unionize, and employee protection against automation. The economic security to some degree is provided by law in the form of minimum wages, unemployment benefits, and welfare benefits. Similarly, unions protect employees against discrimination and indiscriminate firing.

Since first level physiological needs and second level security needs are primarily met by business, industrial, societal and legal environment, management must take steps to satisfy higher level needs and must establish as to which of these needs are the stronger sources of motivation.

When the third level needs of love and affiliation become motivators, then people find an opportunity in their work environment for establishing friendly interpersonal relationships. The management can satisfy these needs by:

- Providing opportunities for employees to interact socially with each other through coffee breaks, lunch facilities and recreational activities such as organized sports programmes, company picnics and other social get togethers.

- Creating team spirit by keeping work groups informal wherever possible with friendly and supportive supervision.

- Conducting periodic meetings with all subordinates to discuss matters pertaining to personal achievements and contributions as well as organizational developements.

The fourth level needs of self-esteem involve a feeling of satisfaction and achievement and recognition for such achievement. The management can take the following steps to satisfy these needs:

- Design more challenging tasks and provide positive feedback on performance of employees.

- Give recognition and encouragement for performance and contribution and delegate additional authority to subordinates.

- Involve subordinates in goal setting and decision-making processes.

- Provide adequate training and executive development programmes to help employees successfully accomplish their goals and increase their competency on their jobs.

- Provide some of the symbols for status and respect, such as executive level job title, private secretary, privileged parking, promotion, company car, stock options and write-ups about achievements in the company newsletters.

The fifth and top-level needs of self-actualization demand growth and creativity and the management can take the following steps to satisfy these needs.

- The employees should be given an opportunity to shape their own jobs.
- Give employees the freedom of expression. This will open the channels of communications further and give the employees an opportunity to get involved.
- Encourage and develop creativity among employees. Creativity is tied in with freedom of expression and freedom of movement.

Maslow believed that from the point of organizational behaviour, the management should strive to create an organizational hierarchy. Research has established that top managers generally are more able to satisfy their higher level needs than lower level managers who have more routine jobs. Blue collar workers who have very little freedom over job operations may not even experience the higher level need.[12]

7.7 ERG THEORY

The ERG need theory, developed by Clayton Alerter, is a refinement of Maslow's needs hierarchy.[13] Instead of Maslow's five needs, ERG theory condenses these five needs into three needs. These three needs are those of Existence, Relatedness and Growth. The E, R and G are the initials for these needs.

Existence needs   These needs are roughly comparable to the physiological and safety needs of Maslow's model and are satisfied primarily by material incentives. They include all physiological needs of Maslow's model and such safety needs that are satisfied by financial and physical conditions rather than interpersonal relations. These include the needs for sustenance, shelter and physical and psychological safety from threats to people's existence and well-being.

Relatedness needs   Relatedness needs roughly correspond to social and esteem needs in Maslow's hierarchy. These needs are satisfied by personal relationships and social interaction with others. It involves open communication and honest exchange of thoughts and feelings with other organizational members.

Growth needs   These are the needs to develop and grow and reach the full potential that a person is capable of reaching. They are similar to Maslow's self-actualization needs. These needs are fulfilled by strong personal involvement in the organizational environment and by accepting new opportunities and challenges.

A rough similarity between ERG theory and Maslow's theory is as follows:

ERG theory differs from Maslow's theory in proposing that people may be motivated by more than one kind of need at the same time. While Maslow proposes that in the hierarchy of needs, a person will satisfy the lower level needs before he moves up to the next level of needs and will stay at these needs until they are satisfied, ERG theory suggests that if a person is frustrated in satisfying his needs at a given level, he will move back to the lower level needs. For example, assume that a manager's existence needs are fully satisfied and he looks for more challenging tasks to satisfy his self-esteem needs. If his efforts are frustrated in meeting these challenges, he will move back to existence needs and may ask for more material benefits.

Maslow	ERG
Self-actualization	Growth
Self-esteem (upper level)	
Self-esteem (lower level)	Relatedness
Social	
Safety	Existence
Physiological	

7.8 McCLELLAND'S THEORY OF NEEDS

Since the lower level needs in Maslow's model are generally satisfied by the business, societal and legal systems, they are no longer strong motivators. Studies conducted by Harvard psychologist David McClelland[14] concluded that from the organizational behaviour point of view, the most prominent need is the "achievement motive" and affiliation. The primary motive is the "achievement motive" and is defined as a "desire to succeed in competitive situations based upon an established or perceived standard of excellence."

Individuals with a strong "need for achievement" (known as n Ach), ask for, accept and perform well in challenging tasks, that require creativity, ingenuity and hard work. They are constantly preoccupied with a desire for improvement and look for situations in which successful outcomes are directly correlated with their efforts so that they can claim credit for success. They take moderate and calculated risks and prefer to get quick and precise feedback on their performance. They set more difficult but achievable goals for themselves because success with easily achievable goals hardly provides a sense of achievement. They desire greater pleasure and excitement from solving a complex problem than from financial incentives or simple praise.

The "need for power" (n Pow) is the desire to affect and control the behaviour of other people and to manipulate the surroundings. Power motivation, when applied positively, results in successful mangers and leaders who prefer democratic style of leadership. Power motivation, applied negatively, tends to create arrogant autocratic leadership. The individuals who are high in "n Pow" are described by Litwin and Stringer[15] as follows.

"They usually attempt to influence others directly—by making suggestions, by giving their opinions and evaluations and by trying to talk others into things. They seek positions at leadership in group activities, whether they become leaders or are seen only as "dominating individuals" depends on other attributes such as ability and sociability. They are usually verbally fluent, often talkative, sometimes argumentative."

These individuals tend to be superior performers and show high degree of loyalty to the organization. They are more mature, with a strong sense of justice and equity and are willing to sacrifice their own self interests for the sake of organizational interests.

The "need for affiliation" (n Aff) is related to social needs and reflects a desire for friendly and warm relationships with others. Individuals tend to seek affiliation with others who have similar beliefs, backgrounds and outlook on life. This results in the formation of informal groups and informal organizations. It is evident in social circles also that people mix with people of their own kind. Individuals with high "n Aff" tend to get involved in jobs that require a high amount of interpersonal contacts and relations such as jobs in teaching and public relations. From organizational behaviour point of view, these individuals are highly motivated to perform better in situations where personal support and approval are tied to performance. They tend to avoid conflict and exhibit strong conformity to the wishes of their friends.

7.9   HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

Fredrick Herzberg and his associates developed the two-factor theory in the late 1950s and early 1960s.[16] As part of a study of job satisfaction, Herzberg and his colleagues conducted in-depth interviews with over 200 engineers and accountants in the Pittsburgh area. The researchers felt that a person's relation to his work is a basic one and that his attitude towards work would determine his organization related behaviour. The respondents were required to describe in detail the type of environment in which they felt exceptionally good about their jobs and the type of environment in which they felt bad about their jobs. It seems natural to believe that people who are generally satisfied with their jobs will be more dedicated to their work and perform it well as compared to those people who are dissatisfied with their jobs. If the logic seems justified, then it would be useful to isolate those factors and conditions that produce satisfaction with the job and those factors that produce dissatisfaction.

The basic questions that were asked in the survey were the following two:

(a) What is it about your job that you like? and
(b) What is it about your job that you dislike?

Based upon the answers it was concluded that there are certain characteristics or factors that tend to be consistently related to job satisfaction and there are other factors that are consistently related to job dissatisfaction. Herzberg named the factors that are related to job satisfaction as motivational factors, that are intrinsic in nature and factors related to job dissatisfaction as maintenance or hygiene factors, that are extrinsic in nature. These factors are described in detail as follows.

Hygiene Factors

Hygiene factors do not motivate people. They simply prevent dissatisfaction and maintain status quo. They produce no growth but prevent loss. The absence of these factors leads to job dissatisfaction. The elimination of dissatisfaction does not mean satisfaction and these factors simply maintain a "zero level of motivation". For example, if a person indicated "low pay as a cause of dissatisfaction, it would not necessarily identify "high pay" as a cause of satisfaction.

Some of the hygiene factors are

- Wages, salary and other types of employee benefits.
- Company policies and administration rules that govern the working environment.
- Interpersonal relations with peers, supervisors and subordinates. Cordial relations with all will prevent frustration and dissatisfaction.
- Working conditions and job security. The job security may be in the form of tenure or it could be supported by a strong union.
- Supervisor's technical competence as well as the quality of his supervision. If the supervisor is knowledgeable about the work and is patient with his subordinates and explains and guides them well, the subordinates would not be dissatisfied in this respect.

All the hygiene factors are designed to avoid damage to efficiency or morale and these are not expected to stimulate positive growth.

The word "hygiene" is taken from the medical field, where it means taking steps to maintain your health but not necessarily improve it. For example, brushing your teeth helps prevent cavities but does not improve the condition of your teeth. Similarly, hygiene factors in this theory of motivation prevent decay but do not encourage growth.

Hawthorne experiments were highly conclusive in suggesting that improvements in working conditions or increments in financial benefits do not contribute to motivated performance. A new plant or upgraded facilities at a plant seldom motivate workers if

they do not enjoy their work and these physical facilities are no substitute for employee feelings of recognition and achievement.

Motivational Factors

These factors are related to the nature of work (job content) and are intrinsic to the job itself. These factors have a positive influence on morale, satisfaction, efficiency and higher productivity. Some of these factors are :

The job itself　　To be motivated, people must like and enjoy their jobs. They become highly committed to goal achievement and do not mind working till late hours in order to do what is to be done. Their morale is high as evidenced by lack of absenteeism and tardiness.

Recognition　　Proper recognition of an employee's contribution by the management is highly morale boosting. It gives the workers a feeling of worth and self esteem. It is human nature to be happy when appreciated. Thus such recognition is highly motivational.

Achievement　　A goal achievement gives a great feeling of accomplishment. The goal must be challenging, requiring initiative and creativity. An assembly line worker finishing his routine work hardly gets the feeling of achievement. The opportunities must exist for meaningful achievement, otherwise workers become sensitized to the environment and begin to find faults with it.

Responsibility　　It is an obligation on the part of the employee to carry out the assigned duties satisfactorily. The higher the level of these duties, the more responsible the worker would feel and more motivated he would be. It is a good feeling to know that you are considered a person of integrity and intelligence to be given a higher responsibility. It is a motivational factor that helps growth.

Growth and advancement　　These factors are all interrelated and are positively related to motivation. Job promotions, higher responsibility, participation in central decision-making and executive benefits are all signs of growth and advancement and add to dedication and commitment of employees.

Herzberg's two-factor model is tied in with Maslow's basic model in that Maslow is helpful in identifying needs and Herzerg provides us with directions and incentives that tend to satisfy these needs. Also the hygiene factors in Harzberg's model satisfy the first three levels of Maslow's model of physiological needs, i.e. security, safety and social needs and the motivational factors satisfy the two higher level needs of esteem and self-actualization.
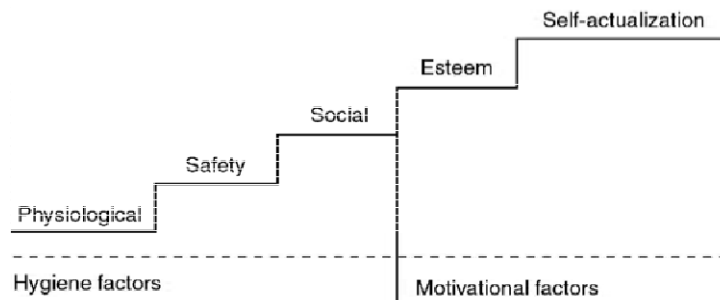
7.10 EVALUATION OF THE THEORY

Some researchers do not agree with Herzberg's model as being conclusive, since the results were based primarily on the responses of white collar workers (accountants and

engineers) and do not necessarily reflect the blue collar workers' opinion who may consider hygiene factors as motivational factors. Some studies have found that the effects of hygiene factors and motivational factors are totally reversed on some people.[17] They are highly motivated by financial rewards, organized supervision, well-defined work rules, pleasant working environment and positive employee interaction and do not give much importance to achievement and self-actualization.

Another criticism about Herzberg's two-factor theory dwells upon the method of research and data collection. The theory was developed on the basis of "critical incident" method. According to this method, the respondents were asked to indicate particular incidents that they felt were associated with their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with jobs. This means that the theory is "method bound" and studies that use other methods for measuring satisfaction and dissatisfaction fail to support the validity of Herzberg's theory.[18]

Furthermore, the theory does not take into consideration individual differences in values and outlook as well as the indivdual's age and organizational level.

However, this theory has contributed to one management program that has lent itself to the enhancement of motivators. It provides valuable guidelines for structuring the jobs in order to include within the job content such factors that bring about satisfaction.

7.11 PORTER LAWLER MODEL

The Porter Lawler model was developed by Lyman W. Porter and Edward E. Lawler as a complete version of motivation depending upon the expectancy theory. The Porter Lawler model says that the levels of motivation are based more on the value that individuals place on the reward. The following figure shows the porter lawler model.
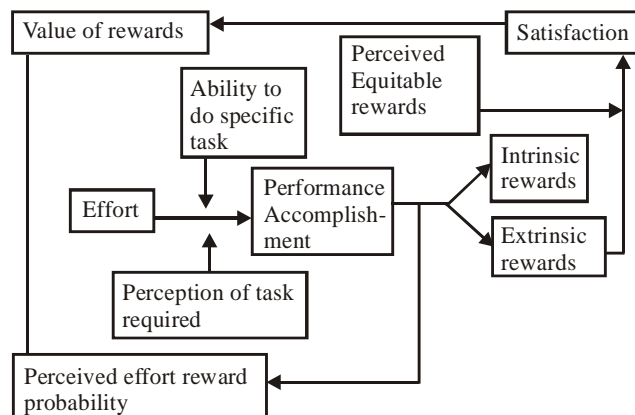
The actual performance in a job is mainly determined by the effort spent by an individual to perform a particular job. It is also affected by the ability of an individual to do the job and also by perception that an individual has about the required task. Therefore, performance is the responsible factor that leads to intrinsic as well as extrinsic rewards. These provides job lead to satisfaction to an individual. Hence, satisfaction of the individual depends upon the fairness of the reward.

The porter lawler model is based on the Vroom's model but it is more complex in a number of ways. According to this model, increased effort does not automatically lead to improved performance because individuals may not possess the necessary abilities needed to achieve high levels of performance. It is also because they may have an inadequate or wrong perception of how to perform the necessary tasks. Individuals may exert considerably without understanding how to direct effort effectively. This does not lead him to good performance but rather gives less output than expected.

7.12 VROOM'S EXPECTANCY MODEL

The expectancy model is based upon the belief that motivation is determined by the nature of the reward people expect to get as a result of their job performance. The underlying assumption is that a man is a rational being and will try to maximize his perceived value of such rewards. He will choose an alternative that would give him the most benefit. People are highly motivated if they believe that a certain type of behaviour will lead to a certain type of outcome and their extent of personal preference for that type of outcome.

There are 3 important elements in the model.[1] These are:

Expectancy This is a person's perception of the likelihood that a particular outcome will result from a particular behaviour or action. This likelihood is probabilistic in nature and describes the relationship between an act and its outcome. For example, if a student works hard during the semester, he will expect to do well in the final examination. It is not 100% definite that he will indeed do well in the examination. There is some probability attached to this outcome. Similarly, if a person works hard, he may expect to perform better and increase productivity.[2] For example, a worker works hard and is absolutely certain (expectancy = 1.0) that he can produce an average of 15 units a day and 60% certain (expectancy = 0.6) that he can produce a high of 20 units per day. This expectation of outcome is known as "first level" outcome.

Instrumentality This factor relates to a person's belief and expectation that his performance will lead to a particular desired reward. It is the degree of association of first level outcome of a particular effort to the second level outcome—that is the ultimate reward. For example, working hard may lead to better performance—which is the first level outcome, and it may result in a reward such as salary increase or promotion or both—which is the second level outcome. If a person believes that his high performance will not be recognized or lead to expected and desired rewards, he will not be motivated to work hard for better output. Similarly, a professor may work hard to improve upon his techniques of teaching and communication (first level outcome) in order to get promotion and tenure (second level outcome). Accordingly, instrumentality is the performance-reward relationship.

Valence Valence is the value a person assigns to his desired reward. He may not be willing to work hard to improve performance if the reward for such improved performance is not what he desires. It is not the actual value of the reward but the perceptual value of the reward in the mind of the worker that is important. A person may be motivated to work hard not to get a pay raise but to get recognition and status. Another person may be more interested in job security than status.

According to this model of motivation, a person's level of effort (motivation) depends upon:

Expectancy A worker must be confident that his efforts will result in better productivity and that he has the ability to perform the task well.

Instrumentality The worker must be confident that such high performance will be instrumental in getting desired rewards.

Valence The worker must value these rewards as desired and satisfactory. Hence motivation is related to all these three factors as:

Motivational Force (M) = Expectancy (E) $\times$ Instrumentality (I) $\times$ Valence (V)

or $\qquad\qquad$ M = (E $\times$ I $\times$ V)

As the relationship suggests, the motivational force will be the highest when expectancy, instrumentality and valence are all high and the motivational value is greatly reduced when any one or more of expectancy, instrumentality or valence approaches the value of zero.

The Vroom model can be graphically depicted as follows:
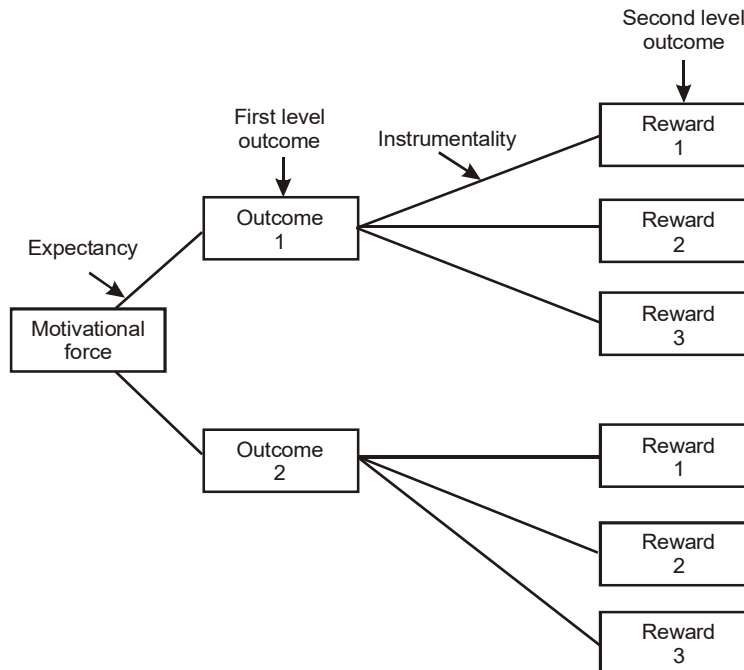
The management must recognize and determine the situation as it exists and take steps to improve upon these three factors of expectancy, instrumentality and valence for the purpose of behavioural modification so that these three elements achieve the highest value individually. For example, if a worker exhibits a poorly motivated behaviour, it could be due to:

Low effort-performance expectancy   The worker may lack the necessary skills and training in order to improve the relationship between effort and performance.

Low performance-reward instrumentality relationship   The worker may believe that similar performance does not lead to similar rewards. The reward policy may be inconsistent and may depend upon factors other than simply the performance, that the worker may be aware of or may not consider fair. For example, a professor may do research and have professional articles published in order to get a promotion and may find out later that more weight was given to community service rather than research at the time of promotion. Accordingly, the performance appraisal methods and the associated performance rewards may not be equitable. Management must re-evaluate the appraisal techniques and formulate policies that strengthen performance reward relationship in a consistent, fair and equitable manner.

Low reward-valence relationship   Since the mangers may look at the value of a reward differently than the worker, the management must investigate the desirability of the rewards that are given on the basis of performance. While monetary benefits may be more desirable for some workers, the need to be formally appreciated may be a more valuable reward for others for similar task oriented activities. Vroom's model tries to explain as to what factors affect a person's choice of a particular course of action among all available alternatives and why a person would be better motivated towards achievement of certain goals as compared to some other goals. Accordingly, managers must understand and analyze the preferences of particular subordinates in order to

design "individualized motivational packages" to meet their needs, keeping in mind that all such packages should be perceived as generally fair by all concerned parties.

7.13 SUMMARY

People's work performance depends upon their ability to do their assigned work as well as their "will" to do so. Stronger "will" reflects stronger motivation to achieve a goal. The word motivation is derived from motive, which is a need or a desire requiring movement towards the goal of achievement of such need and desire. It is an action, movement or behaviour that must fulfill the unsatisfied need.

The motivation can be positive that requires appreciating employee's efforts resulting in better performance or it could be negative that induces fear and punishment for less efforts. Motivation can also be induced by external factors such as financial rewards for better output or it could be intrinsic in nature that is inner-generated. This means that accomplishing something worthwhile motivates the employee further and this motivation is independent of financial rewards.

Historically speaking, the concept of motivation can be traced back twenty-three centuries as reflected in the Greek and Indian writings. These earlier philosophies proposed that we are motivated to do what brings us the best results for our benefit. Similarly, the Greek concept of Hedonism is based upon realizing maximum pleasure while at the same time evading pain and discomfort. This brings in the concept of rationality where our actions become utility oriented. These views were held over a long period of time so that the concept of motivation came under scientific study and investigation only in the early 1930s. This study led to a number of theories and models.

The content theories of work motivation explain the nature of motivation in terms of types of need that people experience. The concept of motivation is explained by the fact that people have certain fundamental needs, both physiological and psychological in nature and that they are motivated to engage in activities that would satisfy these needs.

Abraham Maslow built the needs into an hierarchy in order of priority. The most fundamental needs are the physiological needs such as food, clothing, shelter and so on. Then in order came the needs for safety and security, as love and affection, need for respect and self-esteem and finally the self-actualization need that is considered to be the ultimate fulfillment of life. Management can motivate workers by identifying their need level and taking steps to fulfill these needs.

ERG theory, developed by Clayton Alerter, condenses the five needs proposed by Maslow into three and ERG stands for Existence, Relatedness and Growth. The existence needs are roughly comparable to physiological and safety needs of Maslow's model and are satisfied primarily by material incentives. Relatedness needs roughly correspond to social and self-esteem needs and finally, the growth needs are similar to self-actualization needs.

McClelland's theory of needs is based upon the premise that lower level needs in Maslow's model are generally taken care of by business, societal and legal systems and hence are no longer motivators. According to this theory, the most prominent need from organizational behaviour point of view is the need for achievement, power and affiliation. The individuals with a high degree of need for achievement, power and affiliation are highly motivated to move towards fulfilling these needs at the highest levels.

Herzberg's two-factor theory classifies all the work related factors into two categories. First category contains factors that are known as hygiene factors. These factors prevent dissatisfaction but do not motivate. Some of these factors are wages and benefits,

working conditions, organizational rules and policies, cordial relations with peers and superiors, job security and so on. These factors are designed to avoid damage to efficiency or morale and are not expected to stimulate positive growth. Motivational factors on the other hand have a positive influence on morale, satisfaction, efficiency and higher productivity. These are the type of jobs one enjoys, recognition for employee input and performance, a feeling of accomplishment, increased responsibility and authority and growth and advancement with the organization.

7.14 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. Motivation is defined as a drive that tries to satisfy an existing unsatisfied need. Is this drive within you as an inherited trait or is it the force of environmental factors that created this drive? Give examples.

2. There are four sources of motivation. Which source do you think is the most suitable in free economic society as ours and why?

3. Can the negative or fear type of motivation produce lasting positive effects on behaviour and morale? Support your reason.

4. Maslow's model of hierarchical needs lists the needs in order of priority so that first level needs must be satisfied before the second level needs become motivators and so on. How rigid is this order of priority? Explain as to what circumstances would justify a different order of priority.

5. What can the management do to satisfy the various level needs of workers as shown in Maslow's model?

6. Explain in detail the ERG theory of motivation. How does it significantly differ from Maslow's model of motivation?

7. According to McClelland's theory of needs, the primary motive is the need to succeed in competitive situations. Do you agree with this concept? Explain your reasons.

8. Herzberg disagrees with Maslow to the extent that while Maslow believes that the first three level needs, such as physiological, safety and social needs, are motivators, Herzberg believes these to be hygiene factors and not motivators. Which view do you agree with and why?nswers to 'Check Your Progress'

7.15 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Motivation represents an unsatisfied need which creates a state of tension or disequilibrium, causing the individual to move in a goal directed pattern towards restoring a state of equilibrium, by satisfying the need.

2. **Positive motivation**   Positive motivation involves proper recognition of employee efforts and appreciation of employee contribution towards the organizational goal achievement.

   Negative or fear motivation   This motivation is based upon the use of force, power, fear and threats. The fear of punishment or unfavourable consequences affects the behavioural changes.

3. McGregor's Theory, Maslow's needs hierarchy theory, ERG theory, McClelland's theory of needs, Herzberg-s two-factor theory

7.16 FURTHER READING

1. Johns, Gary, *Organizational Behavior: Understanding Life at Work*, Scott Foresman and Company.
2. Mintzberg, Henry, *The Nature of Managerial Work*, Harper & Row.
3. Wren, W.A., *The Evolution of Management Thought*, John Wiley & Sons.

CASE STUDY

Dr. Ranga comes from a very highly placed family of South India. His father was Major General in the armed forces and his mother, an educated housewife, was very ambitious and aggressive in teaching her children the value of success, competition and achievement. All the five children in the family are very well settled in various fields.

Dr. Ranga, the second son and the third child in the family was specially loved and attended to by the mother because he was exceptionally bright and from a very early age, expressed his desire to become a doctor. He went to the best convent school, was accepted in one of the finest medical schools in India and completed his MBBS degree in 5 years, specializing in neurosurgery.

After spending two years in medical residency in a hospital in India, he went to America in 1974 and started working in a hospital. He was highly diligent, hardworking and became known as one of the best neurosurgeons in the hospital by 1980. In the meantime, he went to India in 1976, got married and had one daughter. He was making very good money and was considered as one of the most successful and affluent Indian doctors in the Indian social circles.

In 1984, one of Dr. Ranga's old friends from India, Dr. Singh, who had also settled in America visited an Indian restaurant for dinner. He was most surprised to see Dr. Ranga sitting lotus style on the floor playing an Indian musical instrument known as sitar. His total income from playing the instrument for the guests including tips came to less than $100 for the day. Dr. Singh greeted Dr. Ranga with affection but wanted to know what was going on. The conversation went something like this.

Dr. Singh: Dr. Ranga! My God! What a surprise? I have not seen you for ages. I heard you are working in a hospital as a neurosurgeon and I assume you are playing the sitar just as a hobby.

Dr. Ranga: No Dr. Singh. I am not playing the sitar as a hobby. I am playing it as a profession. I have always liked music and it gives me a lot of peace of mind. My needs are limited and I make enough money to satisfy these needs.

Dr. Singh: But Dr. Ranga, you spent a lifetime being a doctor, a very good neurosurgeon—with unlimited money potential. You could afford the most beautiful house, the best car and anything else you wanted. Everybody wants the best in materialistic possessions. They are the best motivators to work harder, achieve more in your professional life and be successful. I feel bad that you have to give up all that.

Dr. Ranga: But I have achieved all I wanted to achieve. I made a lot of money and I have everything material that I need. These material things are no longer motivators to me. Now I want to know myself. I want to understand the purpose of life. I want to be happy. And I am happy. I am what I want to be and I do what makes me happy. Isn't happiness the ultimate goal in life anyway?

Dr. Singh: Well, you are right on that point and I wish you best of luck.

Questions

1. What has Dr. Ranga lost by giving up his job and medical practice and what has he gained instead?

2. How does Maslow model of motivation explain and justify his behaviour?

3. What do you think might have prompted Dr. Ranga to change his entire outlook on life? Knowing what you know, do you think his change in behaviour was a gradual process building within him or is it possible that some sort of crisis situation suddenly affected this change?

4. How does McClelland's theory of needs fit in with this situation where McClelland's theory emphasizes achievement, power and affiliation as the primary motivators in an organizational setting?

5. Do you think that the fact that Dr. Ranga is from India where cultural values emphasize harmony with God and that a man's life is predestined, as compared to American values of individualized achievement and the belief that the man is the architect of his own fortune, has something to do with his decision to change his life style and behaviour?

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UNIT 8   GROUP BEHAVIOUR

Structure

8.0   INTRODUCTION

In general, a number of people together at a given place and given time can be considered a group. People in a bus or the same compartment of a train or students in a class are all known as groups. However, from an organizational point of view, a group has a different meaning and definition. According to Marvin Shaw,[1] "A group is two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other person." There are two key elements in this definition that are essential. First is the "interaction" among group members. For example, co-workers may work side by side on related tasks, but if they do not interact with each other, they are not a group in the organizational sense. The second element is the influence of one group member on every other group member. This means that the group members are mutually dependent with respect to the attainment of one or more common goals.

While all individuals in the group are primarily required to direct their efforts towards common organizational goals, there may be situations where individuals within the group are more interested in the achievement of their personal goals, thus making the organizational goals secondary. For example, a member of the high school basketball team may be more interested in highlighting his own performance in order to win a college scholarship irrespective of whether the entire team wins or not, even though all members of the team interact with each other and influence each other's performance.

It should be noted that in order for the group members to interact with each other effectively, the group size should be reasonably small. It is difficult to interact closely with each other when the group size is very large. In fact, the dynamics of large groups are significantly different from the dynamics of small groups. Accordingly, our concern is primarily with groups of reasonable size.

8.1   UNIT OBJECTIVES

- To know some of the basic attributes of groups
- To ascertain some of the reasons as to why people form groups

- To know the differences between formal types of groups and informal types of groups
- To analyze some of the reasons for group cohesiveness
- To balance the advantages and disadvantages of committees
- To understand guidelines for using groups more effectively

8.2 DEFINITION OF GROUP DYNAMICS

In general, a number of people together at a given place and given time can be considered as a group. People on a bus or in the same compartment of a train or students in a class are all considered as groups. However, from an organizational point of view, a group has a different meaning and definition. A group, in an organizational sense, is two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by one another. There are two key elements in this definition which are essential to form a group. First is the "interaction" among group members. For example, coworkers may work side by side on related tasks, but if they do not interact with each other, they are not a group in the organizational sense. The second element is the influence one group member on every other group member. This means that the group members are mutually dependent with respect to the attainment of one or more common goals.

Accordingly, the interaction as well as the mutual dependence define the nature of group dynamics. Such dynamics require that the groups be effective groups. An effective group is one that achieves high levels of task performance, member satisfaction and team viability. The task performance means the achievement of performance goals in terms of quantity, quality and timeliness of work results. Member satisfaction means that the members believe that their participation and experience are positive and they are happy about their work and their environment. Team viability represents a desire of the members to continue working well together on an ongoing basis and that group members do not have unsolvable conflicts.

8.3 REASONS FOR GROUP FORMATION

Why do individuals form themselves into groups? What are the reasons for forming or joining a group and what are the benefits to such individuals who become a part of the group? There are many factors that influence the formation of the group, the most important being that the individual need satisfaction. This means that the members expect affiliation with the group to satisfy a need. This need is primarily a social need for love, affection and friendship, which is the third level need in Maslow's model of hierarchical needs. But the need could also be economic in nature because of economic group incentives, that are generally financially more generous than individual incentives. Also being a member of a union is economically advantageous because unions can fight for higher pay and fringe benefits more effectively.

The most basic theory explaining group affiliation is the geographic proximity.[2] For example, individuals working in the same area are more likely to form a group than those who are not physically located together. Similarly, students sitting near each other in a classroom are more likely to form into a group than students sitting at opposite ends of the classroom.

According of George Homans,[3] there are three elements that form the foundations of groups. These are activities, interactions and sentiments. These three elements are inter-related. An improvement in one element will trigger an improvement in others. For example, the more activities persons share, that means improvement in the first element, the more interaction will take place and stronger will be their sentiments.

While there are many reasons why individuals would either form or join a group, some reasons standout. A sense of belonging and interpersonal attraction may be so strong that some people are willing to pay a high price for joining an exclusive country club, golf club or flying club. Some of the more important reasons are illustrated as follows.
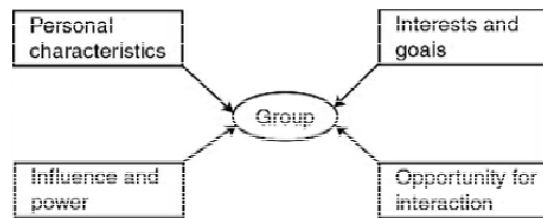
Personal Characteristics

People are more likely to form groups with others who share similar beliefs, values, and attitudes. As the saying goes, "birds of a feather fly together", so the groups form around common political and cultural philosophies, ethnic and religious affiliations and such factors as age, sex, intelligence or similar interests and hobbies. For example, salesmen who are high need achievers may want to interact with other high achiever salesmen. There is also a contradictory saying that, "opposites attract each other".[4] There may be situations where some dominant individuals may seek the company of submissive individuals specially when this grouping leads to achievement of a common goal. For example, if a vice-president and a low level clerk of the same company lose their jobs, they may form a group to fight the company together.

Interests and Goals

Interests and goals that are common and require cooperation with others for achievement of such goals are a powerful force behind such group formation. Individuals with common goals tend to work together. For example, within an organization, the salesmen form a group, so do the production people and the accounting people. Even though the salesmen may have individual goals, their organizational goal is common.

Some goals simply cannot be achieved by individuals alone and they require group cooperative activity. For example, the sky-scrapers cannot be built by one person alone. It requires group efforts in all areas of building. Similarly, there are a number of groups involved in constructing and sending a satellite into space. If these individuals in the group with a common group and organizational goal also have similar personal characteristics, then the group cohesion can be strengthened and group efforts can be improved. Some groups form because of similar intellectual and recreational goals and pursuits. Golf clubs, chess clubs and hunting clubs are some of the groups with recreational pursuits. Groups are often organized to accomplish some problem solving and decision making tasks such as designing political strategies or designing computers.

The goals can also be social and emotional in nature. Thus the groups are formed because of the individual's need for safety and security, sense of belonging and affiliation and self esteem. Safety and security needs of individuals are satisfied though groups. Even from the early days, men used to go out hunting for food together in groups to face outside threats from animals and other hostile environments. Group formation is likely when the environment becomes hostile and threatening. For example, in times of floods, fire or other natural disasters, neighbours who may not be even speaking with each other form effective groups to help and shelter the people affected by such

disasters. In an organizational setting, individual workers join unions because the unions have the ability to meet their needs and interests as well as protect them from threats of being fired.[5]

A sense of belonging is the third level need in Maslow's model of hierarchical needs. It is an emotional need for friendship, love, affection and affiliation with others. Most people have strong a need for being with others who can understand, support and help them when they are in need and render them moral and emotional support in times of difficulty. The concept of family and friends fills this need.

Membership of prestigious groups is a source of enhanced self-esteem. The members of the group feel good about themselves by virtue of the group's power, prestige and social standing. For example, being in United States Marines or SWAT team can be a source of pride for the members.

Opportunity for Interaction

When people are provided with an opportunity to interact, they may discover that they have a lot in common, thus necessitating the formation of a group. This interaction leads to friendships and group formation, for example, in college dormitories, apartment complexes and sometimes in the compartment of a train or on cruise ships where people are together and have an opportunity to form informal groups.[6]

In an organizational setting, management generally tries to create a physical as well as psychological environment to induce interaction. Sometimes, the offices are designed in such a manner that people who need to interact with each other can do so and they are assigned work space close to each other. Common cafeterias and coffee breaks given at the same time increases opportunity for interaction.

Influence and Power

There is a saying in India that, "while a single one is just a one, two single ones make it an eleven". We all know that there is strength in unity. Henry Fayol's last of the fourteen principles of effective administration is "Espirt de Corps", which means the "power of spirt of togetherness". There is another saying supporting the same sentiment, "united we stand, divided we fall".

Most managers listen to a complaint of employees when the employees approach the managers together. The same managers may not listen to individual complaints. In the case of one college, that the author knows, there were many individual faculty complaints against the President of the college for some of his decisions and actions, as well as against many aspects of the physical and conceptual academic environment of the college. But the President refused to listen or show sympathy for the needs and desires of faculty on individual basis. But when the faculty as group in the form of "faculty organization" approached the President with their problems and difficulties and the President still refused to listen, he was forced to resign, because of the power of the group.

Groups also provide opportunities for individual members to become leaders of the group and influence other members of the group with their views and reasoning. As a leader of a group, he may influence people outside the group or other groups. Leaders of certain groups are often called upon to speak to other groups thus giving them an opportunity to express their own view points and ideologies. Theses leaders may also find that their leadership roles give them increased public visibility and may prove to be stepping stones for enhancement of their own careers.

8.4   TYPES OF GROUPS

From an organizational behaviour point of view, there are basically two types of groups. These are: formal groups and informal groups.

Formal Groups

A group is formal when it is purposely designed to accomplish an organizational objective or task. It is created via a formal authority for some defined purpose.

A formal group can be a command group or a functional group that is relatively permanent and is composed of managers and their subordinates who meet regularly to discuss general and specific ideas to improve product or service. A typical command group in an organization chart may be illustrated as follows.

The formal groups usually work under a single supervisor, even though the structure of these groups may vary. For example, in one form of group such as in production, the members of the work group depend on each other as well as on the supervisor and in another form of group, such as sales force, the members of the group work fairly independently and their common contact may be the district sales manager.

Other types of formal groups include task forces and committees. The task forces are temporary in nature and are set up for some special projects. The committees can be permanent, such as a planning committee, a finance committee or a budget committee and may become an integral part of the organizational structure. A committee can also be temporary such as a special task force that is set up for a particular purpose and is then disbanded when the purpose is achieved. For example, the committee to reelect the President is temporary in nature and is disbanded after the election.

Informal Groups

Whereas informal groups are established by organizations to achieve some specific objectives, the informal groups are formed by the members of such groups by themselves. They emerge naturally, in response to the common interests of organizational members. They are formed spontaneously, without any formal designation, and with common interests such as self-defence, work assistance and social interaction. They exist outside the formal authority system and without any set rigid rules. Though officially unrecognized, they exist in the shadow of the formal structure as a network of personal and social relations, that must be understood and respected by the management.

The informal work groups are based upon socio-psychological support and reasoning and depend upon member's interaction, communication, personal likings and dislikings and social contacts within as well as outside the organization. How powerful are these informal groups can be seen from the fact that if one member of the group is fired, sometimes all workers go on strike in support of that member of the group. The bonds between members are very strong and these bonds bring in a sense of belonging and togetherness. This togetherness can have a powerful influence on productivity and job satisfaction, since employees motivate each other and share each other's burden by training those who are new and by looking up to old timers for guidance, advice and assistance.

Informal groups generally result due to personal bonds and social interaction among people who work together at the same place and may have similarities as well as differences in their nature and their outlook. These groups have their own leaders and followers, group goals, social roles and working patterns. They have their own unwritten rules and a code of conduct, that every member implicitly accepts. Members

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Check Your Progress

1. Define group behaviour.
2. Explain   various   types of groups.

trust and help each other. For example, in a department of a college, the departmental secretary may wield more authority in some areas than even the chairperson as in the case of typing exams and typing course outlines. Thus a professor who has a good rapport with the secretary, as a member of the informal group, would have the papers typed sooner than others.

The leadership of the informal groups develops from within rather than a formal election. An individual, who is working in a group for a long time and has a good rapport with other members, may emerge as a leader due to his technical expertise and his seniority. For any problem within the group, either technical or social, the members would go to this leader rather than the formally assigned supervisor.

Some of the other aspects of informal groups are as follows:

Group norms   Parallel to performance and other standards established by the formal organizational structure, the informal groups have their own norms as rules of conduct and a standard of behaviour that is expected of all members. These norms may be established in consultation with the management, so that group goals do not conflict with the organizational goals. For example, if one member of the group is unproductive or talks ill about the organization, he may be sanctioned by other members either by reprimand or ridicule or simply by the "silent treatment". Similarly, if one member is overly productive in order to be in the good books of management personally, thus making the other members look bad, he could be similarly sanctioned in order to bring him back in line. A study conducted by P.C. De La Porte[7] showed that the group norms that are favourable to the organization are: organizational pride, team work, honesty, security, planning, customer relations and so on. The norms about profitability and supervision were unfavouable to the organization.

Groups roles   There is an unwritten assignment within the group as to which task will be done by whom and under what conditions. Some job roles are assigned by the management by matching the job description with the person's qualifications and some other roles develop within the group. For example, some members may informally be technical advisors to others as to how to do the job better and others may act as arbitrators in social problems or other differences that may arise among members.

Group goals   The goal of the informal group, whether it be profitability that conflicts with the organizational goals or customer service which is in accord, heavily influences productivity. It is necessary to integrate the group goals with the organizational goals for the purpose of improvement and success.

Leadership   The informal leader emerges from the group either because of his personal charisma, his social status or his technical expertise. He is not formally elected but is accepted in the minds and hearts of the workers. These leaders influence the behaviour of others and remain leaders as long as they are sincere to the group interests.

Group cohesiveness   Cohesiveness refers to the degree and strength of interpersonal attraction among members of the group. High degree of cohesion is highly motivating in achieving the group goals. Members help each other and support each other. The degree of cohesiveness depends upon the commonness of the perceived group goal, the size of the group and the ability of the group leader to facilitate cohesion. Group cohesion also has synergetic effects where, together they produce much more by the collective efforts than the sum product of the individual efforts. (Detailed discussion of groups cohesiveness follows later.)

The informal groups are powerful instruments in all organizations and sometimes they can make the difference between success and failure. When the group members "want" to do a job, it is always done better than when they "have" to do it because of instructions from the superiors. A cooperative group makes the supervision easier thus lengthening the effective span of management. The group is also there to make sure that the basic principles of the formal organization are not violated. For example, if a manager

misuses his authority and promotes an unqualified person, the informal group may use its influence in making sure that it does not happen. The informal group also serves as an additional channel of communication to the management about conditions of work when such information may not be available through official channels.

One problem with an informal group is that it is primarily centered towards human elements, that can be highly unpredictable affecting the smooth operations of the organization. Due to rules and procedures being unwritten, they can change from situation to situation. Also the informal group can be considered subversive in nature if their goals conflict with the formal organizational goals. In such situations, managers often view them with doubt and suspicion. They tend to see informal groups as potentially harmful to the formal organization. For that reason, some mangers seek the support of informal groups and their leaders in order to reduce such a threat. They tend to view such informal groups as valid, stable and structurally sound and hence show consideration and respect for their existence and their views.

8.5 GROUP COHESIVENESS

Cohesiveness defines the degree of closeness that the members feel with the group. It identifies the strength of the member's desires to remain in the group and the degree of commitment to the group. The extent of cohesiveness depends upon many factors including the compatibility of individual goals with group goals. The more the members are attracted to each other and the more the group goals align with their individual goals, the greater the group's cohesivness.[8] Similarly, less attraction of members towards each other will lesson the strength of cohesiveness. There may be situations where an individual may become a member of a country club for the sake of his own prestige or career enhancement or for making selective friends for his business interests. These reasons for joining the group will undermine the strength of cohesiveness.

Factors Contributing to Group Cohesiveness

There are many factors that foster the cohesion of the group. Some of the more important factors are illustrated below:
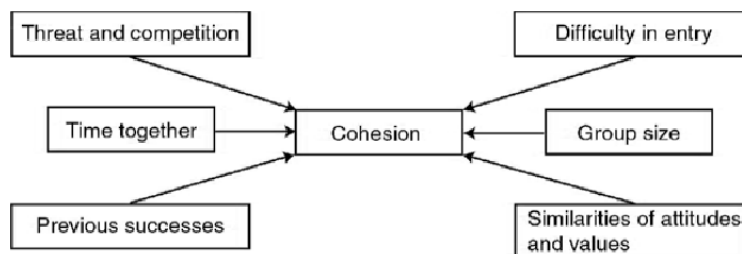
These factors are explained in more detail as follows:

Time together   It is quite natural that the more time people spend together, the more they will get to know each other and more tendency there will be to get closer to each other, thus strengthening the degree of cohesiveness. This is based upon the assumption that you will spend more time with only those whom you like personally and want to continue interacting with them. These interactions typically lead to common interests and increased attraction. The idea of long courtships or the idea that couples live together before marriage is primarily to ensure that there will be a high degree of cohesiveness in the marriage if the couple gets to know each other well by spending more time together and in close proximity to each other.

In an organizational setting, people who work near each other are more likely to spend more time together. For example, among clerical workers in one organization, it was found that distance between their desks was the single most important determinant of the rate of interaction among them.

Group size   Since continuous and close interaction among members is a fundamental necessity for cohesiveness, it would be natural to assume that large groups restrict the extent of communication and interaction with each other, thus resulting in the reduction of degree of cohesiveness. Another problem with large size groups is that there is a likelihood of forming small groups within the large groups. This would result in the dilution of the common group goal thus increasing the extent of power politics play. This tends to decrease the overall cohesiveness.

Another interesting aspect about group cohesion depends upon whether the group is all male, all female or mixed. Studies showed that if all members were of the same sex then smell groups had better cohesion than large ones.[9] But when the groups were made up of both males and females, then larger groups had better cohesion. It seems that people like to join mixed groups than single sex groups and an opportunity to interact with a larger set of both sexes increases cohesiveness.

Difficulty in entry   Some groups are not easy to join. The members are very carefully selected and the selected member feels a sense of pride and accomplishment. The more difficult it is to get into a group, the more cohesive that group becomes. The reason being that in exclusive and elite groups the members are selected on the basis of certain characteristics and these characteristics being common to all add to the degree of liking and attraction towards each other. The more exclusive the group, the more is the closeness among members. Accordingly, individuals like to join such exclusive groups. That is one reason, for example, why many bright students want to study at Harvard and Princeton universities. Similarly, exclusive yacht clubs and golf clubs have applicants on their waiting lists for many years before they are accepted.

Threat and competition Whenever the common group goal is threatened, cohesiveness increases. Also, such cohesiveness increases the importance of the goals. When we fight for a goal then the goal gets the highest priority. For example, when a hostile group wants to take over a corporation, the Board of Directors of the corporation suddenly becomes a united front against the threats and their cohesiveness reaches its peak. Similarly, management threats frequently bring together an otherwise disarrayed union. Thus the threatening party will have less chance of success when faced with a unified force.

Many organizations, when faced with tough competition ask their members to stand together and make sacrifices in benefit cuts in order to meet the competition and the members have been known to do that. This reflects the extent of cohesiveness among the members of the organization.

Previous successes   When a group achieves a meaningful goal, the cohesiveness of the group increases because the success is shared by all the members and each one feels responsible for the achievement. For example, when a sports team wins an important game, every one in the team congratulates every other member of the team for this success. Specially, if a group has a series of successes, it builds a united team spirit. For this reason, successful companies find it easier to hire new talented employees. Similarly, prestigious universities are never short of applicants for admission. This proves the adage that every one loves a winner.

Similarity of attitudes and values   One of the strongest sources of group cohesiveness is the similarity in values, morals, beliefs and code of conduct. We enjoy the company of others who hold similar opinions and characteristics as ourselves. That is one reason why interfaith marriages are discouraged. Similarity of interests is specially important

when the group's primary goal is that of creating a friendly interpersonal climate. This increases group cohesiveness. This factor may not be so important if the goal is task oriented. For example, if an army unit has to win a strategic battle, then the successful task accomplishment becomes the cohesive factor rather than the similarity of interests because the unit may consist of black soldiers and white soldiers who may not have much in common.

Consequences of Cohesiveness
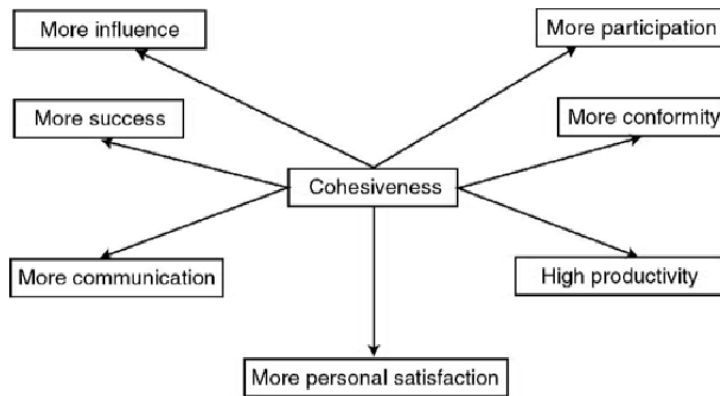
These positive outcomes of group cohesiveness are explained in more detail as follows:

More participation Because group cohesiveness involves close interpersonal relationship, the members consider the group as their own, just like a family and they are motivated to participate actively in group affairs and activities. Members also try to assist and support other members of the group in times of need and this strengthens the bonds of friendship. The turnover rate of members is very low and they look forward to group meetings and group activities as it gives them an opportunity of social interaction in addition to devising strategies for achieving individual and group goals.

More conformity While all individuals who are in the group are unique in many ways with their own norms, values, beliefs and attitudes and some times these characteristics may be in conflict with the group norms, the members usually make sacrifices in order to conform to group norms. The cohesive group is generally able to put subtle pressure on the individual member who "deviated" from the group norms in order to bring him back to the mainstream. For example, if a member is working too hard or is playing politics to enhance his personal objectives, the group might put social pressure on him to comply with the group norms. If these pressures do not succeed, then the member may be dropped from the group in order to maintain cohesiveness among other members.

More success Success and cohesiveness are interdependent factors. Cohesiveness makes the goal achievement easier and goal achievement adds to cohesiveness.

In general cohesive groups are more successful in achieving their goals. The reason for this relationship is that a high degree of cohesiveness involves a high degree of communication, participation and conformity to group norms and this results in successes in achieving them. Thus such coordinated efforts tend to result in successes in achieving such goals.

More influence Individual members will respond favourably to the demands of the cohesive groups in comparison to less cohesive groups. An informally accepted and

respected leader of the group can have quite an autocratic authority and influence over the group members specially when confronting an external threat. Thus the leader will have considerable influence over the members in shaping their opinions and operations. For example, during negotiations between the union and management, if the union leader is satisfied that he has reached an equitable settlement, he will advise the union members to accept it and even if some members are not happy about such an agreement, they will accept it because of the leader's sincerity and influence.

More communication Communication reduces conflict. The better the communication, the less likely is any misunderstanding among members. Because the members of the cohesive groups share common values and goals, they are inclined to greater communicativeness. Since communication is key to understanding, respect and closeness, it tends to foster and cement positive social relations as well as deep personal relationships.

More personal satisfaction Satisfaction, though a state of mind, is primarily influenced by positive external factors. These factors include friendliness, respect from other members and self-respect, support, opportunity to interact, achievement, protection against threats and a feeling of security. Members of cohesive groups report that they are more satisfied than members of less cohesive groups. This is expected since the members of a cohesive group will not stay as members if they were dissatisfied.

High productivity It is quite easy to understand that unity has synergetic effect. The group effort is expected to bring better results than the sum efforts of individual members. However, the outcome of the efforts is a function of not only group cohesiveness but also group compliance with the organizational goals. According or Richard M. Steers,[10] "specifically, when cohesiveness is high and acceptance of organizational goals is high; performance will probably be high. Similar results would be expected for low cohesiveness and high goal acceptance, although the results may not be as strong. On the other hand, performance would not be expected to be high when cohesiveness is high and goal acceptance is low. In that case, group effort will probably be directed away from organizational goals and towards goals valued by the group. Finally, when both cohesiveness and goal acceptance are low, effort will probably become dissipated, leading to low productivity."

Studies conducted by Katz and Kahan[11] with respect to participation by workers as a group in a Swedish truck factory showed that cohesiveness and togetherness experienced by group members had a significant positive impact on performance outcome. Members of the group identified more strongly with goals and worked harder to improve productivity.

8.6   GROUP NORMS

Group norms are the informal guidelines of behaviour and a code of conduct that provides some order and conformity to group activities and operations. These rules are expected to be followed by all the group members. These norms and rules usually develop gradually and informally as group members learn as to what behaviours are necessary for the group to function effectively[12]. These norms may include a code of dress for meetings or being on time for the meetings and behaving in a predictable manner both within and outside the group meetings. This predictability of behaviour also causes higher degree of cohesiveness within the group. Predictability reduces chaos, ambiguity and conflict. Discomfort would be high in a committee or a task group, if the group members are not sure as to how each member would behave. Norms also identify the values and ethics of the group members. They are established on the basis of what is right and decent and expected of professionals. For example, some companies have very rigorous dress standards, tolerating no deviation, such as the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI).

There are basically two types of norms. These are:

Behaviour norms Theses are rules and guidelines defining the day-to-day behaviour of people at work. This behaviour pattern may include punctuality as a habit, completing any given assignments within the required time frame-work, not losing temper, showing respect for other member's opinions, not monopolizing the conversation and so on. Certain professionalism is expected from all members and this professionalism is predictable form of behaviour.

Work norms Work norms regulate the performance and productivity of individual members. An overly ambitious worker who produces more is considered as much a deviate from the norms as a worker who is an under producer. Work norms usually put an acceptable level of productivity, within reasonable tolerances so that comparatively poor performers can also be accommodated and that they do not become a burden on their peers. Workers performing below the lower acceptable level are generally informally reprimanded and encouraged to produce more. On the other hand, rate-busters who perform above the upper acceptable limit set by the group are also ostracized for encouraging the management to raise its expectations.

In addition to productivity, work norms may also define the extent of time spent on the job. For example, if coffee breaks are allowed for 15 minutes in the morning, then those members who do not take coffee breaks at all as well as those members who take longer coffee breaks are considered as disobeying the group norms. Thus, groups will often want to regulate not only how much workers produce, but also how many hours they put in on the job. Some work norms are strengthened when management tends to exploit some of the members of the groups. Thus norms might also define the limits placed upon worker interaction and cooperation with superiors.

Other work norms might involve loyalty or confidentiality on the part of members. Workers are not expected to report about fellow workers to supervisors. Similarly confidentiality is a powerful group norm so that no matter how much tension there may be between workers and management, the workers will not divulge company secrets to competing organizations.

Group norms are generally reinforced if all members agree to abide by them and the members will agree if they firmly believe that adherence to such norms will facilitate group goals achievement or ensure group survival and additionally, such norms do not conflict with individual values and principles. Also, the norms are reinforced if the members value their membership in the group and do not like the outcomes of violating them. The outcome of violating the group norms must be sufficiently consequential in order to discourage members to deviate from them.

The groups enforce compliance with norms in many ways. They can reward people who comply with group norms by appreciating them, by listening to them in a respectful manner and by making them leaders of the group. Also, they can take negative actions against those persons who deviate from group norms in the form of ridicule or "silent treatment" or by withdrawing privileges or by ultimate action of expelling them from the membership of the group.

8.7 GROUP ROLES

Every work group, formal or informal, has various roles that help the group to survive and achieve its objectives. A role is a set of behaviours that people are expected to exhibit and perform because they hold certain positions with set and predetermined responsibilities, both in formal organizations as well as in informal groups. Team members often take on a variety of roles informally, based on their personality, nature of their relationship with others and their own value systems. For example, group leaders are usually expected to initiate discussions during meetings, ensure that every one has the opportunity to present

their views, help the group reach agreements on issues of concern and represent them and their interests to the management.

A role can be viewed in several different ways. A person's expected role is the formal role that is defined in his job description. An individual's expected role may, however, differ from his perceived role. A perceived role is a set of activities that an individual believes he is expected to perform. The perceived role may or may not exactly match the expected role. Then, there is the enacted role, which is a person's actual conduct in his position. It is more likely to reflect the individual's perceived role rather than his expected role.

One of the tasks in understanding behaviour is, understanding the role that a person is currently playing. The understanding of the role behaviour would be dramatically simplified if each of us had only one role to play. Unfortunately, we are required to play a number of diverse roles both on and off the job, and our behaviour varies with the role we are playing. Additionally, different groups impose different role requirements on individuals.

Role identity: There are certain attitudes and behaviours which are consistent with the prescribed and enacted role and they create the role identity. People have the ability to change roles when they recognise the changed situation and its demands. For example, an employee who is fired will view the organization differently than when he was employed. His behaviour towards the organization will change accordingly.

Role perception: As described earlier, role perception relates to our view of how we are supposed to act in a given situation and based on such interpretation, we engage in certain kinds of behaviour.

Role expectation: As previously explained, role expectations are defined as how others believe you should act in a given situation. For example, a judge is expected to behave in a fair, just and dignified way.

Role conflict: Role conflict occurs when an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations. It exists when an individual finds that compliance with one role requirement may make it difficult to comply with another. For example, if a police officer finds his brother using drugs, which is against the law, should he act in the role of a brother or in the role of a law enforcement officer?

There are a variety of roles that the employees can assume in a work group. Some of these roles are defined by Robert Vecchio (Organization Behavior. Dryden Press, 2000), as follows:

- *Task-oriented employee:* One who can be counted on getting the job done as per requirements.
- *People-oriented employee:* One who is concerned more with the welfare of the people rather than productivity alone.
- *Nay-sayers:* One who finds faults with every one and every thing.
- *Yes-sayers:* Those who counter the nay-sayers.
- *Regulars:* Those who accept the group values and are accepted by the group.
- *Deviants:* Those who depart from the group values.
- *Isolates:* Those who isolate themselves from the group and the group activities.
- *New comers:* Those who know little and need to be taken care of by others.
- *Old timers:* Those who have been around for a long time and know and understand their environments.
- *Climbers:* Those who are expected to get ahead on the corporate ladder by whatever means necessary.
- *Cosmopolitans:* Those who consider themselves as members of larger professional communities.

8.8   COMMITTEE ORGANIZATION

A Committee or a task force is the most important form of a formal group appointed by the management to perform certain functions or tasks. Committees and task forces have become more and more necessary and important, as the organization grows larger and more complex. Because of collective information and analysis, committees are more likely to come up with solutions to complex problems.

Committees are prevalent in all types of organizations. They are in the government, educational, religious and business organizations. Even the board of directors of an organization is a form of a committee. Other prevalent types in business are finance committees, audit committees, grievance committees, quality circles and so on. There is some form of a formal committee on every level of the organization. They also perform so many different functions. They might act in an advisory capacity or in decision-making capacity where their decisios are enforceable. These committees are basically set up for the following purposes:

- The committees are good fora where organizational members freely exchange ideas.
- With the exchange of these ideas, some suggestions and recommendations can be generated that may prove useful for the organization.
- The existing problems in the organization can be discussed within the committee forum and some new ideas for solving these problems can be introduced.
- Some committees are formed to assist in development and establishment of organizational policies.

Advantages of Committees

There is an adage that two heads are better than one. Thus committee actions have many advantages over individual actions. Some of these advantages are discussed as follows:

Pooling of opinions   The members bring in different backgrounds, values, viewpoints and abilities. These wide ranging abilities result in greater knowledge base, that results in better quality decisions. Additionally, group deliberations generally ensure a thorough consideration of problems from all angles and alternative points of view before arriving at a decision. This would not be possible if the same problem was looked at by a single executive.

Improved cooperation   The members of the committee usually get to know each other well and thus see each other's point of view with respect. They are willing to cooperate and coordinate, specially when they become aware of their role and how their decisions are going to affect the entire organization.

Motivation   From a human standpoint, the biggest advantage of committees may be increased motivation and commitment derived from participation in the committee deliberations and indirectly in the important organizational affairs. Also, when the committee consists of managers and subordinates, it gives the subordinates some degree of recognition and importance. They rightfully feel that they are an integral part of the decision making process which boosts their morale and motivates them to do better.

Representation   Since the committee members may have different interests and opinions that may be opposed to each other, the process of committee deliberations gives a critical viewpoint and balanced outcome of these different representations. However, even though a committee should be highly representative of all interests, capabilities of the members should take precedence over the representation.[13]

Dispersion of power   While autocratic authority makes decision making and implementation faster and easier, it may lead to misuse of power and wrong decisions. However, by spreading authority and responsibility over all committee members, this problem can be eliminated.

Executive training   The committees provide an excellent training ground for young executives. They also provide opportunity for personal development that individuals may not be able to get on their own. In the committees, they learn the value of interaction, human relations and group dynamics. They get exposed to various viewpoints and tend to think in liberal manner and get to understand how collective decisions are made. Such type of exposure and experience enables them to take an integrative view of solving various organizational problems.

Continuity   Most committees do not replace all of its members at the same time so that some new members join to replace some old members while the other members remain and thus the continuity of operations is maintained. The U.S. Senate works on this basis, so that every two years there is an election for one-third of the total Senate. According to Newman.[14] "There are always some members of the group who know the reasons for previous actions and this tends to promote consistency and continuity of thinking that is difficult to achieve when an executive who has been making decisions by himself has to be replaced."

Communication   A committee can be an excellent forum for management and workers to have simultancous communication and discuss matters of common interest in an atmosphere of goodwill and understanding and reach some mutually benefitting conclusions. These conclusions can then be communicated to all members throughout the organization via committee members. This may be a preferred and trusted method for transmitting correct, authentic and prompt information to all.

Better chances of recommendations to be accepted   A committee recommendation is much more likely to be accepted than an individual recommendation. Also, the decisions made on the basis of these recommendations would be easily accepted by members of the organization and such decisions would be easily implemented.

Disadvantages of Committees

Many management theorists have stressed the negative aspects of committees. Some of the major disadvantages of formal task group and committees are:

Time and cost   The very structure of the committee is a costly affair in terms of money and time. The nature of the committee is such that every one has an equal chance to speak out and take part in discussions and this can be very time consuming. Each member is involved in cross communication trying to convince others as to the usefulness of his own point of view, thus taking a lot of time. Also, since it is a matter of prestige to be a member of a committee, there is always pressure to add more members to the committee, thus adding to this problem. Additionally, in the course of research for material, there may be committee related travel and staff expenses for preparation and typing of material and final reports. All these activities could be very costly. Accordingly, the usefulness of committee decisions must be measured against the costs involved so that if a problem can be solved by a single executive or a few staff members, then the committees should not be appointed.[15]

Compromise   Usually, there is a tendency to present unanimous decisions and hence a majority viewpoint is taken as representative even when the minority viewpoint is valid. This may result in premature agreements and decisions of mediocre quality. The minority may be unwilling to pursue their viewpoints for fear that they will stand out and may be labeled as uncooperative. They may also be willing to compromise for less than optimal solutions because if these solutions turn out to be wrong, they will not be traceable to individuals but the whole committee will get the blame. This shows that a committee decision may not be the optimal one, but merely an acceptable one.

Personal prejudice   Sometimes, wining an argument or getting back at some body for personal reasons may give the problem a secondary priority, thus diluting the strength

of the decision.

Logrolling This term is coined for wheeling and dealing for political interests and purposes. These political pressures may come from the top management that wants a particular point of view to dominate in the committee discussions. A case in point is the promotion of and granting of tenure process in colleges. If the president of a college does not want a particular person to be promoted, he will put pressure on committee members to do so. In that respect, it is not really a democratic process but more of a democratic "dictatorship".

Strain on interpersonal relations In the committee meetings, there is a tendency that everybody wants to please every body else, otherwise any displeasure within the committee can strain working relations outside the committee too. For example, in the college committee meetings for promotions where voting of members is the main contributing factor, anybody voting against the person who is being considered for promotion will not have friendly relations with the candidate if this voting pattern leaks out. This is a very difficult and sensitive area and a lot of training in interpersonal competence is needed.

Lack of effectiveness Certain issues are better solved by individuals rather than committees. The committees are very useful in handling grievances and interdepartmental problems, but they are not effective in formulating such policies where individual initiative and creativity is involved.

Some Guidelines for Using Committees and Task Groups More Effectively

Groups and Committees have become an integral part of most organizations in some aspects of their operations. Some of the disadvantages of committees quoted earlier can be eliminated and the committees can become more efficient and effective, if some guidelines are established. Some of the steps that can be taken to improve the committee performance are:

Clearly set goals The goals, tasks and responsibilities of the committees should be clearly set and in writing. These factors would serve as guidelines for committee discussions thus reducing the time spent on peripheral tasks. This should also identify the scope and authority of the committee as to whether the committee has the authority to implement the conclusions reached or whether it is simply to investigate the problem and make some recommendations.

Size and selection of committee members The committee size is very important. If there are too few members, then the advantages of group thinking may be reduced. If, on the other hand, there are too many members, then too much time will be wasted. Even though the size of committees will vary and depend upon the project under consideration, generally, between six and ten members are considered adequate. The committee members must be carefully and appropriately selected, so that they are fully conversant with the goals of the organization as well as the objectives of the committee and whose backgrounds and skills complement each other.

The chairperson of the committee The committee leader is the most important person in the committee and must be chosen carefully because much of the success of the committee depends upon his behaviour, his actions and his guidance to other committee members. He must be skilled in handling inter-personal relationship and group interaction. He should be able to communicate with the group fully and be able to guide the group into reaching an effective conclusion, eliminating any irrelevant trends that would waste the committee's time.

Procedure The agenda for the committee meetings could be prepared well in advance and circulated to members so that they can think about it, be prepared for discussion

and collect any supporting materials that may be necessary. Meetings should be planned sufficiently in advance so that as many members as possible can attend. A secretary should be appointed to handle all communications as well as write and prepare minutes of all meetings.

Follow up and periodic evaluations The progress of the committee should be reviewed periodically to check for any deviations and unnecessary waste of time. The committee members thus become accountable for the timely results. The results of these periodic reviews should be given to members so that they all know where they stand at a particular time with regard to their contributions to the committee agenda. Also, when some decisions have been reached and recommendations made, the committee members should have the right to know whether these recommendations were accepted and to what degree. This feedback would help the committee members to reevaluate their own role and make any changes that are necessary in the future. The feedback is specially important if the recommendations of the committee are not accepted by the management. In such cases, satisfactory reasons for non-acceptance must be given to the committee, otherwise, it can create a major credibility problem.

Guidelines for Committee Members

For the committees to achieve effective results and for the members to reach a consensus, some guidelines should be adhered to. Some of these guidelines are:

- The members must make sure that the atmosphere at the committee meetings is relaxed and informal.
- Each member takes an active role in the discussion and states his position clearly and logically. He also listens to any reactions calmly and gives counter viewpoints, if any.
- A member should not compromise simply to achieve harmony. Disagreements should not be ignored, but should be resolved. Criticism should be directed at issues and not at persons.
- Make sure that the group leader is not excessively dominating. His views should not be considered as final. While the leader is responsible for properly directing the trend of the discussion, his view should be treated in the same manner as any other member's views.
- Members must make sure that disagreements do not involve personalities, but only opinions. These disagreements should not continue on personal grounds after the meetings are over, otherwise, these will not only be socially destructive but can also lead to unnecessary disagreements with the same person at future meetings. Also, within the committee meeting deliberations, a spirit of competition should be avoided and a spirit of cooperation should be enhanced. This cooperation would lead to positive responses to each other, respect for each other's opinions, more involvement with the task at hand and greater satisfaction with task success.

These guidelines, when properly followed should improve efficiency in operations and form a basis for logical conclusions.

8.9 GROUP DEVELOPMENT AND FACILITATION

Reasons for Forming Groups

By and large, people join groups for two reasons; (1) to accomplish a task or goal, and (2) to satisfy their social needs. The social need is for love, affection and friendship which is the third-level need in Maslow's model of hierarchical needs. But the need could also be economic in nature because of the economic group incentives, which are, generally, financially

more generous than individual incentives. The groups facilitate task accomplishment. A group can often accomplish more through joint efforts than can equal number of individuals working separately. This is a concept of synergy where joint efforts produce more than the sum of individual efforts. Some of the social needs that individuals would like to satisfy through joining groups are as follows:

- *Security and protection:* Being just one member of a large organization can generate feelings of isolation, insecurity and anxiety. Whereas, belonging to a group can reduce such fears by providing a sense of unity with others. By virtue of sheer numbers, groups afford a degree of protection that an individual might not otherwise enjoy. The reason why workers join unions is to get a sense of protection through highly organized collective strength.

- *Affiliation:* An individual's need for affiliation and emotional support can be directly satisfied by membership in a group. Acceptance by others is an important social need. Affiliation with certain groups can also uplift your self-esteem, especially if such groups are difficult to join. For example, in India, it is very hard these days to become members of exclusive clubs such as Golf club or Gymkhana club of Delhi, where membership increases the prestige of the individual. A sense of belonging and interpersonal attraction may be so strong that some people are willing to pay high prices for the privilege of joining some exclusive clubs.

In addition to the satisfaction of social needs, groups are formed for various other reasons. The most basic theory explaining group affiliation is the geographic proximity. For example, individuals working in the same area are more likely to form a group than those who are not physically located together. Similarly, students sitting near each other in a class room are more likely to form group than the students sitting at the opposite ends of the class room.

There are three elements that form the foundation of groups. These are activities, interactions and sentiments. These three elements are inter-related. An improvement in one element will trigger an improvement in the other. For example, the more activities the persons share, that means improvement in the first element, the more interaction will take place and stronger will be their sentiments.

Stages in Group Development

Groups are not static but change and develop over time. Whether a group is formal or informal, it passes through several stages during its life cycle. Depending on the stage that a group has reached, the leader and the members may face various challenges. There are five stages through which groups develop. The stages are as follows:

1. *Forming stage:* During this stage of group development, members get acquainted with each other. It is a period of testing and orientation in which members learn about each other and evaluate the cost and benefits of forming or continuing the group. The members try to find out what is expected of them and how they will fit into the team.

2. *Storming stage:* The storming stage is marked by inter-personal conflict. Hostility and disagreements arise as the group members play politics as to how power and status will be divided. They compete for various team roles. Coalitions may be formed to influence the group goals and the means to achieve such goals. If the leader of the group is not a skillful conflict handler then, hostility may develop. If conflicts are not resolved, the group members may withdraw and the group may have to disband.

3. *Norming stage:* During this stage, the group becomes more cohesive. New standards and roles are adopted. The members' attraction to the group is strengthened. Close relationships develop and shared feelings become common. The members develop common expectations and assumptions about how the group

goals should be accomplished. Cooperation and a sense of shared responsibility are the primary themes of this stage. Some members perceive this stage as the ultimate stage of maturity.

4. *Performing stage:* This stage, in group development, is sometimes called total integration and it marks the emergence of a mature, organized and well-functioning group. The group should be able to deal with complex tasks and handle any internal conflicts. At this stage, the group has established a flexible network of relationships that aids task accomplishment. Internal hostility is low and the primary challenges are continued efforts to improve relationships and performance.

5. *Adjourning stage:* At this stage, the groups may cease to exist because their task is accomplished. This stage is especially important for groups that are temporary in nature such as project groups, committees, special task groups and so on. Informal groups can also reach this stage when several members leave the organization or are reassigned to different tasks. Some teams adjourn as a result of layoffs or plant shut downs. The members shift their attention away from task orientation to a socio-emotional focus as they realise that their relationship is ending.

The team development model is a useful framework for thinking about how teams develop, even though it may not be a perfect model. For example, the model does not specifically show that some teams remain in a particular stage longer than the others, nor does it address the situation where the membership changes and new conditions emerge and the group may have to go backwards rather than forward in its stages.

8.10 SUMMARY

A group consists of persons being together so that they have a common goal with mutual interaction and each person in the group influences and is influenced by each other person. Groups form because people have a basic need for love, affection, respect and affiliation. Also, a group has more power to achieve individual goals for its members than the individual by himself.

There are two types of groups. There are formal groups that are purposely formed via a formal authority in order to accomplish an organizational objective or task. A planning committee, for example, would be considered a formal group. Then there are informal groups that emerge naturally in response to some common interests of organizational members. These informal groups can also be powerful so that some times, even if only one member of the group is fired from the job, all members go on strike in support of such a member of the group. Members of the informal groups become personal friends and they support each other, thus making the group a cohesive one. Group cohesiveness defines the degree of closeness that the members feel with the group.

The cohesiveness of the group is increased when

- Members spend more time together.
- Group size is neither too large nor too small.
- The members of the group are carefully selected so that it is not easy to join the group.
- There is threat to the common group goal.
- There is greater similarity of values and attitudes.

A cohesive group is more powerful and has greater influence. The greater the unity of the group, the greater is the strength in achieving its goals.

The formal groups that are in the form of task forces and committees have a number of advantages. There is a pooling of opinions of different members and the committee members may represent various segments of the work force so that the committee's decision could be considered as objective and free of bias, thus having a better chance of being accepted by all members of the organization.

On the other hand, a committee has its disadvantages. The major disadvantage is the time lost in listening to every one and this can be very costly. Furthermore, there is a tendency to compromise with the majority view in the committee and this can lead to mediocre decisions. Disagreements within the committee proceedings can lead to personal prejudices, putting strain on inter-personal relations. To use the committees more effectively, the members of the committee should be carefully selected so that they look at the issues objectively and with the sole purpose of arriving at the best solution.

8.11 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. Explain in detail some of the reasons for group formation. Which of these reasons are more influential in forming groups and why?

2. Differentiate between formal groups and informal groups. Are the informal groups in any way in conflict with the formal groups? If so, give reasons for your judgement.

3. Write an essay on the concept of group cohesiveness. Why would some groups be more cohesive than others? Support your reasons.

4. List and explain some of the more important factors that contribute towards group cohesiveness.

5. Explain in detail some of the advantages and consequences of group cohesiveness.

6. What are some of the norms that the workers are expected to abide by?

7. Explain some of the advantages of committees.

8. Explain some of the disadvantages of committees.

9. What guidelines would you suggest for using committees and task groups more effectively?

8.12 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. A group is two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such a manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other person." There are two key elements in this definition that are essential. First is the "interaction" among group members. For example, co-workers may work side by side on related tasks, but if they do not interact with each other, they are not a group in the organizational sense. The second element is the influence of one group member on every other group member. This means that the group members are mutually dependent with respect to the attainment of one or more common goals.

2. There are two types of groups: Formal and Informal.

   Formal Groups: A group is formal when it is purposely designed to accomplish an organizational objective or task. It is created via a formal authority for some defined purpose. A formal group can be a command group or a functional group that is relatively permanent and is composed of managers and their subordinates who meet regularly to discuss general and specific ideas to improve product or service.

   Informal Groups: Informal groups are established by organizations to achieve some specific objectives, the informal groups are formed by the members of such groups by

themselves. They emerge naturally, in response to the common interests of organizational members. They are formed spontaneously, without any formal designation, and with common interests such as self-defence, work assistance and social interaction.

3. A Committee or a task force is the most important form of a formal group appointed by the management to perform certain functions or tasks. Committees and task forces have become more and more necessary and important, as the organization grows larger and more complex. Because of collective information and analysis, committees are more likely to come up with solutions to complex problems.

4. Guidelines for committee members are:

- The members must make sure that the atmosphere at the committee meetings is relaxed and informal.

- Each member takes an active role in the discussion and states his position clearly and logically. He also listens to any reactions calmly and gives counter viewpoints, if any.

- A member should not compromise simply to achieve harmony. Disagreements should not be ignored, but should be resolved. Criticism should be directed at issues and not at persons.

- Make sure that the group leader is not excessively dominating. His views should not be considered as final. While the leader is responsible for properly directing the trend of the discussion, his view should be treated in the same manner as any other member's views.

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CASE STUDY

Donnelly Mirrors, a small company employing about 750 workers, manufactures practically all of the rear-view mirrors for the automobiles produced in America. Even though it is a privately held corporation, it has developed a participative management style where the workers are actively and genuinely involved in the governance of the company. This may be one of the reasons why the company has been enjoying continuous success over the years.

The participative system started in 1952 and initially, the employees simply participated in cost saving efforts and they shared those savings among themselves and with the company. Employees were assured that they would not lose jobs because of introduction of technologically advanced machinery or change in the production methods. This resulted in reduced resistance for change on the part of employees.

The employees became so involved in cost reduction efforts and activities that they started to volunteer various ways of improving operational efficiency including selection of equipment and machines. Various problem solving groups were formed for various operational areas and in order to achieve efficient coordination among all the groups and activities, a linking-pin organizational structure was adopted, whereby members of various groups make decisions relative to their own tasks and these decisions are presented to the next higher level of management for consideration.

There are no time clocks and even though workers get paid on a salary basis, their working times are not closely watched or scrutinized. There is sufficient group cohesion so that the workers do not take undue advantage of these relaxed rules. If a member is late or absent for a good reason, other workers in the group will make up for his work. If some one misses work frequently, he becomes answerable to other group members. The group selects its own leader and together the members set their own production goals within the general framework of the objectives of the organization and are responsible for meeting such goals.

The company has formed a committee comprising representatives both from employees as well as management and the committee handles all personnel matters such as pay policies, fringe benefits and employee grievances. Since the workers are represented in this committee, all decisions made by this committee are accepted by all. Pay scales are also recommended to the management by this committee and these are consistent with the industry practices. As per pay policies, the company is guaranteed a return of 5.2% on its investment and the balance of the profit is shared with the employees. If a 5.2% return is not achieved in a given year, the deficit is compensated from the earning of the following year before any additional bonuses are given to the employees.

Because of its reputation for employee treatment, it attracts a large number of applicants for jobs, but because the turnover rate is very low, the company can select the best from this pool of applicants. The company is like a close-knit family and enjoys a reputation for productivity, quality and employee loyalty and dedication.

Questions

1. Does the success of the company reflect a general statement that profit sharing and employee involvement in company affairs is highly motivating for employees? Explain your reasons in detail.
2. How do you think that the group dynamics is at work in this organization? How are the group goals integrated with the organization goals?
3. Is the concept of worker participation in the management of the company equally applicable in the work culture of Indian organizations? Give examples.
4. Do you think there is enough group cohesiveness in this company so that the individuals would not violate group rules and norms? Are the individual goals integrated with the group's to whom the individual belongs? Give reasons.

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NOTES

MODULE - 3

UNIT 9   GROUP DECISION-MAKING

Structure

9.0   INTRODUCTION

There are many situations, which suddenly come up as ill-structured problems, which are unlikely to be solved by a single individual. In such situations where the problem is unique and complex, the manger may assign the responsibility to a group of exports to look at the problem objectively and come up with recommendations. The group decision would become particularly appropriate for non-programmed decisions because these decisions are complex and few individuals have all the knowledge and skills necessary to make the best decisions. It is often argued that groups can make higher quality decisions than individuals.

According to Gary, John[1] there are three assumptions that from the basis for this argument. These are:

Groups are more "Vigilant that individuals. Because of natural constraints, any single individual cannot look at all possible angels of complex problem and thus he may miss an important aspect of the issue. But if there are more members looking at the same problem then it is more likely that someone among the group has thought of or looked at that particular aspect. This is specially important at problem identification and information search stages.

9.1   UNIT OBJECTIVES

- Why groups can make higher quality decisions than individuals
- What types of problems are best solved by groups
- Some of the advantages of group decision-making
- Under what circumstance, the groups should not be involved in decision-making process
- Some guidelines for effective group decision-making
- The role of the leader of the group for group cohesiveness
- Various techniques of group decision-making

9.2 GROUP: AN OVERVIEW

Groups can generate more ideas and develop more alternative solutions than individuals Members of the group come from different backgrounds with different experiences and outlooks, so that it is more likely that someone will come up with an idea that other had thought of before. Also, by listening to each other's ideas, the group members may develop new ideas based upon such information and come up with a unique solution that no single member could conceive. For example, in college environment, in a course evaluation and development program students, faculty and administrators are included in the group to discuss the issues and develop various viewpoints.(see carton)

It's been moved and seconded, then, that we are greater than the sum of hte individual parts."

Groups can evaluate ideas better than individuals This again is a result of various and diverse viewpoints presented by the members of the group. Because individuals can sometimes become emotional when making decisions, it is possible that bias would be introduced into the decision if it was made by one person. Different persons can check for bias and evaluate ideas on a, more objective basis so that decisions would be made on the basis of facts and rationally rather than sympathy and emotionalism. This view is expressed by Argyris[2] as follows:

"Groups are valuable when they can maximize the unique contribution of each individual. Moreover, as each individual, contribution is increased or internalized.

When to use a Group

While groups are very useful in solving certain type of problems, not all types of problems are better solved by groups. Hence some factors must be taken into consideration in determining whether the decision making process should be initiated by the group or not. The question is, what criteria can be used to help determine whether or not use a group?

There are basically two major criteria to be considered. One of these is the quality of the decision. Quality refers to the degree of usefulness of the decision. This is based upon objective analysis of facts and data. This ensures that the problem is rationally looked at from all possible angles and such a solution is arrived at which is feasible and optimal. The second criterion is that of acceptability. Acceptability of decision refers to feelings, needs and emotions of those who implement such a decision or who affected by it. The ideal decision would be high on both criteria

These two criteria may be interdependent or may be totally independent of each other. Some decisions are only concerned with quality such as a technical or a scientific problem where the employees are not affected at all. Some issues on the other hand involve only the criterion of acceptance. For example, who works overtime is an issue of acceptance by the employees. Decisions regarding increase in the productivity, automation, reducing

absenteeism, are all decisions where both quality and acceptance are to be considered. For example, extremely harsh measures to reduce absenteeism may not be accepted by employees unless it is decided by a group which includes employee representatives. Accordingly, when acceptance is critical, the management should seriously consider using a group for the decision making process.

The Vroom –Yetton Model

Another model for deciding whether to use a group for decision making purposes has been proposed by Vroom and Yetton[3] They divided the decision making process into five styles ranging from totally individualized decision making by the manager on one extreme to totally participative decision making style at the other extreme. Any of these can be selected, depending upon some other situational factors including the quality and acceptance criteria. These extremes range from AI, a completely autocratic individual decision to GII, a purely group decision. These styles are explained as follows. (A stands for autocratic, C for consultative and G for group.)

AI   The manager unilaterally makes the decision and his decision is based upon whatever information and facts are available to him.

All   The manager makes the decision himself but gets all the information needed personally from his subordinates. The role of the subordinates is input of data only. They do not take any part in the decision making process. They may not even know what the problem is. Even if they know about the problem, they have no input in generating or evaluating alternative solutions.

CI   While in AII style, you simply get the information from your subordinates. In CI style, you consult your subordinates who are expected to be involved with the outcome of the decision or who are knowledgeable about certain elements of the problems, individually getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. The decision making is still up to you. You may or may not take their suggestions into consideration when making the final decision.

CII   In this style of decision making, instead of meeting with the subordinates individually, you meet with them together in a group, gathering from them their ideas and suggestions relative to the problem. Your final decision still may or may not reflect their input.

GII   This is a participative style of decision making. The problem is shared with the group and solution alternatives are generated and evaluated together. The final solution is decided by the group and such solution is implemented. There are a number of situational factors that would influence the style of decision making. Some of these factors would determine whether GII style above should be adopted. Some of these factors are:

Importance of the quality of decision   Are we looking for an optimal solution or simply an acceptable solution? If the quality of the decision is not an important factor, then the decision becomes relatively easy to make and it can be made either, by the manager himself or by the group.

The extent to which the manager possesses the information and expertise to make a high quality decision   If the manager has the necessary information and is also aware of the subordinates' preferences and the problem is such that the individual decision is likely to produce a better solution than the group decision, then the manager should make the decision himself. Individual decision would also be better if the final decision requires intermediate sequential decision where a decision at each stage contributes some input to the decision at the next stage. The group decision is super or to the individual decision when the problem is complex, has several parts and group members are individually skilled at handling such problems.

The extent to which the subordinates have the necessary information to assist in generating a high quality decision   If the problem is such that the subordinates have a first hand knowledge about the problem and its implications, then group decision would be a better

alternative. Such problems may be production or marketing problems where the subordinates are closer to the operations and hence have input of significant value.

The extent to which problem is structured If the problem is well structured then standard procedures can be applied in generating various alternatives and selecting the most appropriate one. With information and methodology at hand even and individual can individual can make the best decision. However, if the problem is an ill-structured one, then the relevant information may be scattered all over the organization and different individuals may have to be brought together to solve the problem or make a joint decision.

The probability that a manager's decision will be accepted by the subordinates If a manager makes an autocratic decision, what are the chances that it will be accepted by the subordinates? The subordinates would probably accept the decision and if such a decision is within the general guidelines of organizational goals and policies.

The extent to which the subordinates would go to attain organizational goals If the individual goals, group goals and the organizational goals are note in conflict with each other, then the subordinates can be expected to be motivates towards achievement of organizational goals and thus participative decision style would work best. The more motivated the subordinates are, the more their thinking towards organizational benefits would be.

The extent to which acceptance on the part of subordinates is critical to the effective implementation of the decision In situations where a manager has the authority and is expected to make decisions, then carrying out the decision would be a matter of simple compliance on the part of subordinates. Thus acceptance by subordinates is not so critical in such situations. However, subordinates' acceptance because critical when the decision are important ones and would affect the commitment and dedication of subordinates. Accordingly, if such acceptance is easier when decision are made by groups rather than individual managers, then group decision making procedures should be implemented.

The extent to which the subordinates are likely to disagree over preferred solutions The subordinates themselves may not agree on some of the decision alternatives are implemented or because these may be in conflict with values and attitudes of some the subordinates. Accordingly, the method used reach a decision must facilities resolutions of such disagreements and conflicts and hence group involvement may be necessary.

Depending upon the above considerations, some of these considerations would necessitate the decision making process to be intiated by a group. Vroom and his colleagues studied thousand of managers to learn whether their decision styles were consistent with Vroom and Yetton model. They found that:

Most managers' decision styles in actual organizational situations were in accordance with the proposed model.

In their choice of styles managers more often violated acceptability criteria than quality criteria.

The situation involving the decision was much more effective as a determinant of the selected decision style than managerial choices in themselves.

Managers were less flexible in implementing their own choices of styles as compared to guidelines suggested by the model.

These findings indicated that managers do take into consideration all the situational variables when choosing between individual and group decision making styles.

9.3 ADVANTAGES OF GROUP DECISION MAKING

In general it is expected that a group would tend to make more effective decisions similar to committees and task forces, than would any single individual. Some of the advantages of group decision making are summarized below:

1. Since the group members have different specialities they tend to provide more information and knowledge. Also the information tends to be more comprehensive in nature and the groups can generate greater number of alternatives. Thus, the decision that requires the use of knowledge should give groups an advantage over individuals.

2. implementation of the decision is more effective since the people who are going to implement the decision also participated in the decision making process. thus also increases the commitment of the people to see the implementation to success. It is important that the decision be accepted by all, because even a low quality decision that has acceptance can be more effective than a higher quality decision that lacks general acceptance.

3. The input from a large number of people eliminates the biases that are generally introduced due to individual decision making. It also reduces the unreliability of individual's decisions.

4. The participative style of decision making process builds up foundations as a training ground for subordinates who develop the skill of objective analysis of information and deriving of conclusions.

5. The group decision making is more democratic in nature, while individual decision making is more autocratic in nature. The democratic processes are more easily acceptable and are consistent with the democratic ideals of our society.

9.4 DISADVANTAGES OF GROUP DECISION MAKING

There are also certain drawbacks in group decision making processes. The group processes can negatively affect performance in a variety of ways. Some of the disadvantages of group decision making are:

1. The process is highly time consuming in terms of assembling the right group and usually a group takes more time in reaching a consensus since there are too many opinions to be taken into consideration. The time problem increases with the group size. Accordingly, the speed of arriving at a solution must be considered, when group decision making style is selected.

2. some members may simply agree with the others for the sake of agreement since there are social pressures to conform and not to be the odd-man out. thus the desire to be a good group member tends to silence disagreement and favours consensus. The social pressures can be very strong, inducing people to change their attitudes, perceptions and behaviours.

3. Many times, participants in group decisions have their own personal axes to grind or their own interests to protect. These self-centered interests lead to personality conflicts that may create interpersonal obstacles which may diminish the efficiency of the process as well as the quality of the decision.

4. The decision made by the group may not always be in accord with the goals and objectives of the organization. This is specially true when the goals of the group and those of the individuals do not reinforce each other. This will result in decisions that are detrimental to organizational benefits.

5. The group members may exhibit "focus effect" this means that the group may focus on one or few suggested alternatives and spend all the time in evaluating these and may never come up with other ideas, thus limiting the choices.

6. The first solution arrived at is more likely to be the final solution even if it is less than optimal. Higher quality solutions, after the first solution has been accepted, have little chance of serious consideration. Groups are inclined to invest more in their initial decisions, simply to justify having more and more in their initial decisions, simply to justify having made these in the first place.

7. The Groups may shift either towers more risk taking or towards less risk taking than the individuals and either of the shift may be undesirable. Generally speaking, problems suitable for group decision making involve some degree of risk or uncertainty. But to take excessive risks is as bad as taking no risk at all. Studies conducted by 6 showed that groups tend to shift towards riskier decision making. This creates a dilemma. On the one hand, it can be argued, that the groups will take riskier decisions than individuals because the responsibility for bad decisions on individuals within the group is so diffused that it encourages the group to take greater chances. This way, if the decision turns out to be a bad one, the responsibility for it not be traceable to any particular individual in the group. On the other hand, it is equally justified to believe that the groups make more conservative decisions because the group members check and balance each other and this result in caution and conservatism. A key factor which determines whether the group will move towards risk or caution is the initial inclination of the group. 7 This means that if the group was prone to risk originally, the group discussion intensifies this inclination. If the group starts with a conservative approach, the discussion tends to lead to caution. The initial approach would primarily depend upon the direction that the leader of the group takes.

8. *Groupthink:* Groupthink indicates a situation, where members' desire for complete consensus overrides their motivation to disagree with an argument or critically and realistically evaluate other available alternatives. This is specially true where the group enjoys a high degree of cohesiveness. According to Irving Janis 8 who coined the word "Groupthink", "high cohesive can in some circumstances be actively dysfunctional for the effectiveness of the group as a whole." Accordingly to E. Frank Harrison, 9 defined simply, Groupthink means that the more friendly and cooperative the members of a group, the greater the likelihood that independent critical thinking and objective moral judgment will be suspended in deference to group norms and in observance of group cohesiveness".

Not all cohesive groups exhibit "Groupthink" characteristics. But those who are do are fraught with the potential of many unfavourable consequences. These consequences result from such groups that exhibit the following symptoms of "Groupthink."

The illusion of invulnerability   Groups exhibiting "Groupthink" generally suffer from an illusion of overconfidence and invulnerability. They overestimate their ability to succeed against high odds. Thus the members are willing to take greater risks and ignore obvious danger signals.

Belief in the inherent morality of the group   The members have a strange belief in the inherent morality of the group, that the group is acting for the good of all. This belief is so strong, that the decisions adopted by the group are not only considered sensible but also morally correct. Thus any ethical or moral consequences of the decision are disregarded and ignored.

Collective rationalization   When the group members are inclined towards a certain outcome, then they try to rationalize and explain away any facts or ideas that may conflict with their original thinking. This sense of rationalization leads members to discount or ignore warnings or other information that might urge them to reconsider their position.

Stereotyping of outsiders   The members of the group tend to view outsiders who will be affected by their decisions or competitive groups as evil or as weak and stupid. They assume that the competitive groups as too inept to counter their offensives. This stereotyping of outsiders gives the group a feeling of high security against harm and this may not be justified.

Pressures for conformity   There is direct pressure on members to conform to group's viewpoint and not to express arguments that are against group positions. These pressures are enforced under threat of being considered disloyal.

Self-Censorship   There is kind of self-censorship on the part of members to a point where doubts regarding wisdom of group consensus are internally suppressed. The group members tend to minimize the importance of their own feelings of disagreements, thus giving more weight to consensus.

Mind guards   Just as bodyguards provide physical protection self-appointed mind guards emerge within the group who provide intellectual protection to group members. These members emerge in the group and they protect the group from such adverse information that might interfere with the consensus and go against their decisions.

Illusion of unanimity   Largely as a result of self-censorship, where a member may remain silent rather than express his disagreement, the process creates an illusion of unanimity. Silence comes to imply agreement and this result in the perception that a selected course of action has unanimous support of all the members.

One of the examples that shows the evidence of groupthink symptoms is that of Cuban Bay of Pigs invasion in April 1961. Almost all of the above groupthink symptoms were present during the planning sessions of the invasion. The decision to invade was made despite information that it would fail and damage the national image. The State Department raised some doubts about the possibility of success of such an invasion. But these doubts were rationalized away and ignored. The Cuban army was viewed and stereotyped as ineffective and various advisors later reported that they had censored their own doubts regarding the necessity or the success of the project.

Because of such high probability of reaching a low quality due to groupthink syndrome, it should be avoided as much as possible. Depending upon the degree of importance of the decision, the issue can be given to more than one group so that if these groups separately reach the same decision, then the likelihood of the decision being right is improved. Furthermore, groupthink is discouraged if the decision making process is not secretive and if questioning both from inside and outside the group is encouraged.

Guidelines for Effective Decision Making

Some of the more useful guidelines to make the group decision making more effective are given below:

1. Be sure that the purpose of the group is well defined and clearly understood by all members of the group.

2. Be sure that the group members communicate freely with each other and that everyone understands each other's roles and aspirations.

3. Be sure that the group is representative of those individuals who will either implement the decision or be affected by it.

4. Be sure that be group has access to all the necessary resources of information and other supportive elements so as to reach an efficient and fast conclusion.

5. Be sure that the composition of the group is appropriate so that the members have the necessary skills and expertise in discussing and evaluating the problems at hand.

6. Be sure that each members is committed to the decision made, after all viewpoints have thoroughly and rationally considered. Even if some members had different viewpoints prior to reaching the decision, the conflict should not be carried over after the decision has been made.

7. Be sure that group is not dominated by any member including the leader so that all group members are encouraged to give input freely.

8. Be sure that the size of the group is adequate. Too many members would result in excessive waste of time and unnecessary diversification and too few members may not be enough to look at all angles of the problems. Usually, and for most groups, five members are considered to be adequate.

9.5 THE LEADERSHIP ROLE IN GROUP DECISION MAKING

While the composition of the group is very important for effective decision making, the presence and behavior of a responsible group leader is the key element in steering the group discussion and participation. The group leader is in a critical position to affect the quality and acceptance of decision. Whether he is elected by the group or appointed by the management, his role is highly responsible in guiding the direction of the group discussion. A good leader of the would not dominate the discussion but generally guide the members towards the established goals as well as moderate the discussion. He develops a kinship with the members and is always sympathetic to the members input. There are some basic characteristics of a good group leader whose attention and guidance would determine the success of the group function. These basic characteristics fall into two broad categories11:

First category consists of task characteristics which deals primarily with the operations of the group and the second category is that of maintenance characteristics which deals with the human aspect of the group. These characteristics are explained as follow:

Task Characteristics

1. The leader of the group must define the problem clearly and carefully and bring it to the attention of the group members so that each member becomes fully conversant with the issues at hand. He should initiate the discussion and may suggest a procedure for finding a solution.

2. He should have the ability to make every member feel comfortable about the situation and the problem at hand and should seek relevant information from group members who may not volunteer information unless asked. He must encourage every member to express his opinions freely.

3. The leader should have the ability and the knowledge to provide answers to any questions, clarify interpretations of the data presented and guide the members to the central point of discussion if the discussion becomes tangential from varying interpretations of the same data.

4. The leader should offer his personal opinions for consideration, but he should not excessively emphasize his viewpoint or assume the role of a dictator. He should be willing to compromise, if necessary, for the sake of group cohesion.

5. The leader should remain in continuous touch with the group so as to be aware of the progress at any given moment. At the end of the discussion, a leader should be able to summarize the ideas presented and propose a conclusion to the group to accept, reject or modify.

Maintenance Characteristics

1. The leader should be fair and friendly to all the group members and maintain a rapport with them by showing concern for their contribution and recognition

2. He should be skilled in inter-personal relations so that he is able to sense the mood of the group and share in that mood. He should try to settle disagreements in a harmonious manner. This should result in reducing the tension in the group environment.

3. He must be willing to give in wherever necessary. This would improve group cohesiveness, respect for the leader and maintain an atmosphere of harmony.

4. The leader should be open minded and flexible. He should keep the lines of communication with members open so that the members are free to express their ideas openly and with confidence, expecting that their ideas would be taken seriously and these ideas should be considered seriously.

9.6 TECHNIQUES OF GROUP DECISION MAKING

Some of the techniques employed to make the group decision making process more effective and decision making more efficient in which creativity is encouraged are as follows:

Brainstorming

Brainstorming technique involves a group of people, usually between five and ten, sitting around a table in a classroom setting generating ideas in the form of free association. The primary focus of the brainstorming technique is more on "generation of ideas", rather than on "evaluation of ideas", the idea being that if a large number of ideas can be generated, then it is likely that there will be a unique and creative solution among them. All these ideas are written on the blackboard with a piece of chalk so that everybody can see every idea and try to improve upon them. The leader of the group defines and explains the nature of the problem to the group members and the rules to be followed. For example, the problem may be finding a suitable name for new toothpaste or a soft drink.

The rules to be followed in the process of brainstorming are explained by the leader and include the following.

(a) No judgments are to be made on these ideas when they are generated. No idea is to be criticized or evaluated in any way until all ideas have been considered.

(b) Welcome wild ideas, no matter how absurd they might seem. Some of the wildest ideas have resulted in unique solutions. There should be no inhibition in generating any ideas. The ideas that are too wild and unfeasible can always be discarded later.

(c) Strive for quantity and not quality. Quality can always be judged at the end. The more ideas there are, the better the chances that the best solution will not escape.

(d) Each participant is encouraged to improve or modify other participant's suggestions. The system can make improvements on the ideas, not visualized by the participant who originally suggested them. This process results in free association and unrestricted thinking and may generate some novel idea which may not have been thought of originally.

Brainstorming technique is very effective when the problem is comparatively specific and be simply defined. A complex problem can be broken up into many parts and each part can be taken separately at a time. The process is very time consuming and it is quite possible that none of the ideas generated would be optimal. But the process itself being democratic in nature creates a lot of interest among subordinates and stimulates their thinking. Also, the wasted time can be minimized if the members of the group are chosen carefully so that they understand the problem and feel that their contribution towards ideas generation will be substantial.

Delphi Technique

This technique is a modification of brainstorming technique that it involves obtaining the opinions of experts physically separated from each other and unknown to each other 13 Generally, the problems handled by this techniques are not specific in nature or related to a particular situation at a given time. The process is more involved in predicting and assessing the impact on our society of nature events in a given area. For example, the Delphi technique may be used to understand the problems that could be created in the event of a war and after.

Typically, a group of experts is assembled whose speciality lies in a given field and they are asked to give their opinions about a problem or situation that might develop. For example, physicians would be used to get ideas on how to treat a particular disease such as AIDS and medical psychologists will be used to deal with family of a patient of terminal disease or who is in a coma. All these opinions are handled by a central coordinator, who consolidates

these opinions and this summarized information is sent back to the experts again for further analysis and opinion refinement. The following sequential steps characterize the technique.

a) The problem is identified and set of questions is built relating to the problem so that the answer to these question wold questions generates solutions to the problem. Is identified and set of questions is built relating to the problem so that the answer to these questions would generate solutions to the problem. These questions are consolidated in the form of a questionnaire.

b) Experts in the problem area are identified and contacted. The questionnaire is sent to each member who anonymously and independently answers the questions and sends it back to the central coordinator.

c) Once received, the results of this questionnaire are compiled and analyzed and on the basis of the responses received, a second questionnaire is developed which is mailed back to the participating members.

d) The members are asked again to react to these responses and to comment, suggest, evaluate and answer the new questions, possibly generating some new ideas and solutions.

e) The responses to this second questionnaire are compiled and analyzed by the central coordinator and if a consensus has not been reached, then a third questionnaire is developed, pinpointing the issue and unresolved areas of concern.

f) The above process is repeated until a consensus is obtained. Then final report is prepared and a solution is defined and developed if possible.

These steps are shown diagrammatically in the following figure:
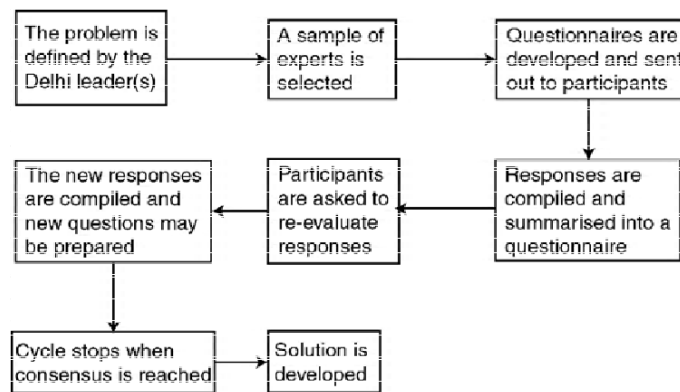
Source: Tossi, Henry L, Hohn R. Rizzo and Stephen J. Carroll, "Managing Organizational Behavior". Ballinger Publishing Company, 1986. P. 458.

One of the main advantages of the Delphi technique is that the group members are totally independent and are not influenced by the opinion of other members. It is an efficient method of poling a large number of experts'. Judgments and the members do not have to be present at one location, this means that an expert who is geographically separated can also contribute his thoughts and opinions so that the coast associated with bringing these experts together is avoided. Also, the process avoids the problem of conformity and domination that often occurs in interacting groups.

The main disadvantage of this technique is that it is highly time consuming and is primarily useful in illuminating broad range, long term complex issues such as future effects of energy shortages that might occur. This technique also eliminates the sense of motivation that arises in a face to face interacting group. A time frame and a typical plan for Delphi technique are given below.

Activities	Estimated minimum Time required
1) Develop the Delphi technique	1/ 2day
2) Select and contact experts	2 days
3) Select sample size	1/2 day
4) Develop questionnaire # 1	1day
a) Sending questionnaire	1day
b) Response time	5 days
c) Reminder time	3days
5) Analysis of response	½ days
6) Develop questionnaire # 1	2 days
a) Sending questionnaire	1 days
b) Response time	5 days
c) Reminder time	3days
7) Analysis of response	1 days
8) Develop questionnaire # 3	2 days
a) sending questionnaire	1days
b) response time	3 days
c) reminder	3 days
9) Analysis of response	1 days
10) Prepare of final report	7 days
Total estimated minimum time	**44 ½ days**

Source Delbecq, A.L. A.H. Van de Van and D.Gustofson. "Group Techniques for Program Planning ". Scott, Foresman Publishing, 1975.

Nominal Technique

The Nominal Technique is very similar to Brainstorming but is considered to be more effective. This may be due to highly structured procedures employed for generating and analyzing various ideas and alternatives. It may be physically domination is avoided. The process is similar- to a traditional committee meeting expect that the members operate independently, generating ideas for solving the problem in silence and in writing. The group leader or the coordinator either collects these written ideas or writes them on a large blackboard as he received it. No then discussed one by one, in turn, and each participant is encouraged to comment on these ideas for the purpose of clarification. After all ideas are discussed and clarified, they are evaluated for their merits and drawbacks and each participating member is required to vote on each idea and assign it rank on the basis of priority of each alternative solution. The idea with the highest aggregate ranking creates an atmosphere of creativity because participants often work hard to generate ideas in the presence of others. The process is illustrated in the following figure:
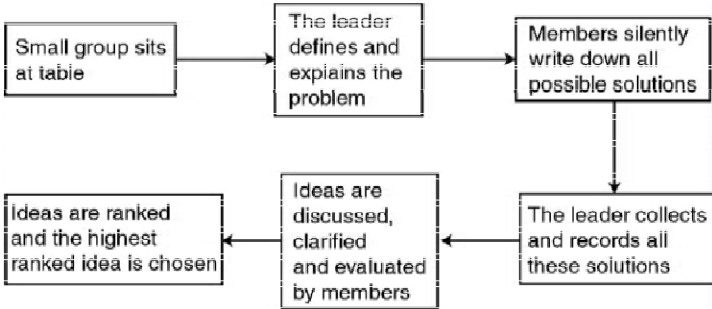
Check Your Progress

3. Define brainstorming.
4. What do you understand by 'Delphi Technique'?
5. What are the guidelines for effective decision making

Fishbowling

Fishbowling is another variation of the brainstorming but is more structured and is to the point. In this technique, the decision ,making group of experts is seated around a circle with a single chair in the center of the circle. One member of the group or the group leader is invited to sit in the center chair and give his view about the problem and his proposition of a solution. The other group members can ask him questions but there is no irrelevant discussion or cross talk. Once the member in the center chair has finished talking and his viewpoint is fully understood, he leaves the center and joins the group in the circle. Then the second member is called upon to sit in the center chair and give his views in the light of the views expressed earlier. The members can ask questions to the center based upon the new ideas presented by the member. In the center as well as the ideas discussed by previous center members continuous until the chair is vacated. All exchanges must be between the center and the group and no two group members are allowed to talk directly. This technique result in each member favoring a particular course of action, since all members are acting upon the database and also since each idea offered by the central members has been thoroughly questioned and examined. After all experts have expressed their views, the entire groups discuss the various alternatives suggested and pick the one with consensus.

Didactic Interaction

This technique is applicable only in certain situations, but is an excellent method when such a situation. For example, the decision may be to buy or not to buy, to situation requires an extensive and exhaustive discussion and investigation since a wrong decision can have serious consequences of either of the two alternatives, the group required to make the decision is split into two subgroups, one favouring the "go" decision and other favoring the "no go" decision. The first group lists all the "pros" of the problem solution and the second group lists all the "cons". These two groups meet and discuss their findings and their reason. After the exhaustive discussions, the groups switch sides and try to find weakness in their own original viewpoints. This interchange of ideas and tolerance and understanding of opposing viewpoint results in mutual acceptance of facts as facts as they exist so that a solution can be built around these facts and opinions relating to these facts and thus a final decision is reached.

9.7 SUMMARY

Because of complexity of many unique and ill-structured problems, it is unlikely that an individual wit natural constraints on the number of variables that he can handle at any given time, can make an effective and correct decision to solve such a problem. In such situations a group of experts is more suited in looking at the problems from various angles and reach a correct and feasible conclusion. For this reason, the groups can evaluate ideas better than individuals. Decisions made by individuals can often be biased resulting in resentment by those who may have to implement such decision. In such cases group decision are more easily acceptable.

There are many advantages of group decision making. First the group members are generally broad

Based with different specialties bringing more knowledge and information into the decision making process. Secondly, the process is more participate and democratic in nature and thus the decisions are more easily accepted by organizational members.

On the other hand, the group decisions are not necessarily bias free. A more dominating leader may have his view point accepted by the members of the group even if such viewpoint is of mediocre value. There may be a tendency for political maneuvering to influence the final outcomes. The process is also time consuming as well as costly and may not be

suitable for emergency or crisis situations. There is a tendency towards the concept of group cohesiveness where the agreements are made for the sake of togetherness and this may inhibit some critical individual thinking.

These problems can be avoided if some clear guidelines are followed in making the group decision making process more effective. The purpose of the group and the agenda for discussion should be representative of all areas where the decision will be implemented and they should be able to communicate with each other freely without fear of disagreements. The leader of the group should be highly skilled in inter-personal skills and should be both task-oriented and people-oriented.

There are many techniques that the group can adopt in making decisions, depending upon the type of problems under consideration. Brainstorming can be used where members of the group are encouraged to throw any idea that comes to their mind, irrespective of the suitability or adaptability of such an idea. Delphi technique is used for problems of general nature such as future energy shortages or consequences of nuclear disaster. Experts in the given area are located wherever they are and are asked to give their opinions on an issue in writing these opinions are received by a central coordinator who separates the similar opinions from those that area dissimilar. The dissimilar opinions are sent back to the experts for further refinement.

This process is repeated until a consensus is reached. Some of the other group decision making techniques include Nominal technique, which is similar to brainstorming but more structured. In fishbowling technique, each member sits in the center of a circle formed by the group members and gives his opinion and answer any questions from the group. Didactic approach is used when a choice is to made whether to go ahead with an action or not.

In general, group decision are superior to individual decision in situations that are extraordinary and are not prone to situations by known methodologies. On the other individual decisions are faster to make and implement and are sometimes necessary in crisis situations.

9.8 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. Explain in detail as to why groups can make higher quality decisions than individuals. Give examples.

2. Describe the Vroom-Yroom model in defining the five styles of decision making. What are the conditions that are more suitable for each style to be applied?

3. Under what circumstances would the group making style be preferable over the individual decision making style?

4. Explain in detail the disadvantages of group decision making. How can some of these disadvantages be eliminated?

5. Explain the concept of "Groupthink" what are the various symptoms of Groupthink? How does it affect the quality of decisions?

6. What are the guidelines for effective decision making? What are the possible faults of one or more of these guidelines?

7. How important is the leadership role in the process of group decision making? Should the leader be more task oriented or maintenance oriented? Give reason for your answer.

8. Explain in detail the process of brainstorming for making innovative decision. Is entertaining wild ideas justified when it is so time consuming and the success of these ideas is so uncertain?

9. Under what circumstances would the Delphi technique of decision making be more suitable and useful for short range operational problems? Explain your reasons.

10. Explain and compare the following group decision making techniques.
    a) Nominal technique
    b) Fishbowling
    c) Didactic approach.

9.9 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Advantages of group decision making are:
   - Since the group members have different specialities they tend to provide more information and knowledge. Also the information tends to be more comprehensive in nature and the groups can generate greater number of alternatives. Thus, the decision that requires the use of knowledge should give groups an advantage over individuals.
   - implementation of the decision is more effective since the people who are going to implement the decision also participated in the decision making process. thus also increases the commitment of the people to see the implementation to success. It is important that the decision be accepted by all, because even a low quality decision that has acceptance can be more effective than a higher quality decision that lacks general acceptance.
   - The input from a large number of people eliminates the biases that are generally introduced due to individual decision making. It also reduces the unreliability of individual's decisions.

2. Disadvantages of group decision making are:
   - The process is highly time consuming in terms of assembling the right group and usually a group takes more time in reaching a consensus since there are too many opinions to be taken into consideration. The time problem increases with the group size. Accordingly, the speed of arriving at a solution must be considered, when group decision making style is selected.
   - some members may simply agree with the others for the sake of agreement since there are social pressures to conform and not to be the odd-man out. thus the desire to be a good group member tends to silence disagreement and favours consensus. The social pressures can be very strong, inducing people to change their attitudes, perceptions and behaviours.
   - Many times, participants in group decisions have their own personal axes to grind or their own interests to protect. These self-centered interests lead to personality conflicts that may create interpersonal obstacles which may diminish the efficiency of the process as well as the quality of the decision.

3. Brainstorming technique involves a group of people, usually between five and ten, sitting around a table in a classroom setting generating ideas in the form of free association. The primary focus of the brainstorming technique is more on "generation of ideas", rather than on "evaluation of ideas", the idea being that if a large number of ideas can be generated, then it is likely that there will be a unique and creative solution among them. All these ideas are written on the blackboard with a piece of chalk so that everybody can see every idea and try to improve upon them.

4. Delphi technique is a modification of brainstorming technique that it involves obtaining the opinions of experts physically separated from each other and unknown to each other 13 Generally, the problems handled by this techniques are not specific in nature or related to a particular situation at a given time. The process is more involved in predicting and assessing the impact on our society of nature events in a given area. For example, the Delphi technique may be used to understand the problems that could be created in the event of a war and after.

5. Some of the more useful guidelines to make the group decision making more effective are given below:

   1. Be sure that the purpose of the group is well defined and clearly understood by all members of the group.

   2. Be sure that the group members communicate freely with each other and that everyone understands each other's roles and aspirations.

   3. Be sure that the group is representative of those individuals who will either implement the decision or be affected by it.

   4. Be sure that be group has access to all the necessary resources of information and other supportive elements so as to reach an efficient and fast conclusion.

   5. Be sure that the composition of the group is appropriate so that the members have the necessary skills and expertise in discussing and evaluating the problems at hand.

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CASE STUDY

Raju Electronic is one the major manufactures of components for electronic appliances, such as televisions, systems and cordless telephones. Shree Raju statred the company in 1962 in the foothills of Himchai Pradesh. With a vision of expansion, Mr. Raju bought a large plot of land for furture expansion next to the existing plant. The company currently employs about 700 employees.

With sales soaring through the roof and accumulation of millions of rupees in cash flow, the company decided about a year ago to diversify and add other types of consumer items to its product line. This move was also considered important because the field of electronic goods was becoming saturated and there was a fear of declining profits in the future in this area.

Mr. Dilbagh Singh, a vice-president with the company was asked by the President of the company to form a group which would study and recommend some ideas of new products in the consumer markets within the given facilities and resources of the company. Mr. Singh selected a group of seven persons from areas such as production, finance, research, and marketing and gave them the responsibility and guidelines for decisions and operations and then gave the group complete freedom to brainstorm and come up with a feasible idea. The group elected Mr. Sharma as their leader and liaison between the group and Mr.Singh.

Group members met twice a week for brainstorming sessions of discussions of many ideas and making

Golf balls and galf clubs. Their reasoning was that because of the availability of various types of household appliances, people were having leisure time and also the number of middle class families was increasing and the game of golf having an elite image of status and success , would be welcomed by middle class people. With excitement and expectation of appreciation, the group prepared a report and Mr. Sharma gave the report to Mr. Singh.

After about one week, Mr. Singh called Mr. Sharma in his office and informed him of his belief that the idea would not be accepted by the top management, simply because the demand was very limited and the middle class was not yet financially ready to get involved in a very expensive leisure time.

Disappointed at this evaluation, Mr. Sharma went to back the group and asked the members to start working on some other ideas. After another three months of discussions and brainstorming, one idea gained importance. The idea was to manufacture plastic dolls for children with a small tape player inside, which played a one sentence message such as "Hello, My name is Mary" or some thing like that. There would be a number of different statements in different dolls and the doll would be a number of different statements in different dolls and the doll would "talk" when its belly was pressed. To cut coast and make it affordable for every one, only ex-convicts out of prison would be hired, partly to social rehabilitate them and partly because they could be hired at cheaper rates. The primary focus was on social acceptance and appreciation that the company was giving these convicts a chance to make a respectable life for themselves.

When Mr. Sharma gave the report of this idea, Mr. Singh was equally receptive to the idea. However the idea was turned down by the top that the company would be spending too much time in supervising and checking the behavior of these workers and there would be a continuous air of suspicion and fear at the plant.

The group was sent back to the drawing board.

Questions

1. speculate on the reason that must have gone into the group discussion when they came up with the idea of golf clubs and golf balls. Do you think Mr. Singh was justified in rejecting this idea without presenting it to the top management for their reaction?

2. Do you think the second idea of baby dolls was a feasible idea? What was the group's main focus and why, considering that the company is not in the business of social welfare?

3. Do you think the organizations have justified in rejecting the second idea, considering that all organizations have a social and ethical responsibility of community service?

4. If you were a member of the group, would you have supported either one or both of these ideas? Given reason for your support.

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UNIT 10 LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS

Structure

10.0 INTRODUCTION

Leadership is the art of motivating and influencing subordinates to perform their duties "willingly" and effectively to achieve the set organizational goals. It is important that the followers "willingly" follow their leader. A true leader motivates the followers to follow and induces a belief in them that they will gain by the policies of the leader. A dictatorship under which the subordinate have to perform, would not be considered as true leadership.

10.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

- All managers are business leaders and they must exhibit leadership qualities in additional to managerial expertise
- Formal and informal leadership
- Characteristics of leaders
- Various theories of leadership such as Trait Theory, Behavioural Theroy, Path-Goal Theory, Contingency Theories and so on
- Various leadership styles such as autocratic, participative and laissez-faire
- Personal traits of leaders

10.2 LEADERLSHIP: AN OVERVIEW

Leadership is an integral part of management and plays a vital role in managerial operations. If there is any single factor that differentiates between successful and unsuccessful organizations, it could be considered as dynamic and effective leadership. Perhaps, it would be a valid assumption to state that the major cause of most business leaders, even though management primarily relies on formal position power to influence people whereas leadership stems from a social influence process. However, management is an integral component of technical as well as social processes.

Leadership is not an attribute of business alone. In the army, in the government, in universities, in hospitals and anywhere else where people work in groups, the leadership function emerges. There must be somebody to guide that group. The group leader may also be an informal leader, one who emerges form the ranks of the group according to consensus of the members.

Leadership may be defined as the art of influencing and inspiring subordinates to perform their duties willingly, competently and enthusiastically for achievement of group objectives. Most management writers agree that, "leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts towards goal achievement in a given situation."[1]

It is important to have the element of willingness in the above definition. This element differentiates successful and effective leaders from the "common run of the managers". Motivating and influencing people to move towards a common goal are all essential elements of management but the "willingness" of the followers to be led, highlights a special quality that puts a leader high above others.

Based on these elements of the leadership function, the leadership may be defined as:

L   =   F (f,g,w,s) where leadership (L) is a function (F) of

f   =   followers

g   =   goal

w   =   a measure of willingness on the part of subordinates, and

s   =   a given situation

10.3 FORMAL AND INFORMAL LEADERSHIP

Leadership can be formal or informal. The formal leadership occurs when a person is appointed or elected as an authority figure. For example, anyone who is appointed to the job of a manager is also given the authority to exercise formal leadership in relationship to his subordinates. Similarly, a formally elected leader of a country or a state acquires the authority of leadership and in giving direction to the country or state.

The informal leadership emerges when a person uses interpersonal influence in a group without designated authority or power. These leaders emerge in certain situations because of their charm, intelligence, skills or other traits and to whom other people turn to for advice, direction and guidance. Religious and civic leaders fit into this category. Successful managers who exercise their given authority in a formal way are also capable of exercising informal leadership relationships with people both within as well as outside the organization.

Leadership Characteristics

A leader has certain inherent qualities and traits which assist him in playing a directing role and wielding commanding influence over others. Some of these traits according to Jago [2] are:

1. Energy, drive
2. Appearance, presentability
3. A sense of cooperativeness
4. Enthusiasm
5. Personality-height and weight
6. Initiative
7. Intelligence
8. Judgement
9. Self-confidence
10. Sociability

11. Tact and diplomacy
12. Moral courage and integrity
13. Will power and flexibility
14. Emotional stability
15. Knowledge of human relations

These traits are not universal in nature, nor do all the leaders have all these traits. Not all these traits work all the time. While some of these characteristics differentiate successful managers and leaders from unsuccessful ones, it is the behaviour of the leaders, either as a result of these characteristics or otherwise, which is more tangible and obvious and less abstract in nature. The leadership behaviour is directly related to individual employee morale. These are some of the indicators, which to some degree reflect the effectiveness of leadership behaviour.

Many studies have been conducted in order to identify and separate such characteristics and personal traits that are unique to the behaviour of successful leaders. These traits could then be set up as standards against which the profiles of leaders could be matched and judged. However, such attempts have not been successful. According to Ralph Stogdill[3], who studied the subject of leadership most extensively, "a person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics, activities and goals of the followers".

Theories of Leadership

Over the last 80 years, a number of different theories and approaches to studying leadership have been developed. Prior to 1945, the most common approach to the study of leadership concentrated on leadership traits. It was thought that leaders possessed and exhibited some unique set of qualities that distinguished them from their peers. Because this line of investigation did not produce consistent outcomes, research centered on other theories such as behavioural and situational approaches to leadership identification. These theories are examined in more detail as follows:

Trait Theory

The Trait Theory rests on the traditional approach which describes leadership in terms of certain personal and special characteristics which are not acquired by knowledge and training but are considered inherited. This theory emphasizes that leaders are born and not made and that leadership is a function of inborn traits. Some of these inborn traits are considered to be intelligence, understanding, perception, high motivation, socio-economic status, initiative, maturity, need for self-actualization, self-assurance and understanding of interpersonal human relations. In the earlier studies, the existence of these traits became a measure of leadership. It holds that possession of thee traits permits certain individuals to gain position of leadership. Since all individuals do not have these qualities, only those who have them would be considered potential leaders. It was further believed that training individuals to assume leadership roles was not possible and such training would be helpful only to those who had these inborn leadership traits to start with.

The Trait Theory of leadership has suffered from lack of conclusiveness and over-simplifications. As Eugene E. Jennings[4] concluded, "fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or a set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and nonleaders." The old assumption that "leaders are born" has never been substantiated in several decades of research. The critics have charged that the theory focuses attention only on the leader and disregards the dynamics of the leadership process. Also the theory ignores the situational characteristics which may result in the emergence of a leader.

Some of the other weaknesses and failures of trait theory are:

1. All the traits are not identical with regard to the essential characteristics of a leader.
2. Some traits can be acquired by training and may not be inherited.
3. It does not identify the traits that are most important and those that are least important in identifying a successful leader.
4. The traits required to "attain" leadership may not be the same that are required to "sustain" leadership.
5. It fails to explain the many leadership failures in spite of the required traits.
6. It has been found that many traits exhibited by leaders are also found among followers without explaining as to why followers could not become leaders.
7. It ignores the environmental factors which may differ from situation to situation.
8. It is difficult to define traits in absolute terms. Each trait can be explained in variety of terms. For example, intelligence cannot be accurately.
9. The extent and influence of traits would also depend upon the level of leadership in an organization. A supervisor of production, for example, does not need or use the same traits as the president of the company. The lower level management requires more technical skills while at top level management, human and conceptual skills are highly significant. Thus it would be unreasonable to assume that these traits are uniformly distributed at all managerial levels.

The traits theory approach has been criticized as lacking predictability. There are probably no personality traits that consistently distinguish the leader from his followers. According to B. Solomon[5].

"History is replete with non-trained, non-academic Fords, Edisons and Carnegies who could not even claim a grammar school education, yet managed to become leaders whose influences was felt around the globe. As for appearance of robust health, need we mention more than the delicate Gandhi or George Washington or Carver, the frail, shriveled, insignificant little negro who was one of America's greatest scientists and so many more like them. As for high ideals and find character act, where would Hitler, Capone or Attila the Hun rate here?"

Similarly, if tall people were more inclined to be leaders then how could such short people as Nepolean or the most respected Prime Minister of India, Lal Bahadur Shastri have risen to a high leadership gives rise to a logical criticism against its validity.

Behaviour Theory

This theory studies leadership by looking at leaders in terms of what they "do". This is in contrast to trait theory which seeks to explain leadership in terms of who the leaders "are ". Thus according to behaviour theory, leadership is shown by a person's acts more than by his traits. The leadership effectiveness is determined in terms of leader-subordinate interaction and outcome. Research studies conducted by Katz, Maccoby and More[6], suggested that leadership behaviour be defined along employee-centered dimension and production-centered dimension complementing each other so that the employee's performance and productivity is enhanced.

Further in-depth investigations into this approach have been conducted at Ohio State University[7]. These studies isolate two particular factors affecting the leadership dimension. These are:

Consideration   It refers to the extent to which there is a rapport between the leader and the group, a mutual warmth and trust, a concern for the needs of the members of the work group, an attitude that encourages participative management, two-way communication and respect for the feedback of the followers.

Initiating structure It refers to the extent to which a leader is task oriented and his ability and concern in utilizing resources and personnel at Optimum level. It involves creating a work environment so that the work of the group is organized, coordinated, sequential and organizationally relevant so that people know exactly what is to be done and how it is to be done. The structure involves having the leader to organize and define the role each member is to assume, assign tasks to them and push for the realization of organizational goals. An important discovery made by the Ohio studies was that the leader does not necessarily have to rate high both on consideration as well as structure element. He could be high on one and low on the other and still lead the group successfully. Because initiating structure dimension includes planning, coordinating, directing, problem solving, criticizing poor work and pressuring subordinates to perform better and consideration means friendlines and consultation with subordinates, these two elements may seem to be in conflict with each other. However, according to Weissenberg and Kavanaugh [8], these two elements are considered to be relatively independent dimensions of a leader's behaviour. This means that a high score on one dimension does not necessarily mean a low score on the other. Thus consideration and initiating structure can be shown in various combinations as follows:
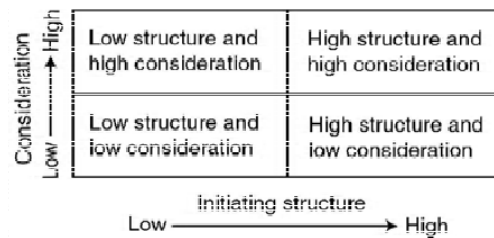
Thus a manager with high structure and high consideration rates high in directing and controlling his subordinates and has a high level of concern and warmth towards employees. Such managers have subordinates who are more satisfied, have fewer grievances and stay longer with the organization. There is also evidence that such managers who exhibit high levels of both consideration and initiating structure generate higher levels of subordinate performances.[9]

One advantage of this theory is that these two dimensions of leadership behaviour are tangible and observable and do account for a major part of the leader behaviour. Even though a causal connection of these two dimensions with performance has not been clearly demonstrated, their relationship to leadership effectiveness has been quite obvious.

Managerial Grid

Another aspect of Behavioural Theory of leadership is represented by the Managerial Grid. It was developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton[10] and plays an important part in managerial behaviour in organizational development. In general, behavioural scientists have separated the two primary concerns in organizations, namely, the concern for production and concern for people. They believed that a high concern for production necessarily meant low concern for people and high consideration for workers meant tolerance for low production. However, the managerial grid model emphasized that both concerns should be integrated to achieve the objectives of the organization. It assumes that people and production factors are complementary to each other rather than mutually exclusive.

According to Rao and Narayana [11], the concern for production is not limited to things only, and concern for people cannot be confined to narrow considerations of interpersonal warmth and friendliness. Production can be measured in terms of creative ideas of people that turn into useful products, processes or procedures, efficiency of workers and quality of staff and auxiliary services. Similarly, concern for people includes concern for he degree of personal commitment of complementing the work requirement assigned to each person,

Check Your Progress

1. What are the traits of a good leader?
2. Define trait theory.

accountability based upon trust rather than fear or force, sense of job security and friendship with co-workers leading to a healthy working climate.

The management grid is built on two axis, one representing the "people" and the other the "task". Both the horizontal, as well as the vertical axis are treated as a scale from 1 to 9 where 1 represents the least involvement and 9 represents the most involvement, so that the coordinates (1, 1) would indicate minimum standards for worker involvement and task design, and coordinates (9, 9) would indicate maximum dedication of the workers and highly structured operations. Such an involvement would reflect upon the managerial orientation towards tasks and towards workers who are expected to perform such tasks. Blake and Mouton have identified five coordinates that reflect various styles of leader behaviour. The managerial grid figures and these styles are shown as follows:
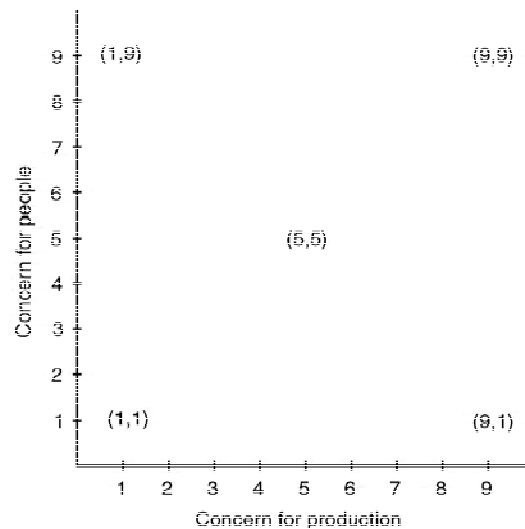
The managerial grid diagram as shown above can be interpreted as follows:

- Coordinates (1,1). This represents an impoverished management and the manager makes minimum efforts to get the work done. Minimum standards of performance and minimum worker dedication.

- Coordinates (9,1). Excellent work design. Well Established procedures. Minimum worker interference. Orderly performance and efficient operations.

- Coordinates (1,9). Personal and meaningful relationship with people. Friendly atmosphere and high morale. Loosely structured work design.

- Coordinates (9,9). Ultimate in managerial efficiency. Thoroughly dedicated people. Trustworthy and respectable atmosphere. Highly organized task performances. Known as team management style, it relies upon interdependence of relationships based upon commitment of employees.

- Coordinates (5,5). Known as the middle-of-the-road management style, it is concerned with balancing the necessity to get the work done while maintaining worker morale at a satisfactory level. The goal is to achieve adequate organizational performance.

This managerial grid provides a reasonable indication of the health of the organization as well as the ability of the managers. The model assumes that there is one best or most effective style of management, which is the style indicated by coordinates (9,9) also known as team management style. It is the objective of all management to move as close to this style as possible, for managers who emphasize both high concern for people as well as productivity are presumed to be more successful. Accordingly, managers should

be carefully selected on the basis of their ability to coordinate people and tasks for optimum benefit.

The managerial grid model, however has become controversial on the basis of lack of empirical evidence supporting whether the team management style is the best management style. Even Blake and Mouton [12] offer conceptual, rather than empirical arguments as to why the team management style should be the best style, when conditions are favourable.

Contingency Theories

All the leadership theories discussed so far attribute leadership performance on the basis of certain traits or in terms of leader's behaviours. The contingency theories state that an analysis of leadership involves not only the individual traits and behaviour but also a focus on the situation. The leadership behaviour is used in combination with work groups contingencies to predict performance outcomes. The effectiveness of leader behaviour is contingent upon the demands imposed by the situation. The focus is on the situation in which leadership is exercised and not upon the leader. Different types of situations demand different situations. Similarly, a successful leader under one set of circumstances may be a failure under a different set of circumstances. For example, Winston Chruchill was considered a successful prime minister and an effective leader of England during World War II. However, he turned out to be much less successful after the war when the situation changed.

The contingency approach, known also as situational approach defines leadership in terms of his ability to handle a given situation and is based on the leader's skill in that given area. This approach can best be described by a hypothetical example developed by Robert A. Baron [13]. Imagine the following scene:

The top executives of a large corporation are going in their limousine to meet the president of another large company at some distance. On the way, their limousine breaks down many miles from any town. Who takes charge of the situation? Who becomes the situational leader ? Not the president or the vice-president of the company, but the driver of the car who knows enough about the motor to get the car started again. As he does or oversees the repair, he gives direct orders to these top echelons of the organization, who comply. But once the car starts and they arrive at the meeting, the driver surrenders his authority and becomes a subordinate again.

This example suggests that in a given situation, the person most likely to act as a leader is the one who is most competent for the situation or for a given group as the case may be. Thus, in defiance of the trait theory, some shy and introvert person may take command of leadership if he meets the group's requirements under given circumstances. However, it must be understood that it would require the leaders to change their behaviour in order to fit the changed situation, if necessary, rather than having to change the situation to suit the leadership behaviour style. This means that the leaders must remain flexible and sensitive to the changing needs of the given group.[14]

While this approach emphasizes that external pressures and situational characteristics and not the personal traits and personality characteristics determine the emergence of successful leaders in performing a given role, it is probably a combination of both types of characteristics that sustains a leader over a long period of time. A leader is more successful when his personal traits complement the situational characteristics.

According to Szilagyi and Wallace 15, there are four contingency variables that influence a leader's behaviour. First, there are the characteristics of the leader himself. These characteristics include the personality of the leader relative to his ability to respond to situational pressures as well as his previous leadership style in similar situation. The second variable relates to the characteristics of the subordinates. The subordinates are important contributors to a given operational situation. The situation will very much depend upon whether the subordinates prefer a participative style of leadership and decision making and what their motivations in this situation are. Are the subordinates motivated

by intrinsic satisfaction of performing the task well or do they expect other types of reinforcements?

The third factor involves the group characteristics. If the group is highly cohesive it will create a more cordial situation than if the group members do not get along with each other so that the leadership style will vary accordingly. The fourth situational factor relates to the organizational structure. The organizational structure is the formal system of authority, responsibility and communication within the company. Factors system of authority, responsibility and communication within the company. Factors such as hierarchy of authority, centralized or decentralized decision making and formal rules and regulations would affect the leader behaviour. All these factors are diagrammatically shown as follows:
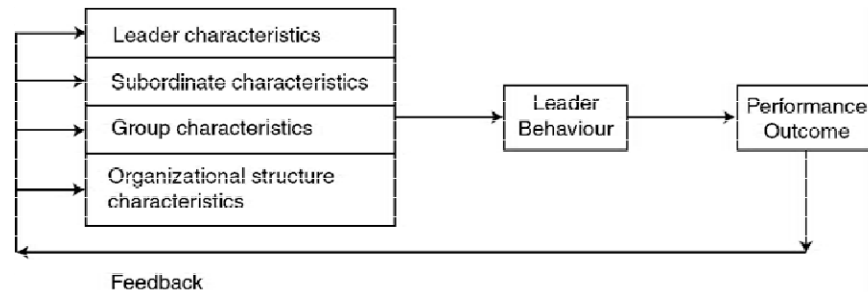
Contingency theories of leadership attempt to account systematically for any relationship between situational factors and leadership effectiveness. There are four such main theories that have been proposed. These are discussed in more detail as follows:

Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Fred Fiedler was one of the earliest proponents of a leadership model that explicitly accounted for situational factors. He proposed, in 1967, a theoretical explanation for interaction of three situational variables which affect the group performances. These three variables are (1) leader-member relations, (2) task structure and (3) leader's positional power. These variables determine the extent of the situational control that the leader has.

Leader-member relations   This relationship reflects the extent to which the followers have confidence and trust in their leader as to his leadership ability. A situation in which the leader-member relations are relatively good with mutual trust and open communications is much easier to manage than a situation where relations are strained.

Task structure   It measures the extent to which the tasks performed by subordinates are specified and structured. It involves clarity of goals, as well as clearly established and defined number of steps required to complete the task. When the tasks are well structured and the rules, policies and procedures clearly written and understood, then there is little ambiguity as to how the job is to be accomplished.

Position power   Position power refers to the legitimate power inherent in the leader's organizational position. It refers to the degree to which a leader can make decisions about allocation of resources, rewards and sanctions. Low position power indicates limited authority. A high position power gives the leader the right to take charge and control the situation as it develops.

The most favourable situation for the leader then would be when the leader group relations are positive, the task is highly structured and the leader has substantial power and authority to exert influences on the subordinates. The leadership model proposed by Fiedler measures the leadership orientation and effectiveness with a differential type of attitude scale which measures the leader's esteem for the "least preferred co-worker" or LPC as to whether or not the person the leader least like to work with is viewed in a positive or negative way. For example, if a leader would describe his least preferred co-worker in a favourable his least

preferred co-worker in a favourable way with regards to such factors as friendliness, warmth, helpfulness, enthusiasm, and so on then he would be considered high on LPC scale. In general a high LPC score leader is more relationship oriented and a low LPC score leader is more task-oriented.

A high LPC leader is most effective when the situation is reasonably stable and requires only moderate degree of control. The effectiveness stems from motivating group members to perform better and be dedicated towards goal achievement. A low LPC leader would exert pressure on the subordinates to work harder and produce more. These pressures would be directed through organizational rules, policies and expectations.

One of the basic conclusions that can be drawn from Fiedler's contingency model is that a particular leadership style may be more effective in one situation and the same style may be totally ineffective in another situation, and since a leadership style is more difficult to change, the situation should be changed to suit the leadership style [16]. The situation can be made more favourable by enhancing relations with subordinates, by changing the task structure or by gaining more formal power which can be used to induce a more conducive work setting based upon personal leadership style. Fiedler and his associates also developed a leadership training programme known as LEADER MATCH, giving the manager some means and authority to change the situation so that it becomes more compatible with the leader's LPC orientation [17]. Studies conducted by Strube Garcia [18] have shown strong support for Fiedler's approach.

Path-Goal Theory

The path-goal theory of leadership, as proposed by House and Mitchell 19, proposes that the effectiveness of leaders can be measured from their impact on their subordinates' motivation, their ability to perform effectively and their satisfaction with their tasks. This model emphasizes that the leader behaviour be such as to compliment the group work setting and aspirations so that it increases the subordinate goal achievement level and clarifies the paths to these goals. This approach is based upon the expectancy theory of motivation and reflects the worker's beliefs that effort would lead to successful outcomes. The leader sets up clear path and clear guidelines through which the subordinates can achieve both personal as well as work related goals and assists them in achieving these goals. This will make the leader behaviour acceptable and satisfying to subordinates since they see the behaviour of the leader as an immediate source of satisfaction or as a source of obtaining future satisfaction.

This approach is largely derived from the path-goal approach motivation.[20] To motivate workers, the leader should:

(a) Recognize subordinate needs for outcomes over which the leader has some control.

(b) Arrange for appropriate rewards to his subordinates for goal achievement.

(c) Help subordinates in clearly establishing their expectations.

(d) Demolish, as far as possible, the barriers in their path of goal achievement.

(e) Increase opportunities for personal satisfaction which are contingent upon satisfactory performance.

The path-goal model takes into consideration the different types of leadership behaviour. There are four such types of leadership styles that would support this approach depending upon the nature of the situation.

These are:

Directive   Directive leadership is the style in which the leader provides guidance and direction to subordinates regarding job requirements as well as methodology for job accomplishment. This style is required when the demands of the task on hand are ambiguous and not clearly defined. But when the task is inherently clear or clarification is otherwise available, then a high level of directive leadership is not required and may, in fact impede performance.

Supportive   Supportive leadership is a style in which the leader is concerned with the needs and well-bring of his subordinates. The leader is friendly and approachable and treats his subordinates as equals. This approach has the most positive effect, specifically on the satisfaction of those followers who are working on unpleasant, stressful or frustrating tasks that are highly repetitive.

Achievement-oriented   This type of support helps the subordinates to strive for higher performance standards and increase confidence in their ability to meet challenging goals. This is specially true for followers who have clear cut and non-repetitive assignments.

Participative   This leadership approach encourages subordinate's participation in the decision making process. The leader solicits subordinate's suggestions and takes the suggestions into consideration before making decisions.

The Contingency Factors

The specific leadership style that is most effective is contingent upon two situational factors. These factors are:

Characteristics of subordinates   The leadership style selected by the leader should be compatible with the ability, experience, needs, motivations and personalities of the followers. Subordinates who perceive their own ability to be high would not appreciate a directive approach and would be highly motivated by a supportive leadership style. People who believe that what happens to them is a result of their own behaviour are more satisfied with a participative leadership style and people who believe that what happens to them is a matter of chance or luck, prefer a directive style of leadership.

Environmental factors   The environmental factors are those which are beyond the control of the subordinates but are significant in affecting their satisfaction or on their ability to perform effectively. These include the structure of the work tasks, openness of communication, extent of feedback provided, formal authority system of the organization and the nature of interaction within the work group. If the task is one of a routine nature and well-structured, and the organizational authority system is formal and the group norms are clear and respected, then a directive leadership style will be unnecessary. Additionally, such a leadership will be motivational which helps subordinates cope with the environmental uncertainties, environmental sources of threats and frustration and remove any other barriers to performance and also make sure that subordinates' satisfactory performance is adequately rewarded.

Life-Cycle Theory

The life-cycle theory of leadership has been developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard.[21] The model focuses on the "maturity" of the followers as a contingency variable affecting the style of leadership. The "maturity" of the subordinates can be defined as their ability and willingness to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour in relation to a given task. The level of such maturity would determine the leader's emphasis on task behaviours (giving guidance and direction) and relationship behaviour (providing socio-emotional support). "Task behaviour" can be defined as the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it and who is to do it. Task behaviour is characterized by one-way communication from the leader to the follower and this communication is meant to direct the subordinate to achieve his goal.[22]

Similarly, "relationship behaviour" is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communication. The behaviours include listening, facilitating and supportive behaviours [23].

"Maturity is the crux of the life-cycle theory. It has been defined previously as reflecting the two elements of ability and the willingness on the part of the followers. Ability is the knowledge, experience and skill that an individual or a group has in relation to a particular

task being performed and the willingness refers to the motivation and commitment of the group to successfully accomplish such given tasks."

The style of leadership would depend upon the level of maturity of the followers. The following diagram suggests four different styles of leadership for each stage of maturity and a particular style in relationship to its relative level of maturity is considered to be the best "match".
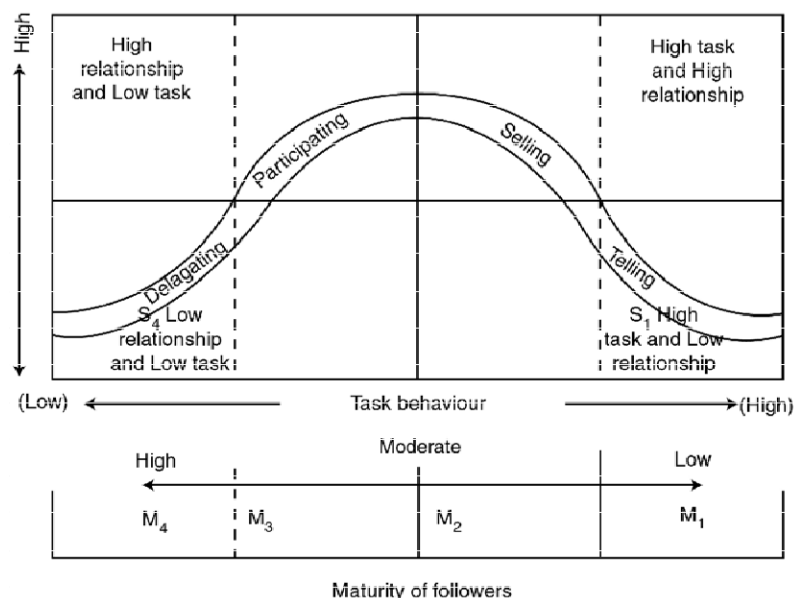
Source: Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, "Management of Organizational Behavior": Utilizing Human Resources." Prentice Hall, 1982, p.152.

These various combinations of leadership styles and levels of maturity are explained in more details as follows:

(S₁) Telling The "telling" style is best for low follower maturity. The followers feel very insecure about their task and are unable and unwilling to accept responsibility in directing their own behaviour. Thus, they require specific directions as to what, how and when to do various tasks so that a directive leadership behaviour is more effective.

(S₂) Selling The "selling" style is most suitable where followers have low to moderate maturity. The leader offers both task direction and socio-emotional support for people who are unable to take responsibility. The followers are confident but lack skills. It involves high task behaviour and high relationship behaviour.

(S₃) Participating This leadership approach involves high relationship behaviour and low task behaviour and is suitable for followers with moderate to high maturity where they have the ability but are unwilling to accept responsibility requiring a supportive leadership behaviour to increase their motivation. The leader has open door policy with open channels of communication and encourages his followers to perform their tasks well.

(S₄) Delegating Here the employees have both, the high job maturity and high psychological maturity. They are both able and willing to be accountable for their responsibility towards task performance and require little guidance and direction. It involves low relationship and low task leader behaviour.

The life-cycle theory of leadership requires that leaders attend to the demands of the situation as well as the feelings of the followers, and adjust their styles with the changing levels of maturity of the followers so as to remain consistent with the actual levels of maturity.

Vroom-Yetton Model [24]

This leadership model is normative in nature for it simply tells leaders how they should behave in decision making. The focus is on the premise that different problems have different characteristics and should therefore be solved by different decision techniques. The effectiveness of the decision is a function of leadership which ranges from the leader making decisions himself to totally democratic process in which the subordinates fully participate, and the contingencies of the situation which describe the attributes of the problem to the dealt with. For a successful leader, it is imperative to know the best approach to solving the problem at hand and to know how to implement each decision making technique well as and when required.

The model indicates that the decision reached should be high in quality, should be accepted by the people who have to implement it and should be time efficient. The leader, while choosing a strategy decides as to which extent. Studies performed to test the validity of this theory concluded that the participative and democratic style of leadership was more appropriate and successful at higher levels of organization, whereas directive decision making style was better utilized at lower levels.

There are three variables that affect the performance of the leader, in terms of his capacity as a decision maker. These variables are: the quality of the decision, the degree of acceptance of the decision by the subordinates and the time required to make the decision.

The quality of the decision   It is refers to not only the importance of the decision to performance of the subordinates relative to organizational objectives but also whether such performance is optimal in nature and whether all relative input has been considered during decision making process. If such a decision requires input from subordinates, then they should be involved in the decision making process.

Decision acceptance   It refers to the degree of subordinate commitment to the decision. Whether the decision is made by the leader himself or with participation of subordinates, it must be accepted by those who have to implement it wholeheartedly. The decision itself has no value unless it is efficiently and correctly executed. When subordinates accept a decision as their own, they will be more committed to implementing it effectively.

Time required to make the decision   Many situations develop in the form of a crisis where immediate and fast actions have to be taken requiring quick decisions. The subordinates must understand that their participation in decision making is very time consuming and under certain situation the delay in decision making could be very dangerous. Accordingly, as long as the decision is complimentary to the subordinates' aspirations and organizational goals, ad individualistic decision making style is more desirable if decisions have to be made under time constraints.

Since high quality of the decision and a high degree of acceptance of the decision by the subordinates are crucial to the successful implementation and outcome of the decision, Rao and Narayana[25] suggest that leaders should select a decision making style that is appropriate and most effective in a given situation and in this regard they should address the problem by asking seven questions. The first three questions relate to the quality of the decision and the rest of the four questions relate to the decision acceptance by the subordinates. These questions are:

1. Is there a quality requirement such that one solution is likely to be more rational than another?
2. Do you have sufficient information to make a high quality decision?
3. Is the problem structured?
4. Is acceptance of decision by subordinates critical to effective implementation?
5. If you were to make a decision by yourself, is it reasonably certain that it would be accepted by your subordinates?

6. Do subordinates share the organizational goals to be obtained in solving the problem?

7. Is conflict among subordinates likely in preferred solutions?

The answers to these questions would determine a particular decision making style to be adopted by the leader.

10.4 LEADERSHIP STYLES

The leadership styles can be classified according to the philosophy of the leaders. What the leader does determines how well he leads. A style of leadership is a "relatively enduring set of behaviours which is a characteristic of the individuals, regardless of the situation."[26] Some of the more significant leadership style are discussed as follows:

Autocratic or Dictatorial Leadership

Autocratic leaders keep the decision making authority and control in their own hands and assume full responsibility for all actions. Also, they structure the entire work situation in their own way and expect the workers to follow their orders and tolerate no deviation from their orders. The subordinates are required to implement instructions of their leaders without question. They are entirely depended on their leader and the output suffers in the absence of the leader.

The autocratic leadership style ranges from tough and highly dictatorial to paternalistic, depending upon whether the leader's motivational approach is threat and punishment or appreciation and rewards. In highly autocratic situations, the subordinates develop a sense of insecurity, frustration, low morale and they are induced to avoid responsibility, initiative and innovative behaviour. The autocratic leader believes that his leadership is based upon the authority conferred upon him by some source such as his position, knowledge, strength or the power to punish and reward. Some of the advantages and disadvantages of autocratic leadership are as follows:

Advantages

(a) Autocratic leadership is useful when the subordinates are new on the job and have had no experience either in the managerial decision making process or performing without active supervision.

(b) It can increase efficiency and even morale when appropriate and get quicker results, specially in a crisis or emergency when the decision must be taken immediately.

(c) The paternalistic leadership is useful when the subordinate are not interested in seeking responsibility or when they feel insecure at the job or when they work better under clear and detailed directives.

(d) It is useful when the chain of command and the division of work is clear and understood by all and there is little room for error in the final accomplishment.

Disadvantages

(a) One way communication without feedback leads to misunderstanding and communications breakdown.

(b) An autocratic leader makes his own decisions which can be very dangerous in this age of technological and sociological complexity.

(c) Since it inhibits the subordinate's freedom, it fails to develop his commitment to the goals and objectives of the organization.

(d) Since it creates an environment which provides for worker resentment, it creates problems with their morale resulting in poor productivity in the long run.

(e) It is unsuitable when the work force is knowledgeable about their jobs and the job calls for team work and cooperative spirit.

Participative or Democratic Leadership

In this type of leadership, the subordinates are consulted and their feedback is taken into the decision making process. The leader's job is primarily of a moderator, even though he makes the final decision and he alone is responsible for the results. The management recognizes that the subordinates are equipped with talents and abilities and that they are capable of bringing new ideas and new methodologies to work setting. Thus the group members are encouraged to demonstrate initiative and creativity and take intelligent interest in setting plans and policies and have maximum participation in decision making. This ensures better management-labor relations, higher morale and greater job satisfaction. This type of leadership is specially effective when the workforce is experienced and dedicated and is able to work independently with least directives, thereby developing a climate which is conducive to growth and development of the organization as well as the individual personality. The feasibility and usefulness of the participative decision making style is dependent on the following factors: [27]

1. Since participative decision making process is time consuming, there should be no urgency to the decision.

2. The cost of participation of subordinates in the decision making should not be more than the benefits derived from the decision.

3. The input from the subordinates should be free from any fear of repercussions in case such input in conflict with the views held by the management.

4. The participation o subordinates should not be of such a degree as to be perceived as a threat to the formal authority of management.

5. Subordinates should be sufficiently responsible so that there is no leakage of confidential information to outside elements.

In such situations, participative style of decision making has several advantages. These are:

(a) Active participation in the managerial operations by labour assures rising productivity and satisfaction.

(b) Workers develop a greater sense of self-esteem due to importance given to their ideas and their contribution.

(c) The employees become more committed to changes that may be brought by policy changes, since they themselves participated in bringing about these changes.

(d) The leadership indues confidence, cooperation and loyalty among workers.

(e) It results in higher employee morale.

(f) It increases the participants' understanding of each other which results in greater tolerance and patience towards others.

It has been demonstrated by numerous researches[28] that participation by subordinates improves quality of work, enhances an easy acceptance of changes in the organization and improves morale and loyalty.

Notwithstanding numerous advantages and great reliance on participative leadership, it has several disadvantages. Some of these are:

(a) The democratic leadership requires some favourable conditions in that the labour must be literate, informed and organized. This is not always possible.

(b) This approach assumes that all workers are genuinely interested in the organization and that their individual goals are successfully fused with the organizational goals. This assumption may not always be valid.

(c) There must be total trust on the part of management as well as employees. Some employees may consider thus approach simply an attempt to manipulate them. Accordingly, the employees must be fully receptive to this approach to make it meaningful.

(d) Some group members may feel alienated if their ideas are not accepted for action. This may create a feeling of frustration and ill-will.

(e) This approach is very time consuming and too may viewpoints and ideas may make the solid decision more difficult and may be a source of frustration to impatient management.

(f) Some managers may be uncomfortable with this approach because they may fear an erosion of their power base and their control over labour.

(g) This approach relies heavily on incentives and motivation of recognition, appreciation, status and prestige. However, labour may be interested in financial incentives instead of prestige.

Laissez-faire or Free-reign Leadership

In this type of leadership, the leader is just a figure-head and does not give any direction but delegates the authority to subordinates so that they must plan, motivate, control and otherwise be responsible for their own actions. The leader acts principally as a liaison between the group and the outside elements and supplies necessary materials and information to group members. He lets the subordinates develop their own techniques for accomplishing goals within the generalized organizational policies and objectives. The leader participates very little and instead of leading and directing, he becomes just one of the members. He does not attempt to intervene or regulate or control and there is complete group or individual freedom in decision making. This type of leadership is highly effective when the group members are highly intelligent and are fully aware of their roles and responsibilities and have the knowledge and skills to accomplish these tasks without direct supervision.

This type of leadership is evident in research laboratories where the scientists are fairly free to conduct their research and make their decisions. Similarly, in a university or a college, the chairperson of a division does not interfere in the professor's teaching method, but only assigns the courses to be taught. From then onwards, the professors area very much their own leaders.

Advantages

(a) It creates an environment of freedom, individuality as well as team spirit.

(b) It is highly creative with a free and informal work environment.

(c) This approach is very useful where people are highly motivated and achievement oriented.

Disadvantages

(a) It may result in disorganized activities which may lead to inefficiency and chaos.

(b) Insecurity and frustration may develop due to lack of specific decision making authority and guidance.

(c) The team spirit may suffer due to possible presence of some uncooperative members.

(d) Some members may put their own interests above the group and team interests.

10.5 PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERS

Leadership is an intangible quality and its effectiveness can best be judged by the behaviour and attitudes of followers. Even though, personal backgrounds and personalities differ widely, some of the factors such as education and socio-economic status are poor indicators of judgments of successful leaders. However, some behavioural characteristics may be common to most of the successful and effective leaders. Some of these characteristics are:

Ability to inspire others   This ability may be due to an internal "charisma" which is an inborn trait and may not be a learnable factor.

Problem solving skills   An effective leader has developed the patience and ability to look at the problem from various angles and get down to the cause of the problem and he tries to solve the problem from its roots rather than the symptoms of the problem.

Emotional maturity   Emotional stability and maturity is a major ingredient for effective leadership. It pertains to good adjustment to life, calm, cool and calculated reaction to undesirable situations and obstacles and normal acceptance of success as well as failure. Such leaders are self-confident, rational and are open hearted towards differences in opinions and opposing view points. They generally have a happy family life and have a balanced outlook towards life and the world. They are warm and sensitive and not vindictive in nature.

Ability to understand human behaviour   A leader must understand the needs, desires and behaviour of his subordinates and show respect for such desires. He is emotionally supportive and is careful enough to avoid ego threatening behaviour. He must give credit to subordinates when their efforts are successful.

Verbal assertiveness   A leader must be an effective orator and must be confident of his views and opinions. He must communicate his views honestly and in a straight forward manner without fear of consequences.

Willingness to take risks   Routine work, no matter how well-done, never makes a leader. Successful leaders always charter the unknown. They must accept and seek new challenges. However, the risks must be calculated ones and outcomes of actions be reasonably predicted. Should these risks result in failure, a leader must take full blame and responsibility and not shift blame on others, even though they may be operative factors. He must be willing to tolerate frustration and defeat and learn from these failures.

Dedication to organizational goals   A leader must demonstrate his dedication and commitment to the organization's mission, goals and objectives by hard work and self-sacrifice. He must make sure that his followers fully understand the organizational objectives and are equally dedicated and willing to work for these objectives.

Skill in the art of compromise   Setting differences is a valid part of leadership and genuine differences must be solved by compromise and consensus. This will induce faith in the fairness of the leader. He must be willing to give in where necessary and must be able to take criticism with grace. However, he must not compromise for the sake of compromising or just smooth sailing only and must be willing to take a stand on controversial issues and accept the consequences of his stand. [29]

10.6 SUMMARY

Leadership can be defined as the art of influencing and inspiring subordinates to perform their duties willingly, competently and enthusiastically in order to achieve the desired organizational goals. A dictatorship under which the subordinates have to perform, would not be considered as leadership. A true leader motivates the following to follow and induuces a belief that the followers will gain by the policies of the leader.

Generally speaking, leaders are known to possess energy, intelligence, self-confidence, patience, maturity and a charismatic appearance and attitude. Whether these characteristics are inherited or learned is still a subject of debate. Which ones of these characteristics are important and necessary for leadership is not explainable. Many of these traits are also exhibited by followers and it is not explained as to why followers could not become leaders.

Leaders are also judged by their behaviours as leaders irrespective of the characteristics. If a manager has high consideration for the welfare of his subordinates and his policies, procedures and work assignments are all acceptable to the subordinates then such manager would be considered as a good leader.

Contingency theories of leadership propose that leadership can also be a function of the situation, so that the effectiveness of the leader's behaviour is contingent upon the demands imposed by the given situation. This approach defines leadership in terms of the leader's ability to handle a given situation and is based upon his skill in that particular area. This means that a successful leader under one set of circumstances may be a failure under a different set of circumstances. For example, Winston Churchill was an effective leader of Britain during war time but failed to sustain such leadership during peace time.

It is also possible to become a leader, if you know what the followers want and you have the resources or the know-how to satisfy these needs and wants, irrespective of the traits of the leader himself. This approach is known as the path-goal theory. The leader sets up clear path and clear guidelines through which the subordinates can achieve both personal as well as work related goals and assists them in achieving these goals. The job of the leader becomes even easier when the subordinates are sufficiently mature, where the maturity of the subordinates can be defined as their ability and willingness to take responsibility for direction their own behaviour in relation to a given task.

There are three different types of leadership styles. There are autocratic leaders who make their own decisions and expect the subordinates to implement these decisions and accept no deviation from it. Then there are democratic type of leaders where the leaders ask the subordinates for input and feedback before making decisions and such input and feedback is taken into consideration very seriously. Finally there is laissez-faire style of leadership where the leader is simply the provider of information and resources and the subordinates are free to chart their own courses of actions and activities. The leader lets the subordinates develop their own techniques for accomplishing goals within the generalized organizational policies and objectives.

All leaders are expected to be able to inspire and motivate others. They should possess the skills of problem solving as well as skills of effective communication. They should be emotionally mature and should be able to understand human behaviour. They should be dedicated to the purpose of achieving organizational objectives and should be willing to take limited calculated risks when making decisions and during the decision implementation process.

10.7 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. Explain the following relationship in detail and emphasize the importance of each factor:

   L = F (f,g,w,s)

2. What are the various characteristics associated with effective leadership?

   Which of these characteristics are more important than others and why?

3. Explain in detail the Trait Theory of leadership. What are the various criticisms of this theory? Are these criticisms valid? If so, why?

4. How does the Behaviour Theory of leadership differ from the Trait Theory of leadership? Which theory is more applicable in a democratic society and why?

5. What do you understand by the Managerial grid? Is it possible to achieve the coordinates (9,9) on this grid? If so, is it really necessary?

6. Explain and compare the various contingency theories of leadership.

7. How does the maturity of the followers determine or impact upon the style of leadership?

8. Is Vroom-Yetton model considered as a contingency theory of leadership?

   Support your answer with examples and reasons.

9. Compare the three leadership styles. Under what situations would each style be effective? Give examples.

10. Explain in detail the personal characteristics of leaders. Are some of these characteristics inherited? If so, identify these characteristics and explain as to why you consider these characteristics as inherited.

10.8 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Traits of a good leader are:
   1. Energy, drive
   2. Appearance, presentability
   3. A sense of cooperativeness
   4. Enthusiasm
   5. Personality-height and weight
   6. Initiative
   7. Intelligence
   8. Judgement
   9. Self-confidence
   10. Sociability
   11. Tact and diplomacy
   12. Moral courage and integrity
   13. Will power and flexibility
   14. Emotional stability
   15. Knowledge of human relations

2. The Trait Theory rests on the traditional approach which describes leadership in terms of certain personal and special characteristics which are not acquired by knowledge and training but are considered inherited. This theory emphasizes that leaders are born and not made and that leadership is a function of inborn traits. Some of these inborn traits are considered to be intelligence, understanding, perception, high motivation, socio-economic status, initiative, maturity, need for self-actualization, self-assurance and understanding of interpersonal human relations. In the earlier studies, the existence of these traits became a measure of leadership. It holds that possession of thee traits permits certain individuals to gain position of leadership. Since all individuals do not have these qualities, only those who have them would be considered potential leaders.

3. (i) Autocratic leadership is useful when the subordinates are new on the job and have had no experience either in the managerial decision making process or performing without active supervision.

   (ii) It can increase efficiency and even morale when appropriate and get quicker results, specially in a crisis or emergency when the decision must be taken immediately.

(iii) The paternalistic leadership is useful when the subordinate are not interested in seeking responsibility or when they feel insecure at the job or when they work better under clear and detailed directives.

4. (i) The democratic leadership requires some favourable conditions in that the labour must be literate, informed and organized. This is not always possible.

(ii) This approach assumes that all workers are genuinely interested in the organization and that their individual goals are successfully fused with the organizational goals. This assumption may not always be valid.

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CASE STUDY

One of the most successful discount department stores in America is known as Wal-Mart stores and is named after its founder Sam Walton. Because of the phenomenal success of these stores, Sam Walton became one of the richest men in America. Also, because of his leadership, the stores have enjoyed continuous growth and expansion, so that by mid 1980s, the chain had over 700 stores and increasing at the rate of an additional 100 stores per year. Its sales increased annually by over 35% per year and the profits have soared close to 40% per year every year since 1975.

Sam Walton, until he did in 1992, took personal interest in his employees. His managerial philosophy was to get the right people in the right places and then give them the freedom to be innovative to accomplish their tasks. He called his employees as associated and treated them as associates. As per company policy, all associates are eligible for profit sharing are required and encouraged to meet with their employees in a social setting to discuss their concerns as well as issues of organizational interest, and this makes the employees feel that their input is taken seriously by the management.

Sam Walton himself led a simple life. He did not exhibit any aura about himself, giving the employees a feeling that he was one of them. He and his executives regularly travelled in company owned planes to visit Wal-Mart stores situated at various sites across the country. He met with sales clerks, stock boys and sales managers to find out what items were popular. He knew most of them by their first names and addressed them so. He initiated "employee of the month" in all categories and created honour roles for more successful stores. This created inner competition requiring extra effort to improve sales and service. This policy gained high respect for him as a leader.

The administration of the organization is very cost conscious. It only spends about 2% of sales for general administrative expenses. It shops for suppliers at bargain prices all around the world and has built giant warehouses around the country in such a manner so that most stores are within six hours of driving distance from a warehouse. This helps in better delivery system and reduced inventories at retail stores. Each store prepares a monthly financial report which can be studied line by to look for ways to reduce costs further. These cost savings are passed on to the customers and this in turn generates customer loyalty. Wal-Mart slogan of "Quality you need, prices you want" has become a generic organizational statement.

Wal-Mart with more than 2000 stores at present is faced with tough competition form a similar chain of discount stores known as K-Mart. However, Sam Walton did not worry about the competition because he felt that his people oriented philosophy of operations and cost cutting efforts without diluting the quality of the merchanidse would always meet the competition head-on.

Questions

1. What are the major reasons for the company's phenomenal success? Explain those reasons in detail

2. How would you describe Sam Walton as an effective leader? What leadership theory is consistent with his leadership style?

3. How important it is for a leader to mix with the employees? How does this leadership style of "being one of the boys" affect the motivation of the employees?

4. What factors, other than the leadership style contributed towards the survival and the growth of the organizational? Support your reasons.

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UNIT 11 INTER-GROUP RELATIONS AND CONFLICT

Structure

11.0 INTRODUCTION

An organization is a collection of individuals and groups. As the situations and requirements demand, the individuals form various groups. The success of the organization as a whole depends upon the harmonial relations among all interdependent groups, even though some inter-group conflict in organizations is inevitable. The idea is to study inter-group behaviours within an organisation so that any conflict can be recognized and dealt with by the management.

To understand how groups interact with each other, such variables that characterise and affect inter-group behaviour must be identified. The extent of group interaction would depend upon the extent of interdependence as well as the extent of differentiation among these groups.

11.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

- To study inter-group conflict within the organization and the variables that characterize such conflict
- To analyze interdependence of groups where one working group depends upon another working group for information and resources
- To enumerate the types of group interdependence
- To comprehend the nature of conflicts in organizations
- To know the various types of conflict situations
- To investigate the causes of conflicts

- To analyze managing conflict for the benefit of the organization
- To analyze stimulating conflict for the benefit of the organization
- To study the importance of interpersonal trust building
- To learn the art of negotiation

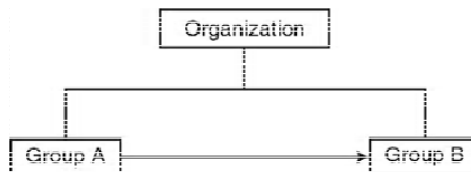## 11.2 INTERDEPENDENCE OF GROUPS

Interdependence, according to McCann and Galbraith,[1] "implies that there is something of interest between parts. For instance, a department depends upon other departments for resources, work or information and the other departments depend upon that department for resources, work or information. One's understanding of that department is enriched from the knowledge of its interactions with other departments".

Group interdependence takes the following primary forms:

Pooled Interdependence It is the basic form of interdependence where the various groups within an organization do not depend upon each other but make separate contributions to the total organization and the organizational goal achievement, and the organization supports each such group. For example, while the business division and the music department in a university may not interact with each other on a regular basis, they both contribute towards the larger goals of the university, both use university resources and the university supports both departments. If any of the groups performs poorly, other groups are indirectly affected and the whole organization is adversely affected. As shown below, group A and group B do not need or interact with each other.
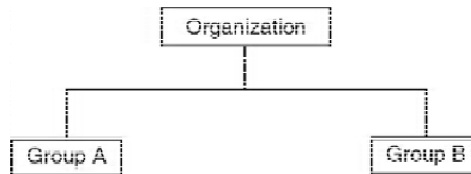
Sequential Interdependence Sequential interdependence exists when the output of one group becomes the input of the other so that one group must act before the other can. For example, shipping department cannot ship products until manufacturing department produces them. This interdependence is only in one direction. The shipping department depends upon the manufacturing department but not the other way around. Similarly, in an assembly line operation, the workers further up depend up on the completed work of workers before them. Thus direction interaction between these groups is essential and if this sequential process is not well-coordinated, considerable disruption can occur. This sequential process is shown in the following figure.

Reciprocal Interdependence   Reciprocal interdependence involves a two way interaction in inter-group relationships. The output of one group is the input of the other and vice versa. For example, without product engineering, the marketing group would have nothing to sell. Thus the product becomes an input for the marketing people. On the other hand, the product engineering people depend upon the consumer information and feedback provided by marketing department for product improvement or product need.
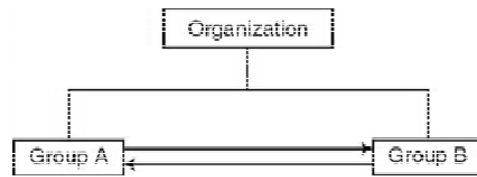
In all these situations, the degree of interaction depends upon the degree of interdependence among these groups. In general, high interdependence requires high interaction. Thus interaction is the highest in the reciprocal type of interdependece.

Team Interdependence This type of interdependence is really an extension of reciprocal interdependence and involves more than two groups.[2] For example, in the early stages of a new product development, there may be people involved from strategic planning, product engineering, research and development and marketing research. All these groups interact with each other and give feedback to each other. In this type of group interdependence, there is a high degree of interaction so that the potential for conflict and disruption also becomes high. The following diagram exhibits team interdependence.
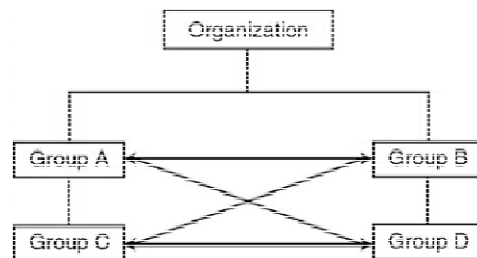
Differentiation of Groups

Intergroup relations and interaction depends not only upon how much the groups depend upon each other but also how much they differ from each other. The greater the group differentiation, the greater the potential for conflict. Some of the factors that reflect group differentiation are:

Goals Goals of groups can have a powerful influence on their behaviours and outputs and each group tends to adopt its own goals that may or may not be compatible with the goals of the other groups within the organization. If the goals of various groups are not compatible with each other and goal achievement of one group is perceived as negatively affecting the goal attainment of other groups, then the goal conflict occurs and it affects the group interaction. For example, the research group of a life insurance organization may want to initiate a major consumer survey project, while the accounting department wants to save money even if it means eliminating basic research. These differing goals can make it very hard for groups to work together, even though they are supposed to and it causes strain on intergroup interaction.

Attitudinal orientation People in groups generally develop their own group norms and look at people in other groups from the point of view of their own values and attitudes and these may differ from one group to another. Thus if intergroup dynamics involves distrust, competitiveness and closed communication, this would create conflict between the groups. For example, one group may believe in commitment and other may believe in simply a satisfactory performance and if these groups depend upon each other, then the first group will consider the other group lazy and this group will consider the first group rude and selfish. Once these impressions are formed, these groups will find it difficult to work together.

11.3 NATURE OF CONFLICT IN ORGANIZATIONS

The concept of conflict, being an outcome of behaviours, is an integral part of human life. Wherever there is interaction, there is conflict. Conflict can be defined in many ways and can be considered as an expression of hostility, negative attitudes, antagonism, aggression, rivalry and misunderstanding. It is also associated with situations that involve contradictory or irreconcilable interests between two opposing groups. It can be defined as a disagreement between two or more individuals or groups, with each individual or group trying to gain acceptance of its view or objectives over others.[3]

Conflict must be distinguished from competition, even though sometimes intense competition leads to conflict. Competition is directed towards obtaining a goal and one group does not interfere with the efforts of another group while conflict is directed against another group and actions are taken to frustrate the other group's actions towards goal achievement.

11.4 CHANGING VIEW OF CONFLICT

The earlier traditional view of conflict considered it harmful, destructive and unnecessary. This view was consistent with the attitudes that prevailed about group behaviour and interaction during 1930s and 1940s. The existence of conflict was regarded as a sign that something had gone wrong and it needed to be corrected. The view held that conflict is to be avoided at all costs. Both the scientific management approach and the administrative school of management relied heavily on developing such organizational structures that would specify tasks, rules, regulations, procedures and authority relationships so that if a conflict develops then these built-in rules and regulations would identify and correct problems of such conflict. It was believed that the existence of conflict reflected poor management and the deliberate efforts of trouble makers. Thus through proper management techniques and attention to the causes of conflict, it could be eliminated and organizational performance improved. The Human Relations school subscribed to a similar theory that conflict is avoidable by creating an environment of goodwill and trust. Since organizational conflict involves disagreements on such factors as allocation of resources, nature of goals and objectives, organizational policies and procedures, nature of assignments and distribution of rewards, this conflict at its worst can lead to unnecessary stress, blockage in communication, lack of cooperation, increased sense of distrust and suspicion and this results in reduced organizational effectiveness. Accordingly, management has always been concerned with avoiding conflict if possible and resolving it soon if it occurs.

In recent years however, management scholars have shifted their view of conflict. This view is known as behavioural view and it proposes that because people differ in their attitudes, values and goals, conflict is but a natural outcome in any group of people and that it can be helpful and constructive if it is handled properly. The more modern view of conflict holds that conflict may in fact, under certain situations, be necessary for performance effectiveness, because harmonious, peaceful and cooperative groups can become static and such level of conflict that keeps the group alive, self critical and creative is desirable and management is usually encouraged to maintain such level of conflict. This is specially true in such organizations as Research and Development, advertising agencies, public policy groups and so on.[4] Some of the positive consequences of conflict are:

- *It helps in analytical thinking*. Conflict may induce challenge to such views, opinions, rules, policies, goals and plans that would require a critical analysis in order to justify these as they are or make such changes that may be required, As H.M. Carlisle[5] puts it,

"no situation is more detrimental to an organization than letting poor decisions go unchallenged."

- *It helps in increased cohesion.* Conflict between different organizations develops loyalty and cohesion within an organization and it develops a greater sense of group identity in order to compete with outsiders. It fosters in dedication and commitment to organizational and group goals.

- *Conflict promotes competition and hence it results in increased efforts.* Some individuals are highly motivated by conflict and severe competition. For example, a professor who is turned down for a promotion due to conflict within the division may work harder to prove that he is more capable and deserves a promotion. Similarly, if a group of production workers during the day shift finds out that the similar group at night shift produced more, it would result in the improved performance for the day shift also. Thus such conflict and competition leads to high level of effort and output.

- *It serves as a foundation for organizational development.* Conflict with the status quo is a pre-requisite to change. Creative and innovative people are always looking for grounds to challenge the status quo. These challenges lead to search for alternatives to existing patterns that leads to organizational change and development.

- *Conflict when expressed can clear the air and reduce tension.* Some disagreements if unexpressed, can lead to imaginative distortions of truth, sense of frustration and tension, high mental exaggerations and biased opinions resulting in fear and distrust. However, when it is expressed, it may show the cause of conflict to be a minor one resulting in cooperation and compromise.

11.5 TYPES OF CONFLICT SITUATIONS

Since conflict has both positive and negative connotations and consequences, it must be looked into and managed for useful purposes. The management must survey the situation to decide whether to stimulate conflict or to resolve it. Thomas and Schmidt[6] have reported that managers spend up to twenty per cent of their time in dealing with conflict situations. Hence, it is very important that managers understand the type of conflict that they have to deal with so that they can devise some standardised techniques in dealing with common characteristics of conflicts in each type of category. There are five basic types of conflicts. These are:

Conflict within the individual The conflict within the individual is usually value related, where the role playing expected of the individual does not conform with the values and beliefs held by the individual. For example, a secretary may have to lie on instructions that her boss is not in the office to avoid an unwanted visitor or an unwanted telephone call. This may cause a conflict within the mind of the secretary who may have developed an ethic of telling the truth. Similarly, many Indians who are vegetarians and visit America and find it very hard to remain vegetarians, may question the necessity of the vegetarian philosophy, thus causing a conflict in their minds.

In addition to these value conflicts, a person may have a role conflict. For example, a telephone operator may be advised and required to be polite to the customers by her supervisor who may also complain that she is spending too much time with her customers. This would cause a role conflict in her mind. Similarly, a policeman may be invited to his brother's wedding where he may find that some guests are using drugs which is against the law. It may cause conflict in his mind as to which role he should play–of a brother or of a policeman. Conflict within an individual can also arise when a person has to choose between two equally desirable alternatives or between two equally undesirable goals.[7]

Interpersonal conflict Interpersonal conflict involves conflict between two or more individuals and is probably the most common and most recognised conflict. This may

involve conflict between two managers who are competing for limited capital and manpower resources. For example, interpersonal conflicts can develop when there are three equally deserving professors and they are all up for promotion, but only one of them can be promoted because of budget and positional constraints. This conflict can become further acute when the scarce resources cannot be shared and must be obtained.

Another type of interpersonal conflict can relate to disagreements over goals and objectives of the organization. For example, some members of a board of a school may want to offer courses in sex education while others may find this proposal morally offensive thus causing conflict. Similarly, a college or a university may have a policy of quality education so that only top quality students are admitted while some members of the organizational board may propose "open admissions" policy where all high schools graduates should be considered for admission. Such a situation can cause conflict among members of the governing board. In addition to conflicts over the nature and substance of goals and objectives, they can also arise over the means to reach these goals. For example, two marketing managers may argue as to which promotional methods would result in higher sales. These conflicts become highlighted when they are based upon opinions rather than facts. Facts are generally indisputable resulting in agreements. Opinions are highly personal and subjective and may provide for criticism and disagreements.

These conflicts are often the results of personality clashes. People with widely differing characteristics and attitudes are bound to have views and aims that are inconsistent with the views and aims of others.

Conflict between the individual and the group As we have discussed before, all formal groups as well as informal groups have established certain norms of behaviour and operational standards that all members are expected to adhere to. The individual may want to remain within the group for social needs but may disagree with the group methods. For example, in some restaurants, all tips are shared by all the waiters and waitresses. Some particular waitress who may be overly polite and efficient may feel that she deserves more, thus causing a conflict within the group. Similarly, if a group is going on strike for some reason, some members may not agree with these reasons or simply may not be able to afford to go on strike, thus causing conflict with the group.

This conflict may also be between the manager and a group of subordinates or between the leader and the followers. A manager may take a disciplinary action against a member of the group, causing conflict that may result in reduced productivity. "Mutiny on the Bounty" is a classic example of rebellion of the crew of the ship against the leader, based upon the treatment the crew received. The conflict among the armed forces is taken so seriously that the army must obey their commander even if the command is wrong and in conflict with what others believe in.

Intergroup conflict An organization is an interlocking network of groups, departments, sections and work teams. These conflicts are not so much personal in nature, as they are due to factors inherent in the organizational structure. For example, there is active and continuous conflict between the union and the management. One of the most common, unfortunate and highlighted conflict is between line and staff. The line managers may resent their dependence on staff for information and recommendations. The staff may resent their inability to directly implement their own decisions and recommendations. This interdependence causes conflict. These conflicts that are caused by task interdependencies require that the relationship between interdependent units be redefined, wherever the values of these interdependent factors change, otherwise these conflicts will become further pronounced.

These inter-unit conflicts can also be caused by inconsistent rewards and differing performance criteria for different units and groups. For example, salesmen who depend

upon their commission as a reward for their efforts may promise their customers certain quantity of the product and delivery times that the manufacturing department may find it impossible to meet, causing conflict between the two units.

Different functional groups within the organization may come into conflict with each other because of their different specific objectives. There are some fundamental differences among different units of the organization both in the structure and the process and thus each unit develops its own organizational sub-culture. These sub-cultures, according to Lawrence and Lorsch[8] differ in terms of: (a) goal orientation that can be highly specific for production but highly fluid for Research and Development, (b) time orientation that is short run for sales and long run for research, (c) formality of structure that is highly informal in research and highly formal in production and (d) supervisory style that may be more democratic in one area as compared to another.

A classic example of inter-unit conflict is between sales and production, as discussed earlier. The sales department is typically customer-oriented and wants to maintain high inventories for filling orders as they are received, which is a costly option as against the production department that is strongly concerned about cost effectiveness requiring as little inventory of finished product at hand as possible.

Similarly, inter-group conflict may arise between day shift workers and night shift workers who might blame each other for anything that goes wrong from missing tools to maintenance problems.

Inter-organizational conflict Conflict also occurs between organizations that in some way are dependent on each other. This conflict may be between buyer organizations and the supplier organizations about quantity, quality and delivery times of raw materials and other policy issues, between unions and organizations employing their members, between government agencies that regulate certain organizations and the organizations that are affected by them. These conflicts must be adequately resolved or managed properly for the benefit of both types of organizations.

11.6 THE CAUSES OF CONFLICT

The various types of conflict as discussed above have already been pointed out in the previous discussion. Basically, the causes of conflict fall into three distinct categories. Accordingly, these causes can be restructured and placed into one of these categories.[9] These categories deal with communicational, behavioural and structural aspects.

Communicational Aspects of Conflict

Poor communication, though not reflecting substantive differences, can have powerful effect in causing conflict. Misunderstood or partial information during the process of communication can make a difference between the success and the failure of a task and such failure for which the responsibility becomes difficult to trace can cause conflict between the sender of the communication and the receiver of the communication. Thus the problems in the communication process – whether these problems relate to too much or too little communication, filtering of communication, semantic problems or noise–act to retard collaboration and stimulate misunderstanding. The filtering process occurs when information is passed through many levels or when it passes through many members. The amount of information is functional up to a point, beyond which it become a source of conflict. Semantic difficulties arise due to differences in backgrounds, differences in training, selective perception and inadequate information about others.

As an example, if a manager going on an extended vacation fails to communicate properly with his subordinates as to who would be doing what, he will find these jobs

only partially done with subordinates blaming each other for not completing the tasks. Accordingly, adequate, complete, and correctly understood communication is very important in orderly completion of tasks, thus reducing the chances of a conflict.

Behavioural Aspects of Conflict

These conflicts arise out of human thoughts and feelings, emotions and attitudes, values and perceptions and reflect some basic traits of a personality. Thus some people's values or perceptions of situations are particularly likely to generate conflict with others. For example, highly authoritarian and dogmatic persons are more prone to antagonise co-workers by highlighting minor differences that might exist and may overreact causing a conflict. This conflict may also be based on personal biases regarding such factors as religion, race or sex. Some men feel poorly about women workers. These conflicts are not about issues but about persons. Some families carry on enmity for generations.

The conflict can also arise due to differing viewpoints about various issues. For example, two vice-presidents may differ in their viewpoints regarding which strategic plan to implement. The value based conflicts arise due to different values that may be culturally based. For instance, one vice-president may want to retire some workers to save costs while another vice-president may have human sensitivity and support other methods of cutting costs. As another example, a professor may value freedom of teaching methods and a close supervision of his teaching technique is likely to induce conflict.

From an organizational behaviour point of view, there is conflict between the goals of the formal organization and the psychological growth of the individual. While the formal organization demands dependency, passivity and to some degree obedience from its members, the psychologically developed individuals exhibit independence, creativity and a desire to participate in decision making and decision implementing process. The needs of individuals and the formal organization being inconsistent with each other, result in behavioural conflict.

Structural Aspects of Conflict

These conflicts arise due to issues related to the structural design of the organization as a whole as well as its sub-units. Some of the structurally related factors are:

Size of the organization   The larger the size of the organization, the more the basis for existence of conflict. It is likely that as the organization becomes larger, there is greater impersonal formality, less goals clarity, more supervisory levels and supervision and greater chance of information being diluted or distorted as it is passed along. All these factors are breeding grounds for conflict.

Line-staff distinction   One of the frequently mentioned and continuous source of conflict is the distinction between the line and staff units within the organization. Line units are involved in operations that are directly related to the core activities of the organization. For example, production department would be a line unit in a manufacturing organization and sales department would be considered line unit in a customer oriented service organization. Staff units are generally in an advisory capacity and support the line function. Examples of staff departments are legal department, public relations, personnel and research and development.

Some of the sources of conflict between line and staff are:

- Since the staff generally advises and the line decides and acts, the staff often feels powerless.
- Staff employees may simply be resented because of their specialized knowledge and expertise.

- Occasionally, staff employees are impatient with the conservative and slow manner in which the line managers put the staff ideas to work. Also line managers may resist an idea because they did not think of it in the first place, which hurts their ego.

- Staff has generally easier access to top management which is resented by the line management.

- Staff is generally younger and more educated and did not go through the run of the mill and hence their ideas may be considered more theoretical and academic rather than practical.

- There is conflict about the degree of importance between the line and staff as far as the contribution towards the growth of the company is concerned.

- The line usually complains that if things go right then the staff takes the credit and if things go wrong, then the line gets the blame for it.

- Generally the staff people typically think in terms of long-range issues while line people are more involved with short-term or day-to day concerns. These differing time horizons can become a source of conflict.

Participation It is assumed that if the subordinates are not allowed to participate in the decision making process then they will show resentment that will induce conflict. On the other hand ironically, if subordinates are provided with greater participation opportunities, the levels of conflict also tend to be higher. This may be due to the fact that increased participation leads to greater awareness of individual differences. This conflict is further enhanced when individuals tend to enforce their points of view on others.

Role ambiguity A role reflects a set of activities associated with a certain position in the organization. If these work activities are ill defined, then the person who is carrying out these activities will not perform as others expect him to, because his role is not clearly defined. This will create conflict, specially between this individual and those people who depend upon his activities. A hospital or a medical clinic employing a number of physicians with overlapping specialties might cause conflict due to role ambiguity. Such conflict can be reduced by redefining and clarifying roles and their interdependencies.

Design of work-flow These are primarily inter-group problems and conflicts that are outcomes of poorly designed work-flow structure and poorly planned coordination requirements, specially where tasks are interdependent. According to Sashkin and Morris[12] "organizations are made up of many different groups that must work together towards the accomplishment of common objectives." For example, in a hospital, the doctors and nurses must work together and their tasks are highly interdependent. If they do not coordinate their activities well, then there will be confusion and conflict. Similarly, in a restaurant, the cook and the waiter depend upon each other for critical information and uncoordinated activities between the cook and the waiter would create conflicts and problems.

Scarcity of resources When individuals and units must share such resources as capital, facilities, staff assistance and so on, and these resources are scarce and there is high competition for them then conflict can become quite intence. This is specially true in declining organizations, where resources become even more scarce due to cutback in personnel and services so that the concerned units become highly competitive for the shrinking pool thus creating hostility among groups who may have put up a peaceful front at the time of abundance. For example, two research scientists who do not get along very well, may not show their hostility until a reduction in laboratory space provokes each to protect his area.

11.7 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Except in very few situations where the conflict can lead to competition and creativity so that in such situations the conflict can be encouraged, in all other cases where conflict is destructive in nature, it should be resolved as soon has it has developed and all efforts should be made to prevent it from developing.

Preventing Conflict

Some of the preventive measures that the management can take, according to Schein[13] are:

Goal structure   Goals should be clearly defined and the role and contribution of each unit towards the organizational goal must be clearly identified. All units and the individuals in these units must be aware of the importance of their role and such importance must be fully recognised.

Rewards system   The compensation system should be such that it does not create individual competition or conflict within the unit. It should be appropriate and proportionate to the group efforts and reflect the degree of interdependence among units where necessary.

Trust and communication   The greater the trust among the members of the unit, the more honest and open the communication among them would be. Individuals and units should be encouraged to communicate openly with each other so that they can all understand each other, understand each other's problems and help each other when necessary.

Coordination   Coordination is the next step to communication. Properly coordinated activities reduce conflict. Wherever there are problems in coordination, a special liaison office should be established to assist such coordination.

Resolving Behavioural Conflict

Various researchers have indentified five primary strategies for dealing with and reducing the impact of behavioural conflict. Even though different authors have given different terminology to describe these strategies, the basic content and approach of these strategies remain the same.[14] These are:

Ignoring the conflict   In certain situations, it may be advisable to take a passive role and avoid it all together. From the manager's point of view, it may be specially necessary when getting involved in a situation would provoke further controversy or when conflict is so trivial in nature that it would not be worth the manager's time to get involved and try to solve it. It could also be that the conflict is so fundamental to the position of the parties involved that it may be best either to leave it to them to solve it or to let events take their own course. The parties involved in the conflict may themselves prefer to avoid conflict, specially if they are emotionally upset by the tension it causes. Thus people may try to get away from conflict causing situations.

Smoothing   Smoothing simply means covering up the conflict by appealing for the need for unity rather than addressing the issue of conflict itself. An individual with internal conflict may try to "count his blessings" and forget about the conflict. If two parties have a conflict within the organization, the supervisor may try to calm things down by being understanding and supportive to both parties and appealing to them for cooperation. The supervisor does not ignore or withdraw from the conflict nor does he try to address and solve the conflict but expresses hope that "everything will work out for the best of all." Since the problem is never addressed, the emotions may build up further and suddenly explode. Thus smoothing provides only a temporary solution and conflict may resurface again in the course of time. Smoothing is a more sensitive

approach than avoiding in that as long as the parties agree that not showing conflict has more benefits than showing conflict, then such conflict can be avoided.

Compromising   A compromise in the conflict is reached by balancing the demands of the conflicting parties and bargaining in a 'give and take' position to reach a solution. Each party gives up something and also gains something. The technique of conflict resolution is very common in negotiations between the labour unions and management. It has become customary for the union to ask for more than what they are willing to accept and for management to offer less than what they are willing to give in the initial stages. Then through the process of negotiating and bargaining, mostly in the presence of arbitrators, they reach a solution by compromising. This type of compromise is known as integrative bargaining in which both sides win in a way.

Compromising is a useful technique, particularly when two parties have relatively equal power, thus no party can force its viewpoint on the other and the only solution is to compromise. It is also useful when there are time constraints. If the problems are complex and many faceted, and the time is limited to solve them, it might be in the interest of conflicting parties to reach a compromise.

Forcing   As Webber[15] puts it, "the simplest conceivable resolution is the elimination of the other party–to force opponents to flee and give up the fight–or slay them." This is a technique of domination where the dominator has the power and authority to enforce his own views over the opposing conflicting party. This technique is potentially effective in situations such as a president of a company firing a manager because he is considered to be a trouble-maker and conflict creator. This technique always ends up in one party being a loser and the other party being a clear winner. Many professors in colleges and universities have lost promotions and tenured reappointments because they could not get along well with their respective chairpersons of the departments and had conflicts with them. This approach causes resentment and hostility and can backfire. Accordingly, management must look for better alternatives, if these become available.

Problem solving   This technique involves "confronting the conflict" in order to seek the best solution to the problem. This approach objectively assumes that in all organizations, no matter how well they are managed, there will be difference of opinions that must be resolved through discussions and respect for differing viewpoints. In general, this technique is very useful in resolving conflicts arising out of semantic misunderstandings. It is not so effective in resolving non-communicative types of conflicts such as those that are based on differing value systems, where it may even intensify differences and disagreements. In the long run, however, it is better to solve conflicts and take such preventive measures that would reduce the likelihood of such conflicts surfacing again.

Resolving Structural Based Conflicts

The structural based conflicts are built around organizational environments and can be resolved or prevented by redesigning organizational structure and work-flow. A general strategy would be to move towards as much decentralization as possible so that most of the disputes can be settled at the lower levels in the organization, and faster too.

Since interdependency is one of the major causes of conflict, it is necessary to identify and clarify poorly defined and poorly arranged interdependencies or to make these adequately understood and reliable. This can be achieved through unifying the work-flow. This work-flow can be designed either to increase the interdependencies or to eliminate them entirely. Increased interdependencies can be achieved through more frequent contacts and improved coordinating mechanisms. This would make the two interdependent units act as a single unit thus eliminating the cause of conflict. The other extreme could be to make the two units totally independent of one another. For example, in the case of units building an automobile engine, instead of an assembly line operation

in which each person or unit is involved in sequential assembly so that each unit depends upon the work of the previous units, each major unit can work on the entire engine at the same time.

However these extremes are not in common practice. More often, the strategy would be to reduce the interdependence between individuals or groups. A common approach to do that is by "buffering". Buffering requires that sufficient inventories be kept on hand between interrelated units so that they always have the materials to work with thus reducing their interdependency. Another cause of conflict, is the undefined, unclear and ambiguous job expectation. It is important to clarify what each individual and each subunit is expected to accomplish. This would include authority-responsibility relationship and a clear line of hierarchy. In addition, policies, procedures and rules should be clearly established and all communication channels must be kept open so that each person knows exactly what role he has to play in the hierarchical structure. This would avoid situations in which none of the two units does the job because each thought the other was supposed to do or both units do the same job thus duplicating efforts due to misunderstanding. Thus, if each subordinate is fully aware of his responsibility, then such problems would not occur.

How to solve conflict arising due to competition for scarce resources? Conflicts will occur whenever the wants and needs of two or more parties are greater than the sum of the firm's resources available for allocation. These resources may be in the form of a pay raise, promotion, office space, office equipment and so on. This conflict can be reduced by planning ahead about the proper distribution of such resources, instead of making haphazard and last minute allocations.

The conflict between different departments may be managed by establishing liaison. Liaison officers are those who are neutral in their outlook and are sympathetic to both parties and kind of "speak the language" of both groups. They do not have a vested interest in any of these groups. According to studies conducted by Sykes and Bates,[16] it was shown that in one company where there was evident conflict between sales and manufacturing, which are interdependent units, the problem was solved by establishing a demand analysis and sales order liaison office. The liaison group handled all communication for sales and resolved issues such as sales requirements, production capacity, pricing and delivery schedules.

Since one of the major causes of conflict is lack of proper knowledge and facts about how other people think and act, it may be a good idea to let the individuals work with different groups so that they know each other better and understand each other better. Care should be taken however that these individuals are technically capable of fitting in these various groups. This mutual understanding will result in trust and respect thus reducing the likelihood of conflict. This understanding can also be achieved by serving as members of the various committees. As individuals from various work units get to know each other better through the membership in the same committee, it leads to increased tolerance and understanding of different viewpoints as well as a realization that basically all units are pursuing similar objectives and same overall goal.

Stimulating Conflict

It has been pointed out earlier that under certain circumstances, conflict is necessary and desirable in order to create changes and challenges within the organization. In such situations the management would adopt a policy of conflict stimulation so that it encourages involvement and innovation. How does the manager recognise a situation that is vulnerable to conflict stimulation? Some of the factors for creating conflict are: too much satisfaction with the status quo, low rate of employee turnover, shortage of new ideas, strong resistance to change, friendly relations taking precedence over organizational goals and excessive efforts at avoiding conflict. Some of the ways of stimulating conflict as suggested by S.P. Robbins[17] are:

Appoint managers who support change   Some highly authoritative managers are very conservative in their outlook and tend to suppress opposing viewpoints. Accordingly, change-oriented managers should be selected and placed in such positions that encourage innovation and change from the status quo.

Encourage competition   Competition, if managed properly can enhance conflict which would be beneficial to the organization. Such competition can be created by tying incentives to performance, recognition of efforts, bonuses for higher performance and status enhancement. Such competition and conflict would result in new ideas regarding improving productivity.

Manipulate scarcity   Let the various individuals and groups compete for scarce resources. This would cause conflict and make the individuals and groups do their best in order to fully utilise such resources. For example, one company president felt that the budget allocations to various departments did not reflect changing priorities and accordingly, a zero-based budget system was introduced so that each department had to justify its current budget regardless of the past allocations. This created fierce competition and conflict and resulted in changes in funds allocation that were beneficial to the organization.

Play on status differences   Sometimes, ignoring the senior staff members and giving visible responsibilities to junior members makes the senior staff work harder to prove that they are better than the junior staff members. In one business school, the dean appointed a low-status assistant professor incharge of the curriculum. The senior professors resented having to answer to the junior professor. This caused conflict and in order to assert their superiority, the full professors initiated a series of changes that revitalised the entire MBA programme.

Interpersonal Trust Building

While there are a number of behavioural as well as organizational factors, as discussed before, that contribute to the existence of conflict, there may be just one single factor that may be highly contributory to reducing that conflict. This factor is " trust". Trust is, highly intangible element but very important in our civilized living. Its presence or absence can govern our inter-personal behaviour to large extent. Our ability to trust has a great impact on our working lives, our family interactions and our achievement of personal and organizational goals.

Since trust is a function of behaviour, such behaviours that lead to defensiveness must be identified and modified. These defensive or aggressive behaviours creat a climate that is conducive to mistrust thus leading to conflict in interpersonal areas. Jack Gibb[18] has identified certain behaviours that he calls "aggressive" behaviours that should be avoided and certain behaviours which he calls "supportive" behaviours that tend to reduce defensiveness and conflict and should be promoted.

Dr. John K. Stout of the university of Scranton, writing in "Supervisory Management" (February 1984), suggests that these behaviours are not necessarily mutually exclusive, nor should all the aggressive behaviours be avoided under all circumstances, but in general the supportive behaviour attitudes should be adopted as much as possible. These behaviours are briefly described as follows:

Aggressive versus Supportive Behaviour

Evaluative versus descriptive behaviour   Performance evaluations based upon emotional judgement and tainted by prejudice and residual anger from any previous encounters destroy trust. Making evaluations always brings in subjective opinions and subjective opinions relate to personal relationship rather than operations and facts. Descriptive attitude on the other hand simply describes factual elements that are visible, observable and verifiable, without reading behind the obvious or making judgements

about motives and using the correct words to describe these activities builds up a feeling of fairness, equity and trust and this in turn reduces conflict.

Controlling versus problem-oriented behaviour Controlling attitude is highly authoritative and makes the subordinates feel like machines rather than human beings. The contribution of subordinates is limited to what the controller allows and thus stifles creativity, leading to resentment and conflict.

Problem-oriented bahaviour, on the contrary looks for solutions in which all can participate. This will result in new answers and unique opportunities and this approach implies mutuality that builds dedication and commitment.

Using a strategy versus spontaneous behaviour A strategy is a carefully structured set of directions that gives the management a tool for maneuverability so that it can manipulate and gear others towards a predetermined objective and this may be resented by subordinates since they fear loss of autonomy.

Spontaneous interactions on the other hand are open, free flowing and result in open and honest communications in exploring each other's needs and viewpoints, exchanging information and ideas and developing a work environment of mutual trust and caring.

Neutral versus empathetic behaviours Neutral behaviour, though advisable in many situations, is considered as one of indifference and non-caring. All of us need friendship, respect and affections so we always want others to be on our side. Accordingly, the attitude of neutrality seems so impersonal that it is detrimental to the feelings of trust.

Empathy by contrast is the natural desire to get involved with other people, to share their feelings and emotions, to be interested in their needs and problems, to care and to understand them and their beliefs and attitudes and to be sincere and friendly. In this "me too" environment, a friendly relationship is always welcome.

Superiority versus equality behaviour Feelings of superiority based upon rank, prestige, power and authority are highly threatening to others and if this power is openly exhibited in talk and actions, it creates not only envy but also resentment. For example, the presence of a policeman at your door creates an initial fear because of the power and authority assigned to the police force.

Exhibiting equality, on the contrary, enhances interpersonal trust. We always feel more comfortable in the company of our own age group. A sense of equality reduces the complex of inferiority or complex of superiority, both of which are detrimental to the environment of trust.

Dogmatic versus open-minded behaviour A dogmatic person is one who is set in his own ways and is highly opinionated and does not leave any ground for cultivating genuine interaction with others because genuine interaction is based upon "give and take" attitude that a highly dogmatic person does not possess. As a result, the relationships remain superficial and trust is shallow, if any.

The open-minded individual, on the other hand, is adventurous, takes risks and is willing to experiment with new ideas and thoughts. In most bargaining and negotiating sessions, we are always advised to "keep our minds open", so that we are receptive to any idea for discussion and adaptation. An open-minded person is like an "open book" and is highly predictable resulting in respect and trust.

These types of supportive behaviours on the part of management prevent conflict to a large degree and help in resolving conflict if it develops, in a mutually beneficial way. This is a win-win situation in which all parties come out as winners. In order to achieve this situation, the management can initiate a number of steps. First, the management must create a social environment in the work situation that is conducive to mutual problem solving. This is fundamental to creating trust among people and specially trust among workers for the management. This would involve open channels of

communication, respect for each other's views and an open minded attitude on the part of management. Second, all efforts should be made to make the parties concerned sensitive to each other's attitudes, values and needs. This, according to Nichols and Steven,[19] can be achieved through "reflective listening" in which the listener is made to repeat what the speaker has said in order to make sure that he has fully understood the speaker's message before speaking himself. This creates a clear understanding of one's opinions and beliefs and this type of clear and properly understood communication leads to respect and trust. Thirdly, the problem causing the conflict can be redefined or revised in such a manner that it becomes a common problem for both parties rather than making it a "win-lose" situation where one party wins and the other loses. For example, the problem between sales and production can be redefined as a problem of how to best serve the customer, to which both parties have a concern for, making it a problem to be mutually solved. Finally, only such solutions should be accepted that are acceptable to all concerned parties. This is considered to be the best way to "manage" conflict.

11.8 TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

A transaction is defined as a business deal or an agreement in which some type of give and take takes place. In organizational terms, transactional analysis defines an understanding of interpersonal relationships between two persons. Every piece of communication or conversation is treated as a transaction. For example, when A communicates with B, that is a transaction. Similarly when B responds to A, that is another transaction. Transactional analysis is a technique used to examine the nature of inter-personal communication and relationship between two individuals and analyze whether or not the inter-personal communication has been effective and successful.

Transactional analysis is defined by Webster's New Dictionary as, "a form of popular psychotherapy conducted on the premise that there are three states of the ego (parent, adult, child) in each individual, which must be brought into balance". The parent ego state is authoritarian, the adult ego state is rational and child ego state is impulsive. The analysis of inter-communication will be based upon the ego state of the individual involved in such inter-communication. Such communication is more effective when the ego states of individuals involved in the communication match rather than conflict with each other.

The term "transactional analysis" was first developed and used by Eric Berne for psychotherapy in the 1950s. He observed in his patients that very often, a patient would behave differently as if there were many persons in each person in terms of behavioural characteristics. He also observed that these various personalities within a person communicated with other people in different ways. Although there are many theories trying to explain human behaviour, perhaps the best known is the one developed by Sigmund Freud. Freud emerged in the early 20th century with his belief that personality had three components, all of which must work together to produce behaviours. These three components were *Id*, *ego* and *Superego*. He believed that these three components needed to be well balanced to produce reasonable mental health and stability. According to Freud, the Id functions in the irrational and emotional part of the mind, the ego functions in the rational part of the mind and Superego can be considered as the moral part of the mind which keeps the Id and Ego in check.

The primary basis for transactional analysis is the assumption that each one of us operates from three ego states, namely, the parent state, the adult state and the child state. If the sender of the communication is not compatible with the receiver of the communication in terms of their ego states, then incompatible messages can result. Transactional analysis primarily focusses on analyzing the nature of such verbal communication between two persons.

Transactional analysis (TA) is many faceted. It is a study of many types of transactions that take place between people, and offers a model of personality and the dynamics of self and its relationship with others. It postulates relationships within the mind and proposes relationships of various kinds between individuals. Some TA scholars and practitioners have grouped the various facets of TA into five clusters. The five clusters are as follows: Ego states, self awareness, script analyses, stroking and game analysis.

Ego States

As mentioned earlier, the three ego states are that of a parent, an adult and a child. These ego states are a person's way of thinking, feeling and behaving at any time. These states are not related in any way with the chronological age of the person but to the behavioural aspects of the person at any age. These ego states are not static in nature but a person can move from one ego state to another. These ego states are a person's way of thinking, feeling and behaving at any given time.

Parent ego. Parent ego comes into play when a person behaves like a parent with fatherly or motherly characteristics. Such behaviour is primarily learned in the childhood years, especially the first five years from the behaviour of the person's own parents. The values and behaviours learned in the childhood become the values and behaviours of the individual as a parent. A person acting with a parent ego tends to be over-protective, authoritative, indispensable and some times impatient. It is like, "father always knows best" type of attitude. His word is his command. He generally refers to laws, rules, policies and procedures and generally relies on the ways of dealing that were successful in the past.

The parent ego state can either be nurturing and benevolent or it can be critical. Nurturing parent tends to patronize the expected right behaviour. A nurturing parent loves the child unconditionally and always encourages him with appreciation such as "you are very good" or "you are a winner" and so on. A critical parent is just the opposite. He is critical and evaluative in interaction with others. For example, he might say to the child, "you are bad" or "behave yourself" or even "you can do better than that" and so on. The awareness of this ego is helpful in understanding some aspects of human behaviour.

Adult ego. The adult ego state is reflected in such behavioural characteristics as being rational, understanding, analytical and logical. Such a person views people as equal and responsible human beings. It is a state of balanced maturity involving analysis of factual information and making rational decisions. The adult ego may contain some child ego and some parent ego due to values instilled in the person during his childhood and growing up years. He updates his parent and child data within him to determine what is valid and applicable in a given situation and what is not. This way he controls his emotions appropriately. It is said that because adults are logical, they have no emotions. That may be a valid statement but it does not mean that being logical is the best way at all the times. It only means that in order to be logical, we need to be able to separate ourselves from our emotions.

Child ego. Every one knows that we sometimes act like children. When we are in child ego state, we are really being children. We think, feel, see and react as a child. Child ego state is characterized by dependence, anxiety, fear, emotions, impulsiveness and to some degree curiosity and creativity. It involves non-logical and immediate actions that result in immediate satisfaction. Such a person seeks attention and is unable to control his emotions. It reflects early childhood conditions and experiences, and the person does not grow out of this state.

The child ego can be natural, adaptive or rebellious in nature. The natural child is affectionate, impulsive and does what comes naturally. However, he is also fearful, self-indulgent and self-centered. The adaptive child is likely to do what his parents want him to do. He cannot make logical decisions on his own and needs to be continuously monitored. The rebellious child experiences anger, fear and frustration.

Each person may respond to a given stimulus in given circumstances and all three ego

states may act in harmony or in conflict. Some people respond more with one ego state than the others.

Types of Transactions

Depending upon the ego states of the persons involved in the transaction, there may be three main types of transactions, namely, *complementary*, *crossed and covert*. A *complementary transaction* occurs when the stimulus and the response patterns from one ego state to another are parallel. This means that the response to a given message is predictable. In such a case, both the parties are usually satisfied and communication is complete. There are nine complementary transactions. These are adult–adult, adult–parent, adult–child, parent–parent, parent–adult, parent–child, child–parent, child–adult and child–child. For example, a parent–adult transaction is illustrated as follows. The lines of communication are parallel.
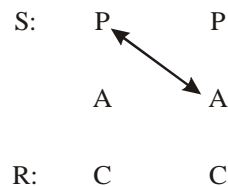
Although all these transactions are complementary transactions, not all of these are ideal for the organization or the people concerned. The ideal transaction will be adult–adult where both persons are acting in a rational manner. In such a situation where a worker needs to be guided, a parent–child transaction may be more desirable.

In *crossed or non-complementary transactions*, the transactional response is addressed to an ego state different from the one which started the stimulus and the stimulus-response lines are not parallel. In other words, a person who initiates a transaction does not get a response that he expected. For example, a manager might try to deal with a subordinate on adult–adult basis but the subordinate may respond on the child–parent basis. Such a transaction is undesirable because the line of communication becomes blocked and further transaction does not take place. An illustration is shown as follows.
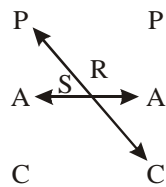
One very important kind of crossed transaction is known as the discount transaction. Here one person completely disregards what the other person is saying. Discounts are not always obvious but quite unpleasant to the person receiving them. For example, if the child says to the mother that his teeth are hurting and the mother completely ignores the message and tells the child that he is simply pretending, because the mother took the child to the dentist only a couple of days ago. This can be very discerning to the child.

A *covert transaction* is when people say one thing and mean another. The covert transactions form the basis for game playing. For example, if the boss says to the secretary that there was a lot of work to be done and that they should work late at the office and the boss will buy dinner for the secretary. Now the secretary will agree even if she does not want to do it. That is a part of the game people play. Similarly, if a child wants something and we smile at it sarcastically then it would be a covert transaction even if we get the child what he wants.

Self-Awareness

Self is the inner self of the personality which provides and sometimes controls transaction. The focus here is on the self in terms of image both conscious and non-conscious. In initiating social transactions with others some thoughts and feelings are known to the initiator but not to others. There are other aspects of the transaction which are known to others but not to the initiator. The concept led to the formation of what is known as the *Johari window*. It consists of four quadrants depending upon the four stages which are shown and explained briefly as follows.

	Information known to self	**Information not known to self**
Information known to others	Open	Blind
Information not known to others	Hidden	Unknown

The open self: This part involves the feelings that a person is willing to share with others. The person (stimulus) is honest and open about his communication with the recipient (response).

The blind self: It refers to the states about an individual known to others but not to self. We may speak in a certain way and the receiver of the communication may perceive it in a different way. The receiver may perceive the intent of the message by our tone of voice or facial expressions in a way, which we are not aware of.

The hidden self: This is a state where people know about their own feelings but do not share these with others. People learn to hide many things from others when it suits them.

The unknown self: Many times, the feelings and motivations are hidden in the unconscious and neither the person nor others know about it. Sometimes these feelings come out during hypnosis or psychic investigation.

Johari Window Model

Johari Window model was first described by Joe Luft and Harry Ingham while performing research on human personality at the University of California in 1950's. This model is a symbolic tool that helps individuals to better understand their interpersonal communication skills and relationships with other people. This model is not about measuring the personality of an individual, it is rather about the way of looking at how a personality is expressed. The following figure shows an example of Johari window model.
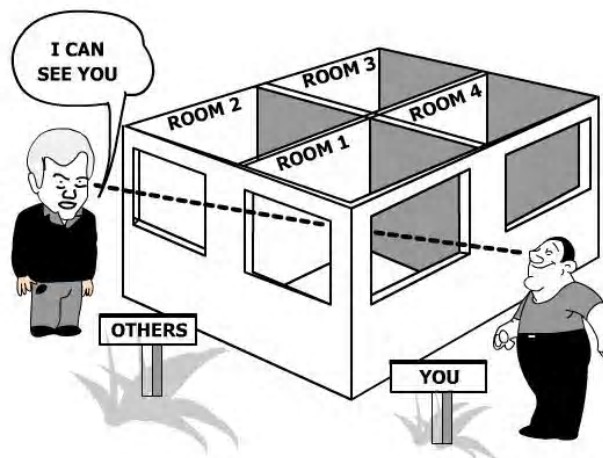
According to Luft and Ingham, there are many aspects of the personality of an individual for which he is not open about and there are many things that he keeps to himself. At the same time there are many aspects in his personality that he can see but is not aware of. As a result of this, he can draw a four-box grid that includes a fourth group of traits that are unknown to him. The following figure shows the johari window grid box.

```
                              Self
                    Known  ←       →  Unknown

                    ┌──────────────┬──────────────┐
                    │      A       │      C       │
            Known   │   Area of    │   Area of    │
              ↗     │     the      │  the free    │
             /      │ free activity│  blind mark  │
   Others  ─┤       ├──────────────┼──────────────┤
             \      │      B       │      D       │
              ↘     │   Area of    │   Area of    │
           Unknown  │ the avoidance│     the      │
                    │    or the    │   Unknown    │
                    │  concealment │              │
                    └──────────────┴──────────────┘
```
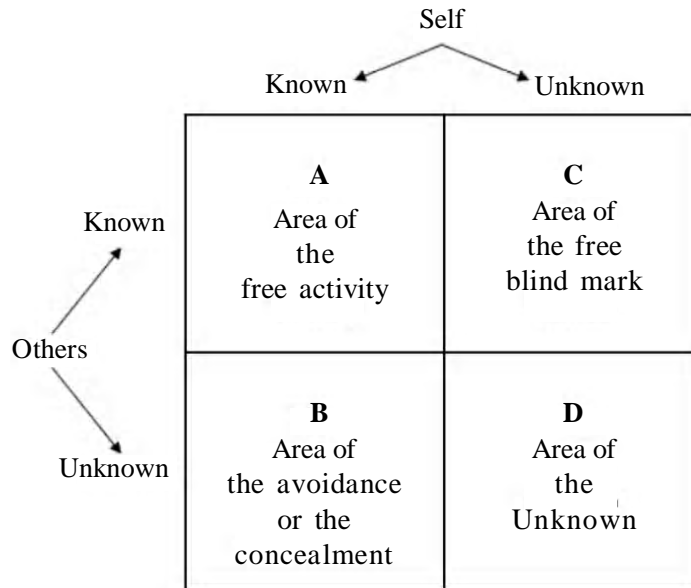
In the above figure, there are four quadrants, which represents the following:

- *Quadrant A*, represents the areas of free activity, which includes things about the behaviour and motivation of an individual that are known to all and can be predicted by others.

- *Quadrant B*, represents the area of avoidance, which includes things that we do not reveal to other. This type of behaviour of an individual is not predictable to others.

- *Quadrant C*, represents the blind mark, which includes certain parts of our personality that are recognisable for other but then we cannot recognise this personality of ours.

- *Quadrant D*, represents the range of unknown quantities, which refers to motives that neither others nor we can notice.

Life Script

Script is a word taken from script for movies or plays and life is a kind of play where a person acts as per script learned through experiences of life. When a person acts in response to a situation, his response is based upon his response in previous confrontations with such and similar situations. Such a script we learn from our very childhood. It is a narrative approach to understanding human experience and behaviour and it highlights life stories, myths, plots, episodes, characters and so on. In a sense, a person's behaviour is partly programmed by the script, which emerges out of life experiences.

Some of the research done in this trend have their focus on the script inherent in short term events such as friendships, sicknesses, transitional periods such as college to work life, attitudes on the basis of gender, picking marriage partners and habitual ways of dealing with emotions such as anger or love. The narrative literature includes the notion that people are bound to follow certain pre-conceived behavioural paths and that some of these are useful for the person and others are harmful. The notion of an internalized life story ties together a number of important theoretical and empirical trends in developmental, cognitive, personality and cultural psychology.

According to one researcher (Young, 1999), life scripts can be changed to alter the life play. Our cognitive structures enable us to interpret our life experiences in a meaningful way. There are happy life scripts such as happy family life, good responsible job and higher quality of life and so on, and there are unhappy life scripts such as mental illness, depression, criminality and alcoholism. There are certain methodologies and procedures which, for example, can "restructure maladaptive core beliefs", which are responsible for depression.

The OK structure. In transactional analysis the OK existential position is also called the universal position based on the assumption that "people are born OK", meaning that people in their innate state tend to health, healing and a benign expectation and trust of others. This position about self and others is either maintained or lost to a "Not OK" position about self, others or both. When the OK position is maintained, the people tend to be selectively positive and are psychologically healthy. They are optimistic in nature and research has shown that they live longer and healthier. There are four situations of OK/Not OK concept, which are briefly described below.

1. *I am Ok, you are OK:* This is a rationally chosen life position and is a function of happy and positive experiences of life. They respect themselves as well as other people. Their attitude in life is positive and is based on the adult ego state. In an organizational setting, managers respect their subordinates, delegate authority to them with confidence and respect.

2. *I am OK, you are not OK:* These are the people who are prone to anger and hostility. They blame others for their own problems and feel themselves as superior. They are ruthless in getting what they want. These are the people with rebellion child ego. They think others are incompetent and untrustworthy. A manager with such an attitude would treat workers with disrespect and point out their flaws and be critical about their performance.

3. *I am not OK, you are OK:* These people have an inferiority complex and feel powerless compared to others. The persons with this life position are always complaining about life and are always grumbling for one thing or the other. They think that others can do things which they themselves would like to do but cannot do it. They have very little self-respect and always feel guilty for doing what they consider as wrong things.

4. *I am not OK, you are not OK:* This is the ultimate stage where people lose interest in living and feel that life is not worth living. They often commit suicide or kill or harm others. Psychologists believe that this is a result of the upbringing in their childhood when they were neglected by their parents or abused by them. They are afraid to make decisions and lack confidence in themselves.

One of these four positions dominates each person's life. The desirable position is one which provides an adult–adult transaction. This position is "I am Ok, you are OK". This position occurs due to positive experiences of life and can be adopted through education and psychological intervention.

Stroking

Stroking is defined as recognition of others, and strokes are the units of interpersonal recognition. They are the recognition, attention or responsiveness that one person gives another. A stroke is defined as "the fundamental unit of social action." These strokes can be physical, verbal or non-verbal. Physical strokes can be simple touch, hugs, kisses, caresses, holding hands and so on. Verbal strokes can be about a person's looks, intelligence, clothing, creativity, elegance, wisdom, beauty, leadership ability, warmth, honesty or any other attributes that a person possesses. Non-verbal strokes take the form of listening, empathizing or actively liking or loving some one. Many a times, a husband expresses his love for his wife just by his looks. The word stroking developed from the studies that infants need physical affection for their psychological development. Many people who are not hugged

or kissed in their childhood develop to be dysfunctional themselves. The behavioural studies have concluded that workers produce more when they are recognized and appreciated than simply the financial benefits.

There are two types of strokes, namely, positive and negative. Positive strokes make the person feel good about himself. Positive recognition, appreciation, affection, respect are all positive strokes and result in positive transactions. Negative strokes involve criticism, hating and being disrespectful. They are painful forms of recognition such as sarcasm, putdowns, insults and so on. These are done to make the person receiving them not feel OK. Sometimes, negative strokes serve desirable and deserving by some people. A person committing a crime sometimes welcomes punishment. A subordinate, when he commits a mistake is relieved when the manger reprimands him and the subordinate feels that the he deserved it.

The researchers have found that a negative stroke is better than no stroke at all, that people would rather have a negative stroke than no stroke at all. This explains why some people seem to intentionally hurt themselves in their relationship with others. It is not because they "enjoy hurting themselves" but because they cannot get positive recognition and choose painful negative strokes to having no strokes. This can be illustrated by another example. Suppose you are walking in front of your house and you see a neighbour pass by. You are likely to say hello and receive reciprocation. The neighbour could also frown at you and say nothing. But either case is better than no stroke at all, if your neighbour ignored you completely.

Games Analysis

A game is defined as "an ongoing series of complementary ulterior transactions progressing to a well-defined, predictable outcome. Descriptively, it is a recurring set of transactions… with a concealed motive." It is also defined as a "recurring series of ulterior transactions with a beginning, middle and end, and a payoff." One can think of a game as a series of interactions (words, body language, facial expressions) between two or more people that follow a predictable pattern. The interactions ultimately progress to an outcome in which one individual obtains a "payoff."

In transactional game playing, people can assume three roles. These roles are as follows:

- *Persecutors:* Persecution has a negative connotation. Persecutors make unrealistic and cruel rules, enforce these rules in cruel ways and take pleasure in persecuting those who are below their equals.

- *Victims:* These are people who provoke others to put them down, insult them, hurt them, send them messages of helplessness and have little respect for themselves. There could be real victims also, but they do not form a part of the game playing.

- *Rescuer:* Rescuers are those who help others simply to keep others dependent on them. They may not actually help but give a perception of helping others.

As an example, assume that a man meets a woman in a bar and starts flirting with her. He brings her to his house and makes a sexual advance. The woman rebuffs him and leaves his house leaving him humiliated. The man is a victim in this game and the woman is the persecutor. These are recurring episodes. The man sometimes also acts as a persecutor in this game. He flirts with women, invites them to love him and when they do, accuses them of clinging.

Another example would reinforce these roles. A man is addicted to drinking. The game starts with the man seeking help. He (the victim) says to his wife, "I should quit drinking but it is so hard to do that." His wife acts as a rescuer and says, "I will help you to quit drinking. I will take you to the temple, do yoga with you and keep your mind of drinks." After a few days the wife finds out that he is still drinking at the office. The wife gets angry and switches from the rescuer role to that of a persecutor role in the game. She reprimands him and calls him by names such as weak and unmotivated. Now the husband switches

from the victim to the persecutor role and says, "it is all your fault. You keep on nagging me. I don't like it. You can go to hell." The wife now switches from persecutor to the victim and cries. This is how people sometimes switch roles in the games they play.

People generally learn their game patterns right from their childhood. They play games for a variety of reasons. Some of these reasons are:

- *To get strokes:* All of us want to have positive strokes, real or perceptive. When we do not get real positive strokes we play games to get them.

- *To strengthen their psychological positions:* If people hold the view that they are not OK, they try to emphasize it through games. Such people play games to arrange their environment to reinforce their positions.

- *To avoid or control intimacy:* People who fear openness and trust and responsibility play games to avoid such situations that would confirm their fears. They use these games to avoid or control intimacy in order to keep other people away from open and desirable encounters.

Games are essentially two-way transactions. Either of the party to the game can end the transaction. Games are played to manipulate people or situation with often negative outcomes. All efforts should be made, in the area of transactional analysis, to assure people that it is better to be open and honest during transactions, as this will lead to better and more pleasant transactions.

Benefits of Transactional Analysis

Transactional analysis is an approach towards understanding human behaviour. Some of the areas where TA can be beneficially applied are:

1. *Developing positive thinking:* The objective of transactional analysis is to create positive thinking among people. It can lead to a change from negative attitudes of confusion, frustration, pessimism and hostility to one of positive feeling and attitudes of clear thinking, confidence, trust, friendship and general optimism. These positive attitudes can be developed through recognition, adult–adult relationships, active listening and positive reinforcement.

2. *Inter-personal effectiveness:* Transactional analysis is helpful in understanding one's own self as well as others. Such an understanding leads to trust and respect for each other, thus improving the effectiveness of inter-personal communication. It helps the manager to understand how his behaviour is perceived by his subordinates. Based on this understanding, a manager can mould himself to develop complementary transactions with the subordinates resulting in organizational effectiveness.

3. *Motivation:* TA can be applied in the process of motivation through positive recognition and complementary transactions with the subordinates. It helps in changing the managerial styles into McGregor's Theory Y style where subordinates are accepted as responsible people. Managers can redesign jobs, which give subordinates high satisfaction and hence high motivation.

According to Dorothy Jangeward (Every Body Knows: Transactional Analysis Applied to Organizations. Addison Wesley. 1976), TA can be utilised anywhere the people interact and suggests that TA is a useful and practical method for organizational development, because:

- It is easy to learn.

- It gives a positive communication tool.

- It helps to increase a person's understanding of self and greater insight into personalities and transactions.

- It may help solve personal as well as family problems.
- It gives a common language for people working together to improve their communication skills.
- It is a non-threatening approach to self-evaluation.

Transactional Leadership

A transactional leader is one who guides and motivates his followers towards achieving the organizational goals and objectives by clarifying the role and task requirements. He basically performs the functions of management such as planning, organizing, directing and controlling and measuring results of these efforts. The transactional leader determines the follower's desires and provides tools that meet those desires in exchange following performing certain required tasks. This constitutes a transaction.

However, because transactional leadership involves a commitment to "follow the rules", and "do things right", the transactional leaders usually maintain stability within the organization rather promoting change and growth. For that reason, transactional leadership is considered to be the leadership of mediocrity. It differs from transformational leadership, which inspires its followers to reach greater heights in creativity and self-actualization and has four dimensions of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. On the other hand, transactional leadership has the following four dimensions:

1. *Contingent rewards:* Providing various kinds of rewards in exchange for mutually agreed upon goal accomplishments.
2. *Active management by exception:* Watching for deviations from rules and standards and taking corrective actions.
3. *Passive management by exception:* Intervening only if set standards are not met.
4. *Laissez-faire:* Avoiding additional responsibility and decisions.

11.9 NEGOTIATION

Negotiation is the process of making joint decisions when the parties involved in negotiation have different and opposing preferences. Negotiation has special significance in situations of conflict, whether it is conflict between union and management in organizations or between countries such as India and Pakistan, where negotiations may be required to resolve the conflict over Kashmir. Conflicts and disagreements are likely to arise in work settings over such diverse matters as wages, performance evaluation, working conditions, job assignments, work schedules and so on.

In any type of negotiations, two important goals must be considered. One goal involves substance and other involves relationships. Reaching agreement on wage increases would be achievement of substance goal. The relationship goal deals with the outcomes that relate to how well the negotiating parties are able to work with each other, once the negotiation process has been concluded. An effective negotiation occurs when substance issues are resolved without negatively affecting the working relationships. In most organizations in America, the union and management remain in good and cordial relationship after the fight is over.

Negotiation Strategies

Many different models of negotiation have been put forward by theorists and practitioners, but they generally follow one of the two approaches. One is known as the "distributive negotiation", and the other is known as the "integrative negotiation". The distributive negotiation is a zero sum game in which parties are in a state of competition,

whereby each party seeks dominance over the other and tries to maximise its own self-interests. Since the self-interest is to get the most out of the available resources and since the pool of the available resources is fixed, whatever one party wins the other party must lose. Integrative negotiation, on the other hand, is a collaborative model in which the parties seek to expand the range of possible outcomes and thereby maximise their individual benefits by sharing in the collective efforts and results. For example, a union may get better wages and in response may produce more in terms of quantity and quality. In such a situation, both the union as well as the management wins.

Characteristics of Distributive Negotiations

A case of distributive negotiation can either be a hard one or a soft one. The hard distributive negotiation takes place when each party holds out for what it wants without any compromise. Many times such attitude leads to an impasse. This happened in the case of Eastern Airlines, where the union's demands were considered very high and the management refused to give in. The result was a strike by the workers and the end result was that the airline went into bankruptcy and ceased to exist.

In a soft distributive negotiation, both parties follow the give and take policy, make concessions, compromise on some issues and reach an agreement that is realistic and acceptable. In general, one party asks for much higher benefits than it is willing to accept and the other party offers much less than it is willing to give. Then by negotiation and compromise, they meet some where in the middle and both parties are happy. This meeting point is some where in the bargaining zone.[20] This bargaining zone is defined by the following example:

"A graduate with MBA degree is negotiating a job offer with a company manager. He believes that he should get $ 70,000 per year in salary but would be willing to settle for $ 60,000 per year. That is the lowest salary he will accept for the job. The manager would like to offer $ 55,000 per year but would be willing to go up to $ 65,000 per year. Thus the minimum value of $ 60,000 for the graduate and maximum offer of the manager of $ 65,000 create a bargaining zone between $ 60,000 and $ 65,000. Negotiation takes place within this zone". Similarly, purchasing a car or a house represents distribute negotiation with a bargaining zone to maneuver the price.

Distributive negotiation is a necessary way of resolving differences between parties with mutually exclusive goals. Parties to the negotiation will withhold as much information as possible to gain an advantage and at the same time, they will try to get as much information from the opposing party as possible. Negotiators will generally have a very good idea as to what they are trying to accomplish and this is perhaps the most critical point of skillful negotiation. Negotiation should focus on realistic issues and not on egos about winning and not losing.

Characteristics of Integrative Negotiations

Integrative negotiation is a process in which the negotiating parties jointly work towards goals that are not mutually exclusive so that one party does not necessarily gain at the expense of the other. The approach of the parties is to work together to find out ways to utilize the resources in a best possible manner for the benefit of both parties. They engage in problem solving jointly to arrive at a mutual agreement that maximises benefit to each party.

Integrative negotiation has two aspects to it. One is the substantive part that includes the tangible issues to be discussed and negotiated. The other aspect is the intrinsic value in the agreement, that may be long-term cordial relationship between the parties or other benefits to both parties not directly related to the substance of the issues involved. Thus, it has an important dimension of building relationships.

The foundations for gaining truly integrative agreements rest on the following elements:

- *Supportive attitudes.* A supportive attitude requires that each party must be willing sincerely to trust the other party. This trust is based upon moral and ethical dimensions. Second, each party must be willing to share all relevant information with the other party, openly and honestly.

- *Behavioural foundations.* It is very important for the parties not to be emotional or personal. They must focus on issues and interests and not on positions and positions should be modified when necessary. The parties should avoid making premature judgements and should be willing to objectively look at the views offered by each party.

- *Information foundation.* These foundations involve each party becoming familiar with the "best alternative to a negotiated agreement" or BATNA. This means that each party must know and be prepared for any alternative in case a settlement is not reached. It is important for each party to know what any other methods the opposing party will pursue in case the negotiations fail. Not knowing the other party's values and approach could put one party in a weaker position. If any of the two parties has a better alternative to negotiated settlement, such party would be in a stronger position. Accordingly, it is necessary to have as much information about the other party's plans as possible.

11.10 THIRD PARTY ROLE IN NEGOTIATIONS

Sometimes when parties are unable to reach a conclusive settlement on their own or when some matters in the total package appear unresolved under current circumstances, a third party intervention may be required. The third party can either be an arbitrator or a mediator. In arbitration, the third party acts as a judge and has the power to issue a decision that is binding on all parties. This arbitrator may be assigned by the government or the courts or by agreement of both parties. The arbitrator listens to the positions advanced by both parties and makes a decision based on the merits of the case. In mediation, a neutral third party tries to persuade both parties to adopt a give and take policy and reach a settlement. He gives his reasons in a rational manner and encourages each party to respect the viewpoint of the opposing party. The mediator does not have the power to enforce his decision. Having a mediator is a common approach in negotiations between management and labour unions where trained mediators acceptable to both sides are called in to help resolve such issues where parties themselves have reached an impasse.

11.11 SUMMARY

"Man is not an island", some one said and no one can simply live in isolation. People have to interact with each other individually and groups of people have to interact with other groups of people for one reason or another. In an organizational setting, various departments or units depend upon each other for resources, work or information. Even if these units do not depend upon each other directly, they do depend upon each other indirectly in that they all contribute towards the common organizational goal.

Wherever, there is interaction or interdependence, conflict is likely to occur. This conflict occurs because of competitive but incompatible goals or differences in attitudes towards methods of operation. Even though, some degree of conflict induces challenges that can bring about positive results, continuous and excessive conflict is highly detrimental to the health of the organizations. Accordingly, management must always be alert to the existence and degree of conflict that might be evident so that it can be kept under control and resolved when necessary.

Conflict exists in many forms. It can be within an individual where role playing is inconsistent with the beliefs held by the individual. It can also be between one person and another where both of them are competing for the same goal with the same available resources. There can be a conflict between an individual and a group when the individual disagrees with the group goals or its methodology. Finally, the inter-group conflict occurs between competing organizations, between labour unions and management, between buyers and suppliers and so on.

Conflict can be caused by poor communication where the intent of the message sent is different than the interpretation of the message received. It is also caused by personal biases regarding such factors as religion, race, sex or social status. The structural design of an organization can also be a contributory factor towards conflict creation. These structural aspects include the size of the organization, relationship between line and staff, poorly defined working roles, misuse of authority and so on.

The behavioural conflict can be resolved by simply showing respect for opposing viewpoints or simply ignoring the conflict as being trivial in the grand design of things. An arbitrator may be appointed to help solve the conflict between two individuals or two groups. Conflict can also be eliminated by simply overpowering the opposing party, if such a power exists.

The structural based conflict can be handled by making changes in the organizational format wherever possible. This change may involve decentralisation of power and authority or it may require reduction in interdependency of groups upon each other. It will further help in the resolution of conflict, if policies, procedures and rules are clearly established and all communication channels are kept open so that each person knows exactly what role he is assigned and how he has to play this role in the organizational structure.

If there is a single contributory factor that helps in reducing and eliminating negative conflict, it is "trust". Trust or lack of it governs our inter-personal behaviour to a large extent. Our ability to trust each other has great impact on our working lives, on our family interactions and our achievement of personal and organizational goals. In order to create trust and be trustworthy, it is necessary to ovoid aggressive behavior and at the same time develop supportive behaviours where people are respected for who they are or what they believe in and are treated equally without bias or prejudice. In case, a conflict develops at any level, it should be resolved with mutual benefit in mind.

11.12 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. Define inter-group dependence and give examples where work of one group depends upon the work of another group. How can such interdependence cause conflicts among groups?
2. What are the various forms of group interdependence? Give examples of each type.
3. Explain what we mean by "differentiation of groups". How does such differentiation become the cause of conflict among groups?
4. Are there any circumstances where a moderate degree of conflict is actually beneficial to the individuals and the organizations? If so, what can the management do to maintain such degree of conflict?
5. Explain in detail the various types of conflict that are inherent in the very nature of human beings. Give examples that are relevant to each type of conflict.
6. What are the various causes of conflict? Are these causes attributable to external environment? If so, then what type of environment that is external to the individual can contribute towards creation of conflict?
7. What steps can be taken to reduce and resolve conflict that is behavioural in nature?
8. What steps can be taken to reduce and resolve conflict that is structural in nature?

9. How do we define the concept of "trust"? What steps can be taken by the individual and by the management to develop and enhance a feeling of trust among all members of the organization?

11.13 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Interdependence of group implies that there is something of interest between parts. For instance, a department depends upon other departments for resources, work or information and the other departments depend upon that department for resources, work or information. One's understanding of that department is enriched from the knowledge of its interactions with other departments.

2. Factors that reflect group differentiation are: Goals, Attitudinal orientation.

3. The three ego states as understood in transactional analysis are parent, adult and child.

4. There are five basic types of conflicts. These are: Conflict within the individual, Interpersonal conflict, Conflict between the individual and the group, Intergroup conflict, Inter-organizational conflict.

5. Negotiation is the process of making joint decisions when the parties involved in negotiation have different and opposing preferences. Negotiation has special significance in situations of conflict, whether it is conflict between union and management in organizations or between countries such as India and Pakistan, where negotiations may be required to resolve the conflict over Kashmir. Conflicts and disagreements are likely to arise in work settings over such diverse matters as wages, performance evaluation, working conditions, job assignments, work schedules and so on.

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CASE STUDY*

George A. Hormel & Company has many meat packing plants around the country and one of these plants is located at Austin, Minnesota. During the mid 1980s, the company was faced with a decreasing demand for its products. It became necessary to cut the costs of operations in order to remain in business and be competitive. To keep its costs down, the management of the company cut the base wages of its union employees. This was done arbitrarily and without consulting or negotiating with the union representatives. Even though the dispute between the union and the management had been simmering for a long time at the plant in Austin, it culminated in a strike led by the union in August of 1985.

An arbitrator was appointed to act as a mediator and due to his recommendation, some of the cuts in wages were restored. The management offered to restore the balance of the cuts at the time when the previous labour contract would expire and a new contract would be signed. The new contact was signed by all the unions at all other Hormel plants, except the one in Austin, and hence the strike. Because of the worker's strike, the plant was shut down.

The plant remained closed for nearly five months. The strike had not yet been settled when the management at the Austin plant decided to reopen the plant, and accordingly, some union members returned to work. Many other workers refused to return to work and formed a picket line and the local union urged its members not to cross the picket line. The management started to hire new workers to replace those who were on strike. There was conflict between the employees and the workers on strike, so much so, that at one time there was a danger of physical violence and local police had to be called in to restrain the workers who were on strike.

The local union sent some of its members to picket other Hormel plants and asked the union members at these other plants to honour the picket lines and not report for work. About a week after the Austin plant was reopened, the central management fired hundreds of their workers at plants in Texas, Iowa and Nebraska for refusing to cross the picket lines and refusing to report for work. This step was significant because picket lines at the other plants were not set up by the local employees but by the striking employees at the plant in Austin.

The strike at the plant in Austin went into ninth month. Tempers flared and violence erupted and in May 1986 hundreds of strikers fought with police outside the Austin plant. The parent union, United Food and Commercial Workers union also disagreed with the striking workers prompted by the local union, considering the economic slowdown and conditions in the industry. The President of the parent union decided to take over the operations of the local union and started proceedings to appoint a new union leadership at this plant. He believed that the conflict had gone too far and he hoped that with these changes, the strike would be over and the workers could go back to work.

Questions

1. Given the condition of economic slump, do you think the workers were wrong in going on strike? Give reasons.
2. Is the conflict between union and management inevitable? What preventive steps can be taken to avoid the possibility of worker strike? Explain your viewpoints.
3. Who were the winners and who were the losers in this conflict?
4. If you were hired as a mediator, after the union went on strike, what step would you recommend in order to minimize the negative impact of this conflict?

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* Based upon: M. Galligan, "Hanging Tough at Hormel", *U.S. News and World Report*, February 17, 1986 and "Stand Off at Hormel", *Fortune*, May 12, 1986.

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UNIT 12 STRESS AND BEHAVIOUR

Structure

12.0 INTRODUCTION

Stress is a state of mind that reflects certain biochemical reactions in the human body and is projected by a sense of anxiety, tension and depression and is caused by such demands by the environmental forces or internal forces that cannot be met by the resources available to the person. The intensity of such demands that require a readjustment of resources or operational styles would determine the extent of stress. Such environmental events or conditions that have the potential to induce stress are known as "stressors".

Medical researcher Hans Selye[1] first used the term "stress" to describe the body's biological response mechanisms. He defined stress as "the nonspecific response of the body to any demand". It must be understood that for the stress to occur, the response should be non-specific. All responses require utilization of energy. Any demand made on the body that is for some specific activity that is natural, expected and a part of daily routine, does not necessarily create stress. Even walking, thinking, writing and doing physical activities that are a part of personal and organizational existence, require energy consumption of the body but are not necessarily stress producing forces.

Stress does not necessarily occur due to undesirable developments. All situations that produce increased demand on a vital activity requiring adaptation to a new situation, produce stress in the form of a stereotyped pattern of bio-chemical, functional and structural changes in the human organism. These situations could be fear, pain, fatigue, emotional arousal, humiliation, frustration, need for concentration, loss of blood, drugs, loss of a loved one, non-occurrence of an expected event and even unexpected successes that require a change in the operational style.
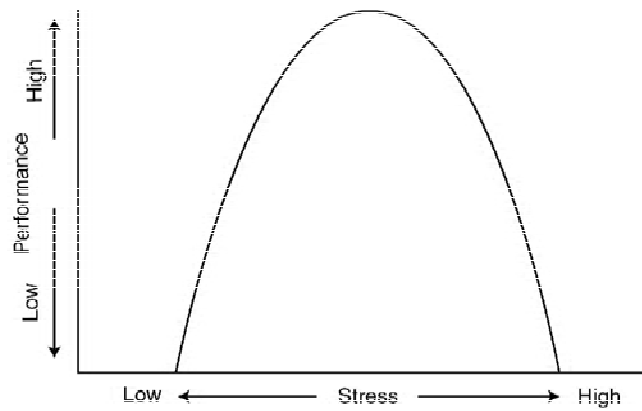
Source: Henry L. Tossi, John R. Rizzo and Stephen J. Carroll, *Managing Organizational Behavior*, Ballinger Publishing Co., 1986, p. 296.

The stress created by desirable and successful events is called "eustress" and the stress created by undesirable outcomes is known as "distress". It is primarily the distress form of stress that requires examination and steps to cope with it. Eustress is a positive, healthy and developmental stress response. Thus, just as tension on muscles causes them to strengthen, some level of stress may lead to better performance and a more adjusted personality. Since we learn how to deal with our problems better, it improves our capacity to confront distress better. However, even though some levels of stress are necessary for psychological growth, creative activities and the acquisitions of new skills such as learning to drive a car or learning the use of a computer, it is the highly stressful situations that weaken a person's physical and psychological capacity to cope with the stressors that have dysfunctional consequences. Just as high level stress is damaging to the physical and psychological well-being of the person, extremely low levels of stress are equally undesirable for they cause boredom, and result in lack of stimulation, innovation and challenges. Thus moderate level of stress is necessary for higher level of performance. The following diagram shows the relationship between the level of performance and degree of stress.
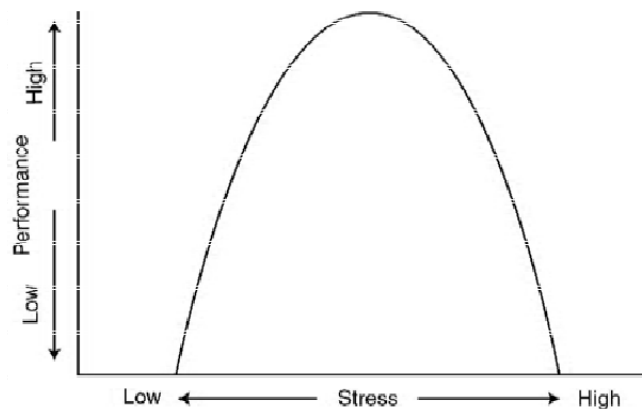
Source: Henry L. Tossi ..... See second revised edition.

12.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

- To explain the concepts of "good" stress and "bad" stress
- To understand why some stress has positive effects on performance
- To know the symptoms of stress both in physiological and psychological terms
- To evaluate various forms of stress

- To study some of the sources of stress, both organizational factors, as well as personal factors
- To realise the consequences of job stress
- To establish the relationship between stress and performance
- To learn how to cope with stress including organizational strategies for coping with stress

12.2 THE GENERAL ADAPTATION SYNDROME

The General Adaptation Syndrome refers to a general development of responses to stressful events in the form of physiological, psychological and behavioural responses believed to follow a fairly consistent pattern and consists of three stages. The first stage is known as "alarm" stage and it occurs at the first sign of stress. It results in physiological changes in the body as a warning and preparation against stress. During this initial stage, muscles become tense, blood pressure rises, pupils dilate and there is increase in hormone flow such as adrenaline from endocrine glands. The second stage in bodily responses is that of resistance. In this stage, the body's energies tend to resist the stress so that the physiological and psychological equilibrium can be maintained. If this resistance is successful then the stress will disappear. However if the stress is of a high degree and continues long enough, then the body's capacity for adaptation becomes exhausted. In this third stage of exhaustion, the person is unable to cope with the stress and the individual experiences physical and mental pressures that result in such illness as continuous headaches, ulcers and high blood pressure. It is this last stage that presents the greatest threat to the individual's well-being.

12.3 STRESS RESPONSES

As mentioned briefly above in the General Adaptation syndrome, the process of stress elicits three types of responses. These are: physiological, psychological and behavioural responses.

Physiological Responses

As soon as stress appears, the brain reacts and immediate biochemical changes take place in heart beat and heightening of practically all the senses.[2] The long terms physiological effects are more disturbing. Serious health problems occur as body confronts stress over a long period of time. The stress could lead to breakdowns in the body's immune systems and may result in serious health problems such as high blood pressure, ulcers and heart attack. In general, according to Baron,[3] "taking all evidence into account though, it seems reasonable to conclude that high level of stress can result in physical changes that threaten our health and well-being".

Psychological Responses

There are some people who can handle stress better than others. People who tend to be highly affected by stress tend to be depressed and lack self-confidence and self-esteem. They tend to believe that they are helpless and elicit sympathy from others. They have greater fear of the unknown and an increased sense of futility, tension and neurotic tendencies. They become irritated quickly, are impatient and tend to blame everybody else for their own problems. They are more worried about their job security and their job commitment is very low.

Behavioural Responses

According to Cohen,[4] people under constant stress behave differently as compared to people who are emotionally well-balanced. Stress is usually associated with increased use of alcohol, smoking, eating and sometimes drugs. People under stress may gain weight and thus behave differently. Their behaviour becomes highly defensive or highly aggressive towards others and inter-personal relationships are highly affected. Stress induces irritation and lack of patience and these elements are exhibited in behavioural patterns. The person may become an introvert, may withdraw from social situations and may avoid communication with others resulting in social isolation.

12.4 BASIC FORMS OF STRESS: FRUSTRATION AND ANXIETY

Frustration is a form of behaviour that occurs when a person wishes to achieve a certain objective or pursue a certain course of action, but is prevented from doing so. It refers to an obstruction or impediment to goal oriented behaviour. Examples of frustration include a salesman continuously failing to make a sale, a professor continuously applying for a promotion and failing to get it or inability to get subordinates to act according to our wishes. There are several factors that cause frustration. First is the unnecessary delay in achieving the goal, even when the goal is eventually available. Delay in getting a promotion, delay in finishing a report and even waiting for a friend after the due time can cause frustration. The second factor causing frustration is the lack of resources. Sometimes the goals are not achieved because individuals lack the physical, personal or interpersonal resources. A professor who is burdened with administrative duties and does not get enough time to do research that is necessary for promotion may become frustrated because of such time constraints. The third cause of frustration may be the actual failure in achieving the goal. A lost client, a poor evaluation by superiors, failure in the exam or failure to get a promotion are all causes of frustration that are manifested in stress.

A second form of stress is the "anxiety" which is a feeling of inability and helplessness in formulating appropriate responses or plans for dealing with the anticipated negative outcomes. It occurs when a decision has to be made but the outcome of the decision could have positive as well as negative consequences. For example, should you cheat in the exam or not, not knowing whether you will get through or get caught? These are some anxious moments. Anxiety also occurs when all your options result in undesirable consequences. For example, if you are working with a company for a long time and have built roots in the community where you live and your company is moving to a different far off location and you have the choice of either moving with the company or losing the job. Both of these alternatives make you feel uncomfortable and hence become a cause of anxiety. What causes anxiety in work environment? According to Hammer and Organ:[5]

"Difference in power in organization which leave people with a feeling of vulnerability to administrative decisions adversely affecting them, frequent changes in organizations, which make existing behavior plans obsolete, competition, which creates the inevitability that some persons lose "face", esteem and status, and job ambiguity (especially when it is coupled with pressure). To these may be added some related factors, such as lack of job feedback, volatility in the organization's economic environment, job insecurity and high visibility of one's performance (success as well as failure). Obviously, personal non-organizational factors come into play as well, such as physical illness, problems at home, unrealistically high personal goals and estrangement from one's colleagues or one's peer group".

Accordingly, there are a number of factors, both organizational as well as individualistic, that cause frustration and anxiety.

12.5 SOURCES OF STRESS

There are two major sources of stress. These are organizational sources and personal sources. Both these categories are considered in detail:

Organizational Sources

Almost every aspect of work can be a stressor for someone. Even though there are many factors in the work environment that have some influence on the extent of stress that people experience at the job, the following factors have been shown to be particularly strong in inducing stress.

Stressors intrinsic to the job   The nature of the job itself can determine the type and degree of stress that can be induced. Some jobs lead to more stress-related responses than others. For example, such jobs as that of a police officer, or air traffic controller are often considered to be low-stress jobs.

In general high stress occupations are those in which the employees have little control over their operations, work under time constraints and have major responsibilities for human or financial resources. Persons working under threatening working conditions such as temperature extremes, pollution, uncomfortable lighting and ventilation and loud noise are also vulnerable to high stress.

According to one study[6], some of the high-stress jobs are: foreman, manager, inspector, waitress or waiter and clinical lab technician. On the contrary, some of the low stress jobs are: college professor, personnel worker, craft worker, farm labourer and so on.

Studies conducted by Karasek[7] and his colleagues at Columbia University showed a higher risk of coronary disease as a consequence of stress in some jobs and less in others. They identified two job factors that affect the level of such risk. These factors are the "level of psychological demand" and the "level of decision control" over work. People with high psychological demands and low decision control are constantly under pressure, for they must meet the demands imposed upon them without having any say in it. For example, a waitress in a restaurant must wait on the customer as well as depend upon the cook. She is subjected to demands both by the customer as well as the cook with no control over it and thus is subjected to high pressure and risk. According to this study, some of the jobs are categorised as follows:

(a) Low psychological demand/Low decision control —some of the jobs are: janitor, night watchman, truck driver, billing clerk and so on.

(b) Low psychological demand/high decision control. The jobs in this category are: auto repair man, sales clerk, peddler, scientist and so on.

(c) High psychological demand/High decision control. This category contains jobs such as: sales manager, bank officer, physician, school teacher and so on.

(d) High psychological demand/Low decision control. These jobs carry maximum strain and are those of: waitress, telephone operator, cook, assembly line worker and so on.

Role ambiguity   A role is a set of activities associated with a certain position in the organization or in the society. According to Kahn,[8] if these work activities are ill-defined, then the person who is carrying out these activities will not behave as others expect him to, because his role is not clearly defined. Thus, when there is a lot of uncertainty regarding job definitions or job expectations, then people experience role ambiguity.

Role ambiguity is particularly strong among managerial jobs where responsibilities are more general in nature and role definitions and task specifications are not clear. This role

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Check Your Progress

1. Define the term 'Stress'.
2. What are the various sources of stress?

ambiguity is specially prevalent among companies that have merged or acquired other companies while keeping the employees. Thus employees become uncertain of what exactly they are supposed to do and exactly whom they should report to. This role ambiguity causes stress. French and Caplan,[9] summarised their study findings as follows:

"In summary, role ambiguity, which appears, to be widespread, (1) produce psychological strain and dissatisfaction, (2) leads to under-utilization of human resources, and (3) leads to feeling of futility on how to cope with the organizational environment."

Role conflict Role conflict occurs when two or more persons have different and sometimes opposing expectation of a given individual. Thus there are two or more sets of pressures on the individual so that it is not possible to satisfy all of them. In other words, role conflict occurs when contradictory demands are simultaneously placed upon an employee. For example, an architect may be expected to produce creative designs, while on the other hand, there may be time constraints put upon him, both roles being in conflict with each other. Similarly, a contractor may ask a carpenter to do something that may be different than what the city building code prescribe, thus causing a role conflict.

Another type of role conflict is the inter-role conflict where an individual plays more than one role simultaneously in his life and the demands of these roles conflict with each other. For example, a father may know that his son has committed a crime but does not inform the police or a police officer may be invited to his brother's wedding party where the guests use drugs that is against the law.

Studies conducted by Robert Kahn[10] and his colleagues at the University of Michigan regarding role conflict, lead to the following conclusion:

"Contradictory role expectations give rise to opposing role pressures (role conflict), which generally have the following effects on the emotional experience of the focal person: intensified internal conflicts, increased tension associated with various aspects of the job, reduced satisfaction with the job and its various components, and decreased confidence in superiors and in the organization as a whole. The strain experienced by those in conflict situations leads to various coping responses such as social and psychological withdrawal (reduction in communication and attributed influence) among them.

Finally the presence of conflict in one's role tends to undermine his relations with his role senders to produce weaker bonds of trust, respect and attraction. It is quite clear that role conflicts are costly for the person in emotional and interpersonal terms. They may be costly to the organization, which depends on effective coordination and collaboration within and among its parts".

Role overload Role overload occurs when the work requirements are so excessive that employees feel that they do not have adequate time or ability to meet such requirements. Working under time pressure is specially stressful whether it is meeting a deadline for a report or studying near the exam period. The physiological symptoms of stress increase significantly prior to deadline and decrease sharply after the deadline has passed. The role overload can occur either when there is too much work to complete in a given time or when it is too difficult to accomplish because of lack of skills and ability.

Role underload Role underload occurs when a person's ability is underutilised so that either there is too little work or there is too little variety in the work. If a salesman with high inter-personal skills is given a job in a department store where there are not too many customers, then he will feel that his ability is not being properly utilised. Similarly, assembly line workers whose jobs are routine and highly monotonous also experience role underload.

Role underload leads to excessive absenteeism and such workers show very little interest in the organizational activities. It results in low self-esteem and low work satisfaction. This creates stress with increased frequency of nervous complaints and other health problems.

Stress as reflected in role overload and underload can be reflected diagrammatically as follows:
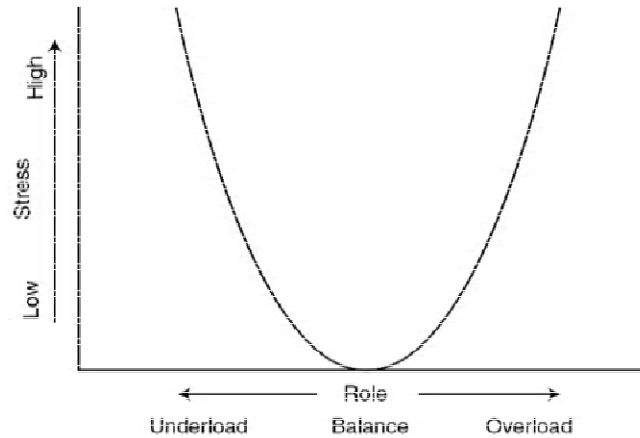
Responsibility for people   Any type of responsibility can be a burden upon an individual. For example, organizational responsibility for such factors as budgets, equipment and projects can cause stress. However it is the responsibility for people working for you that is a cause for continuous concern. As a manager, your effectiveness is a function of quality performance of your subordinates. Hence, you will be held responsible for anything that goes wrong, which creates stress and this stress is intensified when the manager has a limited degree of control over the subordinates. As noted by French and Caplan.[11]

"If there is any truth to the adage that 'man's greatest enemy is himself', it can be found in these data—it is the responsibility which organizational members have for other organizational members, rather than the responsibility for impersonal aspects of the organization, which constitutes the more significant organizational stress."

Lack of participation   When the employees are invited to participate in decision making process in their areas of concern then the employees perceive that they have more control over their own environment thus reducing the extent of role conflict and role ambiguity that cause stress. For example, in a work situation where high role conflict is created because of inconsistent demands from the superiors, the stress created by such high role conflict is reduced if the subordinates and superiors can participate and work together in reducing such inconsistencies.

Participation in decision making also helps in reducing role ambiguity and role overload resulting in reduced stress.

Interpersonal Relationships

The effectiveness of the organization is influenced by the nature of the relations among group members. One of the major sources of stress in organizational setting is poor interpersonal relationships, be it within the group or with superiors or subordinates. When interpersonal relationships are not very cordial, the employees develop a general sense of anxiety when they have to deal with each other or depend upon each other such as a group task or departmental meetings where they have to interact with each other.

Sayings like "too much familiarity breeds contempt" have validity in that too much prolonged contact with other people can cause stress. This stress is further intensified when the people we come in contact with are in distress themselves. For example, we

become distressed when our friends have problems. Parents are generally under great tension when their children do not do well in schools or when they get involved in drugs. For this reason, employees in such professions as health care and social services report the highest level of stress. According to Albrecht[12], doctors have the highest rate of alcoholism among all the professions and psychiatrists have the highest rate of suicide.

When a person has to deal with people in other departments, conflict may also occur. For example, assume that there is a professor from Business Division who is up for promotion that is to be decided by a committee comprised of representatives from all divisions. If the professor does not get the promotion he may feel that the representatives from the Humanities Division or Social Sciences Division do not appreciate the requirements in the Business Division, thus causing conflict and stress. As another example, the X-ray technicians in a hospital may not be able to deal with the service demands of the doctors and surgeons, thus creating stress and tension.

Much of the quality of interpersonal relationships also depends upon the organizational climate. An organizational climate may be conducive to a relaxed style of working or it may be tense and crisis-oriented. The employees are continuously tense, if the organizational climate in general is unfriendly, hostile or totally task oriented.

Personal Factors in Stress

Events in personal life cannot be isolated from events in work life. A person with an unhappy family life seldom expresses a positive attitude at work. Much of the stress brought about by non-work situations may be due to divorce, marriage, death of a loved one, financial difficulties and many other socio-cultural relationships. These difficulties are stress producers specially if they are unexpected. For example, we know that children leave home when they grow up or when they go to college so that this is expected and this separation does not necessarily cause stress. On the other side, problems at work can manifest in stress in personal life. Thus job stress and life stress are often related in that high stress in one area can induce or increase stress in the other.

Some of the specific non-work stressors are :

Job concern   Job and career variables can become stressors when they become sources of concern, anxiety or frustration to the individual. One of the major concerns is the lack of job security. Except for jobs with tenure or strong union support, very few employees have job security. This insecurity increases during times of recessions or impending recessions. The prospect of losing a job, specially when you have a family and your social roots are well-established, is very stressful.

Another reason for job related stress may be the perception of the employee regarding his status on the job. Persons who are not promoted when due or persons who feel that their jobs are beneath their qualifications may feel that they are not using their potential to the best and may become anxious about it. This is specially true for middle aged men and women when that time itself becomes a period of soul searching and self-doubt. Career progress then becomes a focal point.

Relocation   When an employee has to relocate geographically because of a transfer or promotion, it disrupts the routine of his daily life, causing concern and stress. The fear of working in a new location, unpredictability about new work environment, and the prospect of creating new relationships always cause some anxiety. Relocation also creates problems for the spouses and children of employees. They are also uprooted from schools, friends and jobs. It is specially difficult for them because generally the family moves with the husband's job and they do not have much say in it. The stress related to this geographic mobility is greater when the wife also has a job and she has to leave the job to go with the family. Uncertainty about getting a new job at the new location creates some degree of stress. Thus the more changes that occur in a person's social relationships and family life because of relocation, the greater the person's stress will be.

Changes in life structure The structure of life and process of living has many facets. Some of these facets are socio-cultural in nature such as family, religion, race, education, economic situation as well as a person's interaction with the socio-cultural world in the role of a husband, a parent, a friend or a citizen. In addition, the life structure may change as we grow older from one period to another such as childhood to adolescence and so on. As we grow older, our responsibility to ourselves as well as others changes and increases. The higher the responsibility, the greater the stress.

The extent of stress is also determined by the ability to cope with stress or the kind of sources a person seeks to deal with stress. For example, people who have strong faith in God and His Will find it easier to deal with such stressful situations as the loss of a loved one. Similarly, family and friends are source of great comfort at such times of crisis.

The pace of life would also determine whether a person's life is stable or turbulent. As the responsibilities increase, so does the capacity to execute them. Professions such as those of doctors or businessmen are more stressful and hectic than those of say, college teaching.

The degree of stress created by certain events in life can be assessed by "Social Readjustment Rating Scale" developed by Thomas Holmes and Richard Rake.[13] In order to construct the stress impact scale, they asked people to rate as to how long it would take to adjust to certain stressful events and how severe the adjustment to these events would be. From the responses, they developed a ranking and a weighting for each of these stress producing events. For example, the death of a spouse was considered to be the most stress producing event. The following table shows the ranking of some of these events.

Life Event	Weight
Death of a spouse	100
Divorce	73
Jail term	63
Death of a close family member	63
Marriage	50
Fired from work	47
Pregnancy	40
Sex difficulties	39
Child leaving home	29
Change in residence	20
Christmas	12

If an individual accumulates a large number of stressor points in a relatively short period of time, it is more likely that stress would be obvious. The higher the number of points, the more likely that stress will result in serious illness.

12.6 CONSEQUENCES OF JOB STRESS

As has been discussed, the conditions that create stressful situations for employees are fairly constant: fear of losing the job, work overload, lack of participation in decisions regarding their own work environment, non-supportive supervisors, and co-workers,

limited job opportunities and so on. The stress is acute specially for current generation middle managers whose jobs are more uncertain, and who have less control over their destinies as compared with senior level managers, Furthermore their stress coping capabilities are reduced because they are generally more mobile, less religious, marry later in life and have fewer children-factors that act as a buffer and reduce the impact of stress.

According to Business Week:[14]

"Stress. From the corner office to the factory floor, it is epidemic in US business. Competition, Bloody Monday layoffs, mergers and acquisitions—all are taking their toll in derailed careers, broken families and emotional disorders. Signs are everywhere. Employees drink to excess and slip disastrously in their performance. They erupt into fits of uncontrollable rage at work and abuse their families at home. A few commit suicide."

It is important to deal with stress at an early stage. Early warning signs such as headaches, back pain, irritability, insomnia, absenteeism from work or alcoholism should be taken seriously. Otherwise they could lead to serious emotional disorders as well as physiological problems such as ulcers and heart disease. When stress is left untreated for a long time, it can develop into anxiety and depression. According to Business Week again,[15] stress and depression share a common chemistry in the brain. A hormone called Corticotropin Releasing Hormone (CRH) puts a shield of defense against stress. Even after the stress subsides, the body keeps releasing the hormone, sometimes for years. When stress gets out of hand, it results in severe depression, and depression if untreated can be fatal. Depressed individuals make up some 60% of all suicides.

Physiological Reaction to Stress

High degree of stress is typically accompanied by severe anxiety, frustration and depression. There is evidence that work stress is associated with heart irregularities, high levels of blood pressure and high levels of cholesterol.[16] Studies conducted by Stole,[17] regarding the effects of a plant closing in Detroit showed an "alarming rise in anxiety and illness", with at least fifty per cent of employees suffering from ulcers, arthritis, serious hypertension, alcoholism and depression.

Some of the physiological symptoms of stress, anxiety and depression are as follows:[18]

Stress: Irritability, insomnia, alcohol and food abuse. Physical changes including rapid breathing and heart rate, tensed muscles. Prolonged stress can cause muscular twitches, skin problems, baldness and sexual problems such as impotence.

Anxiety: Excessive worry, irritability, anger, nervousness as well as inability to concentrate or sleep. Physical changes include palpitations, chest pain and dizziness.

Depression: Feelings of sadness, hopelessness, guilt and worthlessness, loss of interest in activities, change in appetite or weight, difficulty in concentrating and suicidal thoughts.

Also there is strong evidence that job stress contributes directly to life threatening diseases and in fact shortens one's life.[19]

12.7 STRESS AND JOB PERFORMANCE

One of the major concerns of management is the negative impact stress has on performance. People under high stress tend to withdraw from the contact with the stressor in the form of turnover and absenteeism. In extreme cases it may result in

sabotage. Workers sometimes create mechanical failure in order to take a break from strain of monotonous work. Any factor that causes negative effects on our physical and psychological well-being is also expected to affect our work behaviour. Exposure to strong and enduring stress influences important aspects of our behaviour at job thus affecting productivity.

The relationship between stress and performance appears to be rather complex. It is affected by the difficulty of the task being performed, the nature of the specific stressor involved and a wide range of personal and situational factors.[20] However, in general, productivity is considered to be at a peak with moderate level of stress. Performance is poor at low level of stress as well as at high level of stress. At low level of stress, the person may not be sufficiently energized and may not be whole-heartedly involved in his work, resulting in low productivity. As the level of stress increases from low levels to moderate levels, the performance level also increases to reach the peak level. An optimum level of stress exists for any task. If the stress continues to increase from this level, the person becomes too agitated and frustrated, resulting in performance deterioration.

It has been believed that the relationship between stress and performance is curvilinear. It follows an inverted U-shaped curve as shown previously and reproduced here.
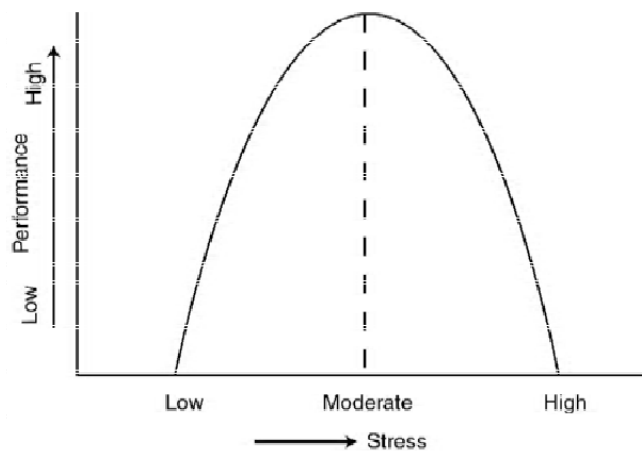
However, the validity of the clear-cut relationship is being questioned and some behaviour scientists believe that performance actually decreases when stress increases from low levels to moderate levels, even though the rate of decrease in performance is less than the rate of decrease when stress increases from moderate to high levels.[21] This relationship is shown as below:
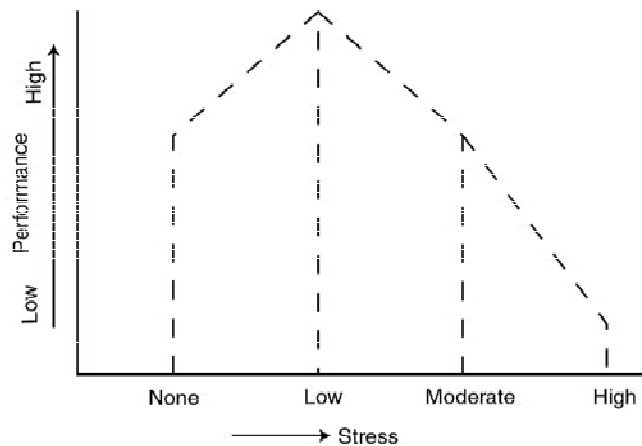
Stress also impairs the ability to make effective decisions. People under stress are in a state of irritation and are unable to concentrate. They become impatient and are more

likely to avoid or postpone making decisions. They are less likely to seek new information and are more likely to forget some important pieces of available information. As a result, the quality of decisions they make suffers, and the cost of a wrong decision can be very high.

12.8 JOB BURNOUT

Job burnout is the extreme case of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion, when stressors seem to be unavoidable and sources of relief seem to be unavailable. People feel totally drained and dread going to work. They develop negative feelings about their jobs and about their life in general.[22] This burnout is a direct result of prolonged exposure to intense stress.

Physical exhaustion results in general feelings of tiredness and people exhibit such symptoms as low energy, frequent headaches, sleeplessness and changes in eating habits.

Emotional exhaustion results in feelings of depression, helplessness, and hopelessness. People who are emotionally exhausted develop a feeling of worthlessness and tend to believe that life has no meaning or goal.

Mental exhaustion result in low self-esteem and develops negative attitudes towards life and job. People tend to feel inadequate and incompetent and they often dislike their colleagues, their co-workers or their clients.

Recent studies have shown that burnout seems to be the most common among professionals who must deal extensively with other people. Job burnout is most visible among professionals such as managers, lawyers, nurses, accountants and social workers. It has been estimated that 20% of such professionals suffer from job burnout.[23]

12.9 COPING WITH STRESS

We know that some stress is necessary for optimum efficiency. We also have a general idea as to the level of stress that is destructive to job performance. Accordingly, it is necessary for individuals, as well as management to take steps to reduce stress to acceptable levels.

Individual Strategies

It is necessary for physical and psychological well-being of the person to reduce or eliminate the negative effects of stress. It is possible to manage stress, at least in the sense that a person can either avoid stressful conditions, change them or learn to cope with them. There are a number of ways by which stress can be managed so that the person has control over his life. Some of these strategies deal with the individual himself and focus on improving his physical and mental strength to deal with stress from all sources and some strategies deal specifically with job related stress.

Some of the stress reducing strategies that strengthen the individual's well-being are:

Readjust life goals   Because of the severe competition to "get ahead", most individuals set very high standards and goals for themselves. They are always trying to do too much in too little time. They have tremendous fear of failing and they are running to nowhere. These high expectations and limited resources to reach such expectations result in stress. Accordingly, people must readjust their goals and make sure they have the ability and proper resources to reach such goals. Perhaps the goals should be established after resources have been analysed.

Social support   There is a saying that, "a friend in need is a friend indeed". Good friends become highly supportive during the times of stress and crisis. Close and reliable friends may give a sympathetic hearing to your problems, a more objective assessment of the situation and support your sagging self-confidence or self-esteem. Many people turn to God for support during times of difficulties, believing God to be their "best friend". The idea of confession to a priest in the Catholic religion is primarily meant to receive moral support for stress created by some individual actions. Thus God, priests, family, friends can all be a source of great comfort during times of stress.

Plan your life in advance   While the attitude of "whatever will be, will be" is a way to accept the unexpected difficulties in life, it is better to project events in life and plan to confront them when they occur. Many times, people create situations that induce stress because they either did not plan or they did a bad job of planning. For example, students who plan the pace of their studies during the semester seldom find exams excessively stressful. Accordingly, if we plan the proper utilization of our resources of time and money, the chances are that we will have *less stress.*

Physiological fitness   There is evidence to suggest that individuals who exercise and so strengthen their endurance and cardiovascular system, are much less likely to suffer from certain types of stress-related illnesses.[24] As the correlation between physical fitness and stress resistance has become clear, many organizations have added facilities for physical exercise in their premises. With proper exercise, diet control and non-smoking habits, blood pressure and cholesterol levels become low and the body becomes more resistant to pressures. People are more likely to get physically sick or emotionally depressed if they are overweight or poorly nourished.

Yoga   During the last twenty-five years, there has been a growing interest in yoga as a stress reduction strategy. The word "yoga" means union and according to Amarjit Sethi,[25] it "implies union with the ultimate where the process of desiring has come to an end and where stress is non-existent". To a common man, yoga is a structured set of exercises and body movements with deep breathing and mind concentration, so that it is a way of getting away from the stressors. To a serious student of yoga, it is a methodology to integrate body and mind forces to bring them into a state of harmony with the ultimate goal of being in unison with the Infinite. At the lower levels of physical and mental fitness, yoga consists of certain postural habits (known as asanas) and these postures are non-dynamic, passive and stable, resulting in increased flexibility of skeletal structure. This in turn stimulates the nervous system. Accordingly, with proper "asanas" and controlled breathing, the neuromuscular coordination is strengthened, affecting glandular activity that is responsible for physical as well as mental health. Thus the development of a sound mind in a sound body improves the stress coping capabilities.

Meditation

Meditation involves concentration of mind away from stress producing areas, siting in a comfortable position, closing the eyes and clearing the mind from all disturbing thoughts. Any form of concentration that redirects our thought processes away from daily concerns can be considered meditation. Primarily, it involves silently repeating a single syllable or "mantra" over and over gain. This concentration on "mantra" shuts out other distractions and results in physical and mental relaxation at its peak. The place of meditation should be such that the meditator is not disturbed by any outside force such as telephone, children or visitors. This technique was popularised by Maharishi Mahesh Yogi, an Indian mystic, and the method is known as "Transcendental Meditation" or TM.

Another form of meditation that has grown popular is Benson's method or "Relaxation Response.[26]" This technique is similar to TM and is designed to elicit "relaxation response" that is considered to be opposite to "stress response". The basic idea is to block extraneous and distracting thoughts from one's mind. It is a form of breathing meditation, where the meditator consciously thinks of a word or a symbol on every out

breath. The idea is to dwell upon a particular word or sound or to gaze at a symbol or even concentrate on a particular feeling. Relaxation response should become an integral part of behaviour so that life stresses are effectively countered. Benson recommends "relaxation response" breaks instead of coffee breaks to rejuvenate workers.

Biofeedback Biofeedback is a methodology designed to alter undesirable physiological responses through psychological strategies. Sophisticated electronic instruments are used to measure small undesirable changes caused by stress. Then a state of relaxation is induced in order to bring back such bodily functions to a normal non-stress state. For example, whenever blood pressure is registered as too high, individuals then try to relax to bring the blood pressure down. This tendency to relax is voluntary on the part of the individual. The potential benefit of biofeedback is the human ability to bring some of the bodily functions under voluntary control. These functions include heart rates, brain waves, muscle tension, blood pressure and stomach acidity. Changes in these functions are most often caused by stress. By measuring these changes precisely through the system of biofeedback, an individual can respond to these changes effectively. Thus stress management can be voluntarily practiced by individuals.

Organizational Strategies for Coping with Stress

While it is necessary for individuals to design their own strategies to reduce stress to an acceptable level, it is equally important for organizations to develop programs that will help employees reduce their stress. This will help in controlling employee turnover, absenteeism, and as a result, productivity will improve. Some of the steps that organizations can take are:

Health maintenance Many organizations provide facilities at their premises for physical fitness such as gyms, swimming pools, as well as psychological caunselling. They hold seminars, workshops and lectures to help employees in understanding the nature and sources of stress, its ramifications and possible ways to reduce its negative effects. Workshops are designed in a manner that they are therapeutic in nature to help individuals who are already experiencing stress problems. Most programmes involve one or more of the following techniques: biofeedback, meditation, muscular relaxation exercises, and skill training areas such as time management, interpersonal skills, training to think positively about life and its problems and looking at sources of stress realistically and analytically.[27]

Selection and placement The basic hiring process should be based upon matching of skills, personality and work requirements. Being placed in a job that is not compatible with your ability and temperament, can be highly frustrating and stress producing. The applicants should be hired not only on the basis of educational background and past relative experience but the criteria for selection could also include the applicant's ability to handle role ambiguity and role conflict when present. Accordingly, during the process of hiring, some personality tests can be designed to evaluate the candidate's stamina for stress.

Job enrichment Redesigning the job should be in such a manner as to use the maximum potential of the employee with emphasis on employee involvement in such redesigning. This will help reduce stress caused by monotony, routine work, role ambiguity, work overload or underload. Job enrichment enhances motivation and leads to more challenging assignment, improved task significance, more responsibility, more meaningful work and more control of the employee over his own work environment. It also improves feedback to the employee regarding his performance and this will reduce uncertainty. Since stress occurs when work is important and there is some uncertainty surrounding it, a redesigned job will help overcome this stress and enhance "quality of work life".

Effective and equitable performance appraisal and reward systems It is necessary that performance be appraised in an objective and non-biased manner and the rewards be clearly and proportionately related to performance. The employee must know what is expected of him and for what exactly he is responsible and accountable. This will reduce role conflict. Employees' contribution to the organization must be well recognised, appreciated and rewarded. This will instill enthusiasm and a sense of dedication and belonging which in itself is a stress fighting phenomenon. This also strengthens the bonds of interpersonal relationships between the employees and the superiors and helps in clear and open communication.

Participation in decision making If the employees are invited to participate in making decisions involving their own work setting, within the organizational guideliness, this would make the employees feel that they are their own boss, a factor that is associated with less negative reactions to stress. Participation increases job involvement and reduces ambiguity and conflict—the two stress producing agents. This would also result in closer cooperation among superiors and subordinates and a better work environment, especially when the superiors support their subordinates.

Building teamwork The management must create a work environment in which the members of the work group consider themselves as members of the same family. There should be no provision for interpersonal conflict within the group nor for conflict between an individual and the group. Such conflicts are causes of stress and should be prevented from building or eliminated if they develop. Accordingly, such groups should be developed that are more productive and mutually supportive. Members of the group would seek each other for social support, which is a necessary ingredient for diluting stress.

12.10 SUMMARY

Stress is believed to be a state of mind as well as body, created by certain biochemical reactions in the human body as well as psychological responses to situations, and it is reflected by a sense of anxiety, tension and depression and is caused by such demands by the environmental forces or internal forces that cannot be met by the resources available to the person. The greater the gap between the demands and the resources, the greater is the degree of stress.

The stress caused by pleasant surprises and successful effects is known as eustress and the stress caused by undesirable outcomes is known as distress. It is distress that requires adjustment and measures of change. Any type of stress elicits responses that are physiological, psychological, and behavioural in nature. This process is known as the General Adaptation Syndrome. Physiological responses that are negative include increase in blood sugar, increase in heart beat and possible breakdown of the body's immune system. Psychological and behavioural responses include irritation, depression, a sense of futility, increased use of alcohol, smoking and sometimes drugs. Stress is basically manifested in frustration and anxiety.

There are many sources from where stress can emanate. There are stress factors that are intrinsic to the nature of the job. The job could be such that the employee would have little control over his operations. The job related stress factors include conditions of work, role ambiguity, role confilict, role overload, role underload, responsibility for people, responsibility for equipment, job related social interaction and so on. The personal factors causing stress include concerns about job security, geographic relocation because of transfer or change in job, changes in life structure because of age and family cycle and certain negative expected or unexpected events.

Job stress has negative consequences upon health and psychological well-being. Some of the early symptoms of stress are headaches, back pain, irritability, insomnia,

absenteeism from work, alcoholism, and so on. Continuous stress can lead to serious emotional disorders as well as physiological problems such as ulcers and heart disease. Deep and continuous depression caused by continuous stress can be fatal. Statistics have shown that depressed individuals make up about 60% of all the suicides.

Stress is directly related to job performance. Performance is poor at low levels of stress as well as at high level of stress. Low level of stress results in disinterest in work and high level of stress impairs the ability to make effective decisions and the cost of a wrong decision can be very high.

Some of the individual strategies for coping with stress include: readjustment of life goals, support from family and friends, planning certain events of life in advance and keeping body in good physiological shape by proper diet, exercise, yoga, meditation and biofeedback. Some of the organizational strategies for coping with stress include organised health maintenance facilities as a part of organizational life, matching of employees qualifications with job requirements, job enrichment and job work redesigns, equitable performance appraisal and reward systems, participation in organizational decision making and building team spirit in the sense that there should be no interpersonal conflict within the group.

All these strategies or a combination thereof should be applied to make the work environment less stressful to a level that is positive and challenging.

12.11 EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

1. Differentiate between "eustress" and "distress." What factors are responsible for causing "eustress"? Are these factors sudden developments or do they develop gradually?

2. Explain the General Adaptation Syndrome. What are the various stages in the development of this syndrome and what responses can be developed to address each stage?

3. Explain in detail the physiological, psychological and behavioural responses to stress.

4. Explain in detail various sources of stress specifically related to organizational environment. How would you rank these sources in order of producing various degrees of stress?

5. Differentiate between role ambiguity and role conflict. What steps can be taken to eliminate this ambiguity and conflict so as to reduce stress?

6. How does responsibility for people become a source of stress? Would this stress be reduced if employees were made more responsible for their own activities? Support your reasons.

7. What are some of the personal factors that contribute to stress? Are these personal factors genetic to some degree? If so, classify those factors that are genetic in nature and those that are learned from the environment.

8. Explain in detail some of the consequences of job stress both in physiological as well as psychological terms.

9. Explain in detail some of the personal strategies in coping with stress. Stress the importance of each of these strategies.

10. Explain in detail some of the organizational strategies in coping with stress. Stress the importance of each of these strategies.

12.12 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Stress is a state of mind that reflects certain biochemical reactions in the human body and is projected by a sense of anxiety, tension and depression and is caused by such demands by the environmental forces or internal forces that cannot be met by the

resources available to the person. The intensity of such demands that require a readjustment of resources or operational styles would determine the extent of stress.

2. There are two types of sources of stress: Organizational sources and personal sources. Organizational sources include: Role ambiguity, Role conflict, Role overload, Role underload, Responsibility for people, Lack of participation and personal sources include: Job concern, Relocation, Changes in life structure.

3. Some of the stress reducing strategies are: Readjust life goals, Social support, Plan your life in advance, Physiological fitness, Yoga, Meditation, Biofeedback.

4. The various steps taken by any organization to reduce stress are: Health maintenance, Selection and placement, Job enrichment, Efective and equitable performance appraisal and reward systems, Participation in decision making, uilding teamwork.

12.13 FURTHER READING

1. Johns, Gary, *Organizational Behavior: Understanding Life at Work*, Scott Foresman and Company.

2. Mintzberg, Henry, *The Nature of Managerial Work*, Harper & Row.

3. Wren, W.A., *The Evolution of Management Thought*, John Wiley & Sons.

4. Chandan, J.S. '*Organizational Behaviour*', Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd.

CASE STUDY

Mrs. Batra has been working in the administration department of a hospital in Mumbai for the last 20 years. She is highly dedicated to her job and has a very good rapport with her superiors and co-workers. About eight months ago, she was promoted into the upper ranks of management and was assigned to the supply department of the hospitals as a manager. Everybody was happy for her and congratulated her on her promotion. The employees in this new department welcomed her and promised her all the cooperation. Mrs. Batra finds the job very challenging and psychologically rewarding.

She is a very good manager and an interesting person. Everyone in her department likes to come to work because Mrs. Batra makes the day interesting. Since she became the manager, absenteeism is down by over 20 per cent. She has a very pleasant personality and is always available to help her subordinates. She is efficient, responsible and responds to all communication in a timely manner. She attends all meetings fully prepared to discuss all issues under consideration. This is, she was, at least until last month.

During the last month, she seems to have changed considerably for the worse. Both her superiors and her subordinates find her behaviour strange. She is not as polite and amicable as she used to be. Last week she missed a very important meeting of the top administrators. She was requested to research an issue and prepare the material to present at the weekly meeting. She did not do so. She is often late to work and does not take much interest in the communication she receives from superiors and other departments and does not respond to these memorandums in a timely manner. She has become aloof and seems tired most of the time.

The Director of the hospital, Mr. Verma, noticed this change in her behaviour early and has been covertly monitoring her behaviour for the last three weeks. Early today, Mr. Verma had a talk with one of the in-house psychiatrists explaining Mrs. Batra's changing work behaviour patterns. The psychiatrist, Dr. Rekhi suggested that perhaps she has been over-working herself and takes her job too seriously. Mr. Verma suggested to Dr. Rekhi that he should talk to Mrs. Batra and find out if there were any difficult situations at home that might be affecting her behaviour. Mrs. Batra has been married for over 20 years and has no children. Mr. Verma is concerned that Mrs. Batra ought to get help before she suffers a total collapse. Dr. Rekhi promised to do so.

Questions

1. What are some of the symptoms of overload? Does, Mrs. Batra seem to suffer from over-working conditions? Explain your reasons.
2. Given this information, do you think that there may be marital problems at her home that are affecting her work? Could it also be that her work is affecting her family life that is further affecting her work? Justify your speculations.
3. It seems that Mrs. Batra is suffering from stress syndrome. If you were her close friend, what steps would you take to find out the real reasons for her stress and how would you handle such a delicate issue?

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