School of Management Studies

UNIT - I: ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR - SBAA1306

UNIT – I

Introduction to Organizational Behavior – Importance of Organizational Behavior Key elements of Organizational Behavior- Foundation or Approaches to Organizational Behavior, Challenges and Opportunities for OB -Organizational Design and Structure, Basic elements of Organizational Structure, Types of Organizational Design.

ORGANISATION:

An organization is a group of people working together in a formally organized way to achieve a common objective. The main objective is profit maximization.

Features of an organization:-

- Group of people
- Formally organized people/structure
- Co-ordination among people
- Rationality
- Purposefully created to achieve a common goal

BEHAVIOUR:

It is how a person behaves. It is an observable and measurable activity of human being.

ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Definition: - Stephen P Robbins

'It is a field of study that investigates the impact those individuals, groups; structures have on behavior within the organization, for the purpose of applying such knowledge towards improving organizational effectiveness'.

Hence based on the definition we can say that

- ☐ OB is a field of study
- ☐ It studies individuals, groups and structures
- ☐ It applies the knowledge to improve organizational effectiveness.

Therefore Organization Behavior is concerned with two aspects:-

- ☐ How people behave in an organization?
- ☐ How their behavior does affect their performance?

Definition–Keith Davis

"Organizational Behavior is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within the organization".

Definition: - Stephen P Robbins

'It is a field of study that investigates the impact that individual, groups, structures have on behavior
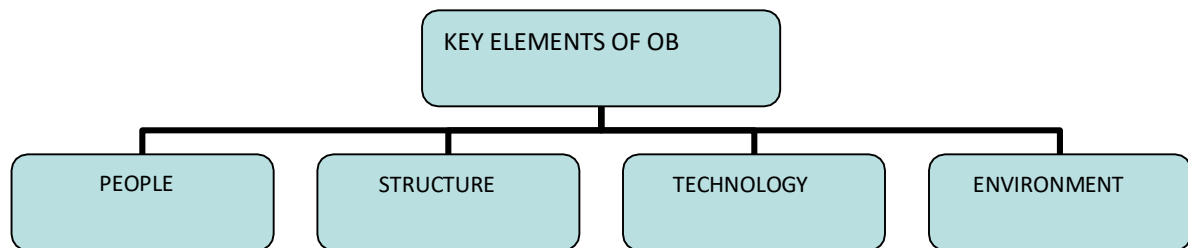
within the organization, for the purpose of applying such knowledge towards improving organizational effectiveness'.

Hence based on the definition we can say that

- OB is a field of study

- It studies individuals, groups and structures

- It applies the knowledge to improve organizational effectiveness. Therefore Organization Behavior is concerned with two aspects:-

- How people behave in an organization?

- How their behavior does affect their performance?

"Organizational Behavior is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within the organization". Definition – Keith Davis

KEY ELEMENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

```
                      ┌──────────────────────┐
                      │   KEY ELEMENTS OF OB  │
                      └──────────┬───────────┘
          ┌──────────────┬───────┴───────┬──────────────┐
    ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐   ┌──────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
    │  PEOPLE  │  │ STRUCTURE│   │TECHNOLOGY│   │ ENVIRONMENT  │
    └──────────┘  └──────────┘   └──────────┘   └──────────────┘
```

OB studies the following aspects

➢ People: Individuals & Groups

➢ Structure: Official Relationship

➢ Technology: Physical, Economic resources

➢ Environment: Political, Legal an Natural

NATURE OF OB

1. **It is just a field of study and not a discipline:** OB is accepted science with theoretical foundation and it serves as a base of research. It is a recent field of study which has its origin from management. It is broad based and inter disciplinary in nature. Hence it is not a discipline but a field of study.

2. It is interdisciplinary in nature: It is broad based and inter disciplinary in nature because it has its origin from subjects like psychology, sociology, anthropology, medical sciences, political science etc., It is normative science and value centered :(cause and effect application):A positive science analyses only the cause and effect relationship but a normative science analyses the cause and effect and also its application to achieve organizational results. It is also value centered as it analyses what is acceptable to employees based on the values they have.

3. It is applied science: The principles of OB are proven and can be applied to solve organizational problems.

4. It has humanistic approach: OB considers human feelings, their values and attitudes and considers that human beings are not machines and they too are cared for.

5. It has optimistic approach: It has positive approach and views that the employees well contribute positively to achieve the objectives of the organization. **It is directed towards achievement of organizational objectives:** Organizational objectives are given more importance than individual objectives.

6. It has rational approach: It believes that there is a reason being every behavior of man and works on the same formula.

7. It is developmental in nature: It aims at the development of its employees and helps them to attain their goals.

8. It is part of management science: OB is a study that has emerged from the discipline of management .Hence is a part of management science.

9. **It is both science and art:** OB is both science and art .It is science because, like science OB is also a systematic body of knowledge, its analyses is also consistent in nature, it can be systematically explained and critically evaluated, the analyses are based on the findings of management theorists.

It is art because it is related to bringing desired result, it is application of skills like leadership skills, managerial skills, training skills etc.,

10. It has total systems approach: It takes all variables in consideration. It studies individuals and groups in formal and informal relations in organizations.

FOUNDATIONS OF OB / BASIC CONCEPT OF OB

1. **Individual differences exist**: Every individual has a unique personality, which is stable in nature. Hence each person is different from the other based on his physiological, psychological

and social characteristics. Three aspects should taken care while studying human behavior:

2. **Behavior is caused:** Behavior is what a person does and it is cause and effect relationship. It means that there is a reason behind every single behavior on any individual. Hence the cause should be evaluated by the manager in an organization.

3. **Behavior is complex:** Though OB believes that behavior is caused, yet it is very difficult to understand human behavior.

4. **Value of a person**: Human value is given importance. It means one should be treated with respect and dignity. Values and attitudes should be considered. Men at workplace should be considered

5. **Whole person concept**

The concept states that a individual employed by the organization is cannot be separated form his personal life aspects .Though an organization employs a person's skill & brain in his organization, yet it is a fact that an individual cannot be separated from his home life and work life.

6. **Role of a person**

A role is a pattern of actions expected of a person in activities involving others. Each individual plays different roles in his life time.(Parent, son , Friend , Spouse, team member, supervisor, follower, advisor, consumer, investor etc.,).Hence it becomes necessary for him to understand the role clearly and act accordingly.

7. **Difference between individual behavior and group behavior:**

Individual behavior may be good but group behavior may be bad .Group behavior may be good but Individual behavior may be bad. As Individual behavior may vary form group behavior, human behavior should be studied in both the aspects.

SCOPE OF OB

OB can be studied in three different levels: -

1. Individual-

    - Intra Individual- Understanding human behaviour i.e. how and why an individual behaves and to understand the factors affecting human behaviour

    - Inter Individual- To understand the working relationships, role analysis and

transaction analysis of individual with others.

2. Group

- Intra Group – understand the group pressure on individuals , influence of group norms on individuals , communication process in organization.

- Inter Group – Relationship between groups, achievement of group objectives and group objectives.,

3.Organization:

- Intra- Organization- use of human power in organizations , leadership qualities,munication in organization.

- Inter –Organization- organization change, external relationships, Development standards and concepts for future, Scientific and rational approach to Human Behavior.

Disciplines contributing to Organizational Behavior

1. **Sociology:** It is the study of people in relation to their fellow human beings, The field of sociology has made valuable contributions in the study of group of individuals, group dynamics, formation of groups, communication, formal and informal organizations etc.,

2. **Anthropology:** It is the study of societies to learn about human beings and their activities. It helps us to understand values, attitudes and behavior between people in different regions and organizations.

3. **Economics:** It is the science that deals with the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services, or the material welfare of humankind.

4. **History:** It is the study of the origin and evolution of mankind. It help us to understand the behavior of people and their origins

5. **Political science:** It helps us to study the current political and legal scenario and the role of the study of human behavior under the current situations.

ORGANISATIONAL DESIGN AND ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

Organizational design

Organizational design is the process of aligning the structure of an organization with its objectives, with the ultimate aim of improving efficiency and effectiveness.

A company will choose their organizational structure based on their needs. The organizational design will reflect a structure that aligns to the business at any given moment in time.

More than designing a structure, it involves:

- Understanding the imperative for change and the environment
- Understanding the business processes, workflows, roles and responsibilities, volumes of work, activity analysis and resources
- Designing and testing new models or structures
- Planning and managing the transition from the old structure to the new
- Implementing and monitoring the change

ELEMENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL DESIGN

1. **Departmentalization**

   Departmentalization is a process wherein jobs/teams are combined together into functional units called as departments on the basis of their area of specialization, to achieve the goals of the organisation . It also refers to how the organizational structure groups the company's functions, offices and teams. Departments are usually sorted on the basis of the kinds of tasks the workers in each department perform. It can also be divided based on product or brand lines, geographic locations or even customer needs.

2. **Chain of Command**

   The chain of command in a company refers to the different levels of command within the organization. It starts with the top position such as CEO or the business owner, all the way down to the front-line workers. Companies create a chain of command in order to flow instructions downward and accountability upward by providing each level of workers with a supervisor.

3. Span of Control

   An organization's span of control defines how many employees each manager is responsible for within the company. There is no single type of span of control that's ideal for all companies or even for all businesses in a specific industry. The optimal span will depend on a number of factors, including the size of the workforce, how the company is divided into departments and even the company's specific business goals and strategies. Based on the manager's individual style or

approach, the span of control could range from three or four to 15 or more. Of course, managers who are placed higher up the chain of command typically have a tighter span of control, as they are directly responsible for middle-manager or team leaders.

4. **Centralization and Decentralization**

    Centralizing authority in a business means concentration of power with the higher authority where the middle management is left with little to no input about the goals the company sets. This system is typical in larger corporate organizations, as well as at companies in more conservative industries.. A decentralized system allows all levels of management the opportunity to give input on big-vision goals and objectives. Larger, company-wide decisions are still generally reserved to C-level officers, but departmental managers enjoy a greater degree of latitude in how their teams operate.

5. **Work Specialization**

    In any business, employees at all levels typically are given a description of their duties and the expectations that come with their positions. In larger companies, job descriptions are generally formally adopted in writing. This approach helps ensure that the company's specific workforce needs are met, without any unnecessary duplication of effort. Work specialization ensures that all employees have specific duties that they are expected to perform based on each employee's work experience, education and skills. This prevents an expectation that employees will perform tasks for which they have no previous experience or training and to keep them from performing beneath their capacities.

6. **Formalization**

    Finally, organizational structures implement some degree of formalization. This element outlines inter organizational relationships. Formalization is the element that determines the company's procedures, rules and guidelines as adopted by management. Formalization also determines company culture aspects, such as whether employees have to sign in and out upon arriving and exiting the office, how many breaks workers can take and how long those breaks can be, how and when employees can use company computers and how workers at all levels are expected to dress for work.

ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

An organization structure explains the position and official relationships between the various individuals working in an organization

TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

1. Line organizational structure
2. Line and Staff organizational Structure
3. Functional organizational Structure
4. Matrix organizational Structure
5. Project organizational Structure
6. Committee organizational Structure

LINE ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

It is the simplest form of organization Structure. It resembled old military organizations.

- Line organization is direct and people at different levels know to whom they are accountable.

- Any enterprise that starts small probably starts with line type of organization. . There is a vertical downwards flow of authority and an upward flow of responsibility in such an organization

- The authority flows directly from the Works Manager to Superintendent to Foreman and from them to workers.

- The authority is greatest at the top and reduces through each successive level down the organizational scale. It is known as military organization.

- Here the superior at the top makes decisions and communicates his decisions and assigns certain work to his immediate subordinate.

- There is a vertical downwards flow of authority and an upward flow of responsibility in such an organization.

Line Organisation Structure

Merits:

- There is no complicated relationship in this organization . it can easily be understood by anyone. It clearly defines the authority and responsibility of each individual.

- Each person knows clearly whom he should report to and who should report to him. There is unity of command i.e. a subordinate gets orders from one superior only.

- It provides scope for better supervision. This ensures greater discipline.
  Demerits

- It lacks specialization..

- The line managers are overburdened with lot of work..

- It is always downward communication as result the subordinates may lose initiative. The line managers enjoy monopoly in the matter of decision making.

Line organization has been found to be very good for small organization that employs few workers
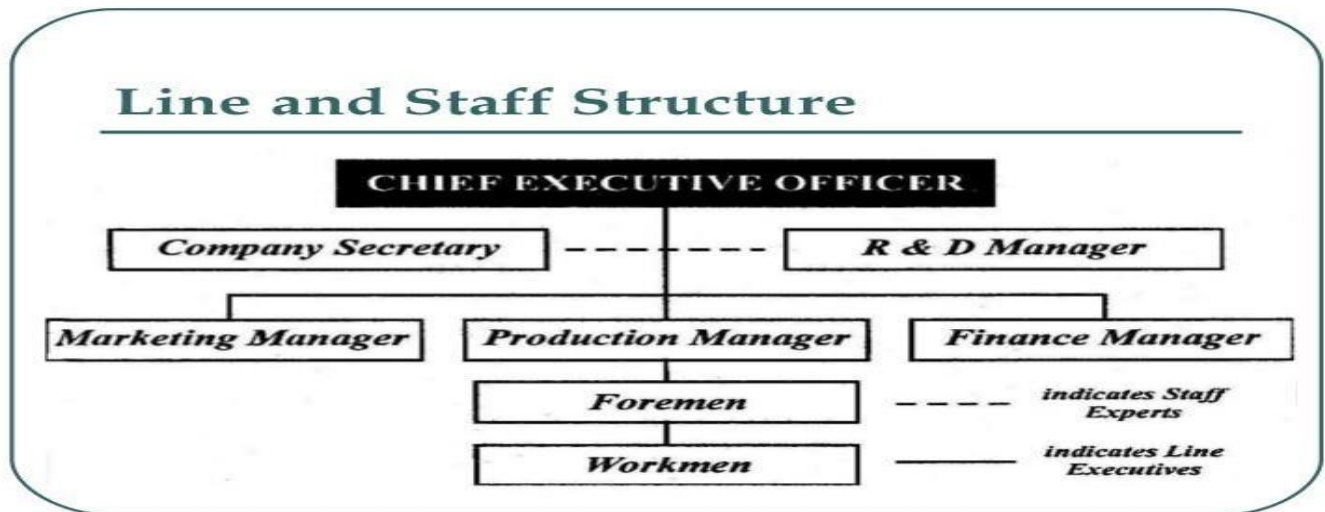
1. LINE AND STAFF ORGANIZATION:

In this type of organization staff experts are specialists in specific areas, assist the line personnel.

The experts do not have the powers to command and subordinates other than those who are under their direct control .

The staff experts to can advice the line personnel on certain matters but they do not have authority to take decision on vital issues.

It is for the line manager to decide whether to accept the suggestion of the staff specialist or not. The staff experts provide relief to the line personnel when the latter are over burdened with work.

Line and Staff Structure

CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER

Company Secretary - - - - + - - - - R & D Manager

Marketing Manager   Production Manager   Finance Manager

Foremen   - - - - indicates Staff Experts

Workmen   ——— indicates Line Executives

Merits

Staff experts provide support to the line personnel. This provides line executives to   perform well. The line executive gets relief from work burden.

- The suggestion given by the staff experts helps to take better decisions.
- As every executive performs only a specific task he is able to do it with full concentration.

Demerits

- Conflicts often arise between the line and staff executives.
- The staff experts do not have the authority to make decisions they can only advice .
- The line and the staff pattern of the organization would enhance the cost of cooperation.

2.FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

- Functional organization structure is were "authority rests with the functional heads; the structure is sectioned by departmental groups.
- "The organization is divided into a number of functional areas.

- This organization has grouping of activities in accordance with the functions of anorga nization such as production, marketing, finance, humanresource and so on.

- The specialist in charge of a functional department has the authority over all other employees for his function.

- It is a kind of Formal Organization whose structure is based on organizing resources to perform specialized tasks or activities in order to attain the goals of organization.

- This structure emerges from the idea that the organization must perform certain functions in order to carry on it's operations.

- Functional structure is created by grouping the activities on the basis of functions required for the achievement of organizational objectives.

- It is suitable for large scale organization.

   Characteristics of Functional Organization
   1. Functional authority relationship
   2. Limited span of management
   3. Line and staff division
   4. Organization growth through emphasis on sub goals
   5. Specialization on functional areas

(Black boxes represent staff engaged in project activities.)
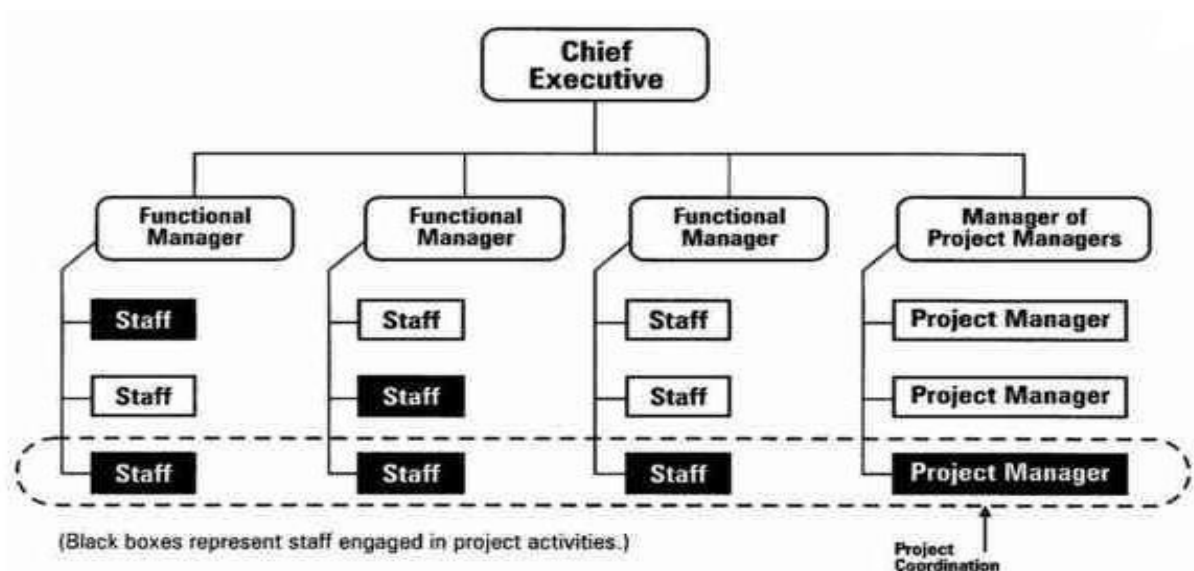
Merit

1. It promotes specialization, each department specialize in a particular line of work
2. Each functional head looks after specific activities so no burden.

3. Better control.

4. each individual concentrates on a particular task so maximum efficiency

Demerits

1. more number of departments and divisions

2. difficult to control and co ordinate

3. delay in arriving in decisions

4. Expensive to adopt

4.MATRIX ORGANISATION STRUCTURE

- Matrix organisation combines two structures – functional departmentation and project structure.

- Functional department is a permanent feature of the matrix structure and retains authority for overall operation of the functional units.

- Project teams are created whenever specific projects require a high degree of technical skill and other resources for a temporary period.

- Project team form the horizontal chain and functional departments create a vertical chain of command.

- Members of a particular team are drawn from the functional departments and are placed under the direction of a project manager who has the overall responsibility of a particular project. Matrix organizations are used in industries with highly complex product systems for example, aerospace industry where project teams are created for specific space or weapon systems. Suitable where a large number of small projects will have to be managed.

- A matrix organization is also known as a multiple command system as it has two chains of command, ie the flow of authority is both vertical and horizontal .

- These departments have to share the resources with the rest of the organization.

Advantage

- Is oriented towards end results.

- Professional identification is maintained

- Pinpoints product-profit responsibility

Disadvantages

- ☐ Conflict in organization authority exists.

- ☐ Possibility of disunity of command exists

‒ Requires manager effective in human relations

Figure 3
Matrix Structure
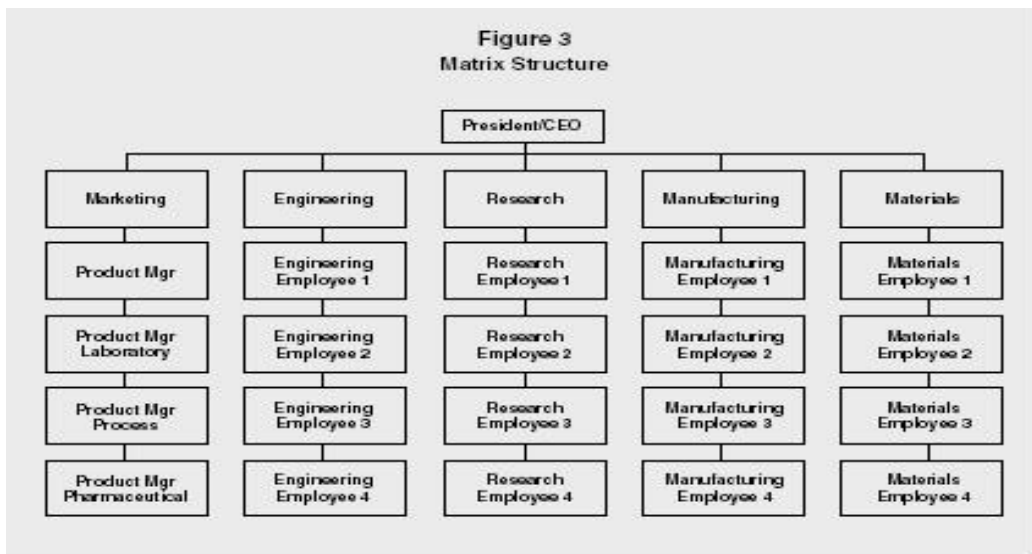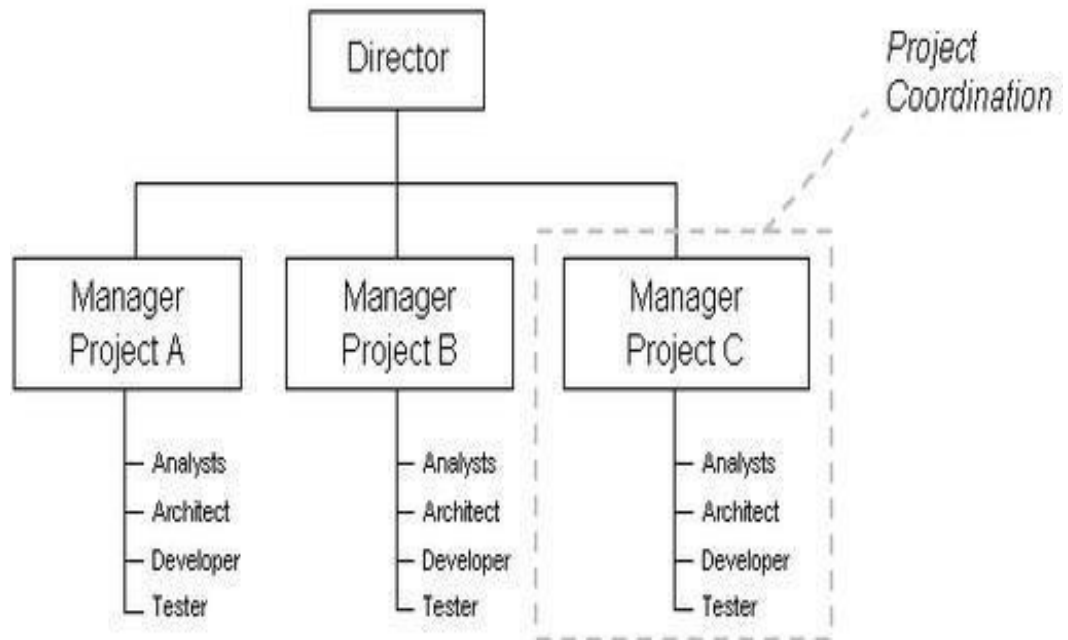
5.PROJECT ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

- The project structure consists of a number of horizontal organizational units to complete projects of a long duration.
- A team of specialists from different areas is created for each project.
- Usually this team is managed by the project manager.
- The project staff is separate from and independent of the functional departments.

Advantages

☐ Special attention can be provided to meet the complex demand of the project.

☐ It allows maximum use of specialist knowledge thus chances of failure are very less.

☐ Project staff works as a team towards common goal which results in high motivation level for its members.

Disadvantages

As the project staff consists of personnel from diverse fields, it might be quite challenging for the project manager to coordinate among them.

Project Coordination

6. COMMITTEE ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE:

Committee Organization is a group of persons entrusted with a certain tasks. The committee organization members are expected to discuss certain problem and come with a solution.. Eg. board of directors in a company. The committee may meet at regular intervals and discuss the progress of work at a various levels.

Characteristics of committee organization

- A committee is a group of persons there should be at least two persons.
- There is no limitation on the maximum number of persons.
- However, if number of persons rises above seven, communication tends to become centralized because committee members do not have adequate opportunity to communicate directly with one another.
- A committee is charged with dealing with specific problems and it cannot go in for actions in all spheres of activities.
- There are strictly defined jurisdictions within which a committee is expected to justify its existence. Beyond these limited spheres a committee is doomed to fail as an organ of action.
- Members of the committee have authority to go into details of the problems.
- This authority usually is expressed in terms of one vote for each member.
- A committee have the authority either to take a final decision or it may merely decision or it may merely deliberate on problems without authority to decide.

15

- A committee may be constituted at any level of organization.
- Moreover, the members of a committee may be drawn from various levels. Usually in such a case, all the members of the committee enjoy equal authority

Types of committees:

A) **Standing Committee**: is never dissolved, there may be changes in membership. The committee remains always. Eg.. The board of directors in a company.

B) **Temporary Committee**: this one is created for a specific purpose. As soon as the purpose has been accomplished the committee stands dissolved. Eg. if there is a strike in the organization it forms a committee.

C) **Executive Committee**: a Executive committee is one that has powers to make important decisions for the enterprise. Eg. Board of directors.

D) **Advisory Committee**: this committee can only make suggestions. It does not have the powers to make decisions.

E) **Formal committee**: this is one that is constituted as per the values and policies of the organization. It has hierarchy. It functions according to the lines of authority.

F) **Informal committee**: this is the one that is not constituted as per the rules and policies of the organization. Such a committee is the outcome of informal meetings of the workers to discuss their work related problems.

Advantages:

1. Scope for group judgment
2. Secure proper co ordination
3. Committee members feel motivated when they participate in the discussion
4. Committee functions as a democratic organization.
5. Problems that cannot be solved by individual will have to be referred to a committee.

Disadvantages:

1. Expensive
2. More time for discussions
3. Sometimes compromise decision made.

School of Management Studies

UNIT – II: ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR -SBAA1306

UNIT II - INDIVIDUAL IN THE ORGANIZATION:

Personality concept – Determinants, personality traits- Perception- Concept-Process, Distortion, Selectivity, Implications- Learning –Theory, Reinforcement principles, Behavior Modification, Creativity, Attitude and Values-Formation, Measurement, Change, Beliefs and Values

PERSONALITY

The term personality has been derived from the Latin term person which means to 'speak through'. It refers to the mask worn by actors in ancient Greece or Rome in plays which signifies the role which the actor displays to the public. Personality of an individual is unique personal and a major determinant of his behaviour.

Meaning: Personality is the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others.

Definitions: Carl Rogers views personality in terms of self, an organized, permanent, subjectively perceived entity.

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

It refers to what an individual really is, as an internal 'something' that guides and directs all human activities.

"It is better to consider individual aspects of personality as bricks and total personality as a house made of bricks"   James

Factors Influencing Individual Behavior

- Implications of Individual Differences:
- Every Individual has his/her own character

- Personality of each individual is unique hence it should be properly diagnosed by a manager. Manager should understand the differences and manage employees accordingly.
- He should act differently to different people.
- He should assign job, motivate and lead every employee accordingly.

Foundations of Individual Behavior Physiological Variables

- Age
- Gender
- Physiological Characters
- Heredity
- Psychological Variables
- Intelligence
- Learning
- Personality
- Attitude
- Motivation
- Social Cultural Variables
- Value systems
- Cultural Background
- Traditions

Organizational Variables

- Type of Organization
- Type of supervision
- Type of subordinates
- Type of Co- employees
- Type of incentives
- Training
- Social environment at work place
- Physical and Job variables

- Method of work
- Type of work
- Physical job variables
- Condition of working equipment's

DETERMINANATS OF PERSONALITY

Enormously the following five factors of personality are contributing to the formation and development of human personality.

- Biological Factors
- Social Factors
- Cultural Factors
- Physical Environment
- Situational Factors

Biological Factors of Personality: Biological factors of personality are very important for the formation of human personality. Children are born in a family; inherit many traits and features from their parents. Children get physical and psychological characteristics from their parents which becomes a part of their personalities. Some of the inherited traits are courage, coward, intelligence, weakness etc.

Social Factors of Personality: When an individual interact with other persons in his/her group give and take relationship takes place and it affects the personality of an individual social factors of personality are responsible for the formation of personality, when an individual has group experience and contact with others personality of an individual is influenced by others may be bad or good but depends on the association in which he/she keeps. In a society every person plays a specific role and status

Cultural Factors of Personality: Both material as well as non-material culture affects personality of an individual. An individual living in his/her culture adopts the traits consciously or unconsciously and acts accordingly. Culture of any society determines the behaviors and

personality of an individual and he/she is expected to act according to the culture. A person follows all the social norms of a culture which results in the formation of good personality while non-conformity to the cultural rules develops abnormal or bad personality. So, the culture in which an individual seeks satisfaction adjusts himself/herself and develops personality.

Physical Environment: Physical environment also determines the personality of an individual. Environmental factors include land, river, mountains, hills, forests, plain area, atmosphere etc which affect the personality to be good or bad, healthy or weak. All the feelings, emotions, ideas, attitudes, habits and behavior as well as body structure are the result of physical environment of to which an individual belongs. For example, body structure, physique, color and health of the rural people are different from urban people. These people have different environment due to which they develop variety of personalities. The people living in cities have facilities and modern ways of life which creates to develop delicate bodies and minds as compare to the rural people who are deprived of these facilities.

Situational Factors of Personality: Situational factors of personality also have a complete share in the formation of personality of an individual. situational factors of personality are charging according to the social situations. Every person face may situations in his life which enables him/her to change his/her behavior. For example, a teacher may be rigid and strict with students but may not with his/her family. An officer may behave with the subordinates differently as compare to his/her friends. Personality is not the result of only one factor but every factor is responsible to give complete share in its formation. A person behave and his/her personality exists when interacts with environment, culture, society, parents, friends and to those who come in contact by chance.

THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

PSYCHOANALYTICAL THEORY

Sigmund Freud and other associates formed this theory. Clinical techniques were used to develop this theory. Patient's behaviour was studied to derive this theory. According to this theory Man is motivated by unforeseen forces than he is controlled by conscious and rational thought. Freud

says that personality of a person is determined by a constant interplay of the three parts: The Id, The Ego, The Super Ego.

Personality is made up of 3 parts:

The Id: It is the unconscious emotional part . It is a sea of biological urges and drives where different instincts exist. E.g. Hunger, thrust, sex (libido).

It works on the principles of pleasure and pain. Any person seeks to satisfy his raw, animalistic needs and urges, obeys no laws and rules, wants to seek immediate gratification of biological or instinctual needs. It would proceed unchecked to satisfy motives. As an individual matures he learns to control id.

Ego: - It is the logical and conscious part or the rational practical and factual side. It evaluates on the principle of what is possible and not possible. It works on the principle of right and wrong. It keeps id in check through realities of the environment by intellect and reason.

Super Ego: It is the ethical moral side. The individual not only cares about right and wrong but also care about the societal norms. Hence it controls the above two parts and directs them constantly.

SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY:

Human personality depends on his inter-relationship in society. This model suggests that human behavior results from three predominant- interpersonal orientations.

Based on which Individual can be categorized as:

Aggressive people: Motivated by the need for power. They want good positions more power. They go for challenging jobs and want to raise high in positions. They are not attached with the society and hence go against the society

Detached people: These are self-sufficient people who are not more attached with the society. They are happy in their solitude. They do not depend on others. They are away from the society.

Complaint people: These people are more depended on society. They live to be with friends and families. They seldom quit organization. They do not have any lust for position, power and money. They move towards the society.

TRAIT THEORY : Some psychologists have tried to understand personality on the basis of individual's traits. This theory attempts to understand how a set of set of personality variables exerts on one's behavior. This theory defines that individual personality is composed of definite predisposition attributes called traits. Traits in an individual define his personality. Traits are stable, traits are common but may vary is absolute quantities in individuals and also traits can be inferred form the measurement of behavioral indicators. The author Catell has developed a set of traits through construction of tests on various individuals. These traits can be classifies as surface traits and source traits. The source traits defines the basic trait in individual and the surface traits define the qualities in an individual based on his source trait.

Source traits

(Deep inner traits in an individual)

Affectionthymia Vs Sizothymia

(Meaning: Good nature and trust full ness VS critical and Conspicuous)

Ego Strength Vs Emotionality

(Meaning: Maturity and realism Vs Immaturity and Evasiveness) Dominance Vs Submissiveness

Cheerfulness and Depression

Surface traits (visible traits in an individual)

Wise foolish Affectionate – Cold Sociable-Exclusive Honest- Dishonest

SELF THEORY : Carl Rogers has developed this theory. This theory is also described as phenomenological which studies individual's subjective experience, feelings and his concepts of world and self. In this theory the following four factors are included:-

Self-image: what you think you are?

Ideal self: What you want to be?

Looking glass self: What you think other think of you?

Real Self: What you really are?

Self-image: It is the way one sees oneself. Every person has certain beliefs about who he is and these belief form his self image.

Ideal self: It denotes the way one would like to be. Any individual admires personalities (family members or outsiders) in his environment and tries to imitate them. This forms the basis for his ideal image.

Looking glass self: It is a perception about how others perceive one self. It if formed on the basis I of the interactions and conversations of others.

Real Self: There are three stages in which an individual perceives about himself. The self-image, ideal self and looking glasses self. All the three help the individual to know about himself based on which he get tips to develop his personality, evaluates himself and adjusts his self-image with other three. It is a comprehensive inner behavioral process.

TYPES OF PERSONALITY
Introvert and Extrovert
Based On Characteristics, There Are Two types of personality, i.e. introvert and extrovert. When a person is reserved and does not open up easily, he or she is said to be an introvert. An introvert is a person who remains isolated, or enjoys the company of few closed ones.

- Self-contained
- They think before speaking.
- Recharges with solitude
- Spends more time with themselves
- Inward focused
- Have few friends
- Do not accept change easily.
- Openly communicate about themselves with people they know and trust.
- Deeply concentrate for long period.

An extrovert is an outgoing and outspoken person who enjoys being around and talking to people. Extrovert is a social, talkative person and makes friends quickly. An extrovert is an outgoing and outspoken person who enjoys being around and talking to people.

- Gregarious
- They reason things out by speaking them.
- Recharges with social interactions
- Spends more time with family and friends
- They reason things out by speaking them.
- Recharges with social interactions
- Spends more time with family and friends
- Outward focused
- Have many friends
- Accept change easily.
- Openly communicate about themselves with anyone.
- Get distracted easily.

Type A and Type B personality Type A Personality

Type A personality implies a temperament which is stress prone, concerned with time management. They are ambitious, rigidly organised, hard-working, anxious, highly status conscious, hostile and aggressive. Individuals who possess Type A personality have the following behavioural patterns:

- They move, walk and eat fast.
- Great at multitasking.
- Self-driven feels guilty when relaxing.
- Feels impatient with the pace of things, dislikes waiting.
- They have a busy schedule and does not have time to enjoy life.
- Uses nervous gestures, like clenched fist or banging hand on the table.

- They are high-achievers, perform beyond par.
- They do not easily accept failure.

Type B Personality

Type B personality is one that is less prone to stress, easy going, work steadily, enjoy achievement, modest ambition, and live in the moment. They are social, creative, thoughtful, procrastinating. Individuals who possess Type B personality are associated with the following behavioural traits:

- They are not concerned about time.
- They compete for fun, not to win.
- Mild-mannered.
- Never in a hurry and has no pressing deadlines.
- Does not brag.
- Focus on quality rather than quantity.
- Laid back and live stress-less life.
-

Judging and Perceptive

Judging (J) and Perceiving (P) are how you interact with the world outside yourself, either in a structured or flexible manner. Judging and Perceiving are opposite preferences. A person's natural tendency toward one will be stronger than the other.

Judging: Judging people think sequentially. They value order and organization. Their lives are scheduled and structured. Judging people seek closure and enjoy completing tasks. They take deadlines seriously. They work then they play. The Judging preference does not mean judgmental. Judging refers to how a person deals with day-to-day activities.

Judging Characteristics
- Decisive
- Controlled
- Good at finishing
- Organized

- Structured

- Scheduled

- Quick at tasks

- Responsible

- Likes closure

- Makes plans

Perceiving (P) : Perceivers are adaptable and flexible. They are random thinkers who prefer to keep their options open. Perceivers thrive with the unexpected and are open to change. They are spontaneous and often juggle several projects at once. They enjoy starting a task better than finishing it. Deadlines are often merely suggestions. Perceivers play as they work.

Perceiving Characteristics

- Adaptable

- Relaxed

- Disorganized

- Care-free

- Spontaneous

- Changes tracks midway

- Keeps options open

- Procrastinates

- Dislikes routine

- Flexible

PERSONALITY INFLUENCE ON ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Self Esteem: Self Esteem refers to the feeling of like or dislike for oneself." "Self Esteem is the degree of respect a person has for himself." This trait varies from person to person as people differ in the degree to which they like or dislike each other.

Self Monitoring: "Self monitoring is a personality trait that measures an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external situational factors".

Locus of control : Locus of control refers to an individual's belief that events are either within one's control are determined by forces beyond one's control.

People with internal locus of control believe that they are the masters of their own fate. Where as people with external locus of control take life as it comes. They see themselves as pawns of fate, believing that whatever happens to them in their lives is due to their luck or fate.

Machiavellianism: Machiavellianism is the ability to influence others for ones benefit. High Machiavellianism refers to a personality trait which sees a person so focused on their own interests they will manipulate, deceive, and exploit others to achieve their goals.

Risk taking : The propensity of people to assume risks or avoid risks varies from person to person depending upon the willingness of the people to take chances. This human trait will affect the decision making capability of a manager. This individual personality trait will determine how long will it take a person to take a decision or how much information will be needed before he takes a decision

Introvert and extrovert : These two terms are generally associated with the interpersonal behaviour of an individual and his sociability. Extroverts are gregarious and sociable individuals while introverts are shy, quiet and retiring. It has been observed that introverts and extroverts people have different career orientations and require different organisational environment to maximize performance. Extroverts are more suitable for positions that require considerable interaction with others that is why managerial positions are dominated by extroverts.

Type A and Type B : People who are impatient, aggressive and highly competitive are termed as 'Type A' personality. But those who are easy going, laid back and non-competitive are termed as 'Type B' personality. Type 'A' people tend to be very productive as they work very hard. Their negative side is that they are very impatient, good team players, more irritable and have poor judgment. Type 'B' people do better on complex tasks involving judgment and accuracy rather than speed and hard work

Self monitoring : As self monitoring refers to the individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external factors, individuals with high self monitoring can show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behaviour to external, situational factors than low self monitoring

PERCETION

Perception means perceiving, i.e., giving meaning to the environment around us. It can be defined as a process which involves seeing, receiving, selecting, organising, interpreting and

giving meaning to the environment Perception is the process by which an individual selects, organizes, and interprets information to create a meaningful picture.

Definition by Stephen P Robbins : Perception can be defined as "the process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environments."

Importance of perception : Perception is very important in understanding human behavior because every person perceives the world and approaches life problems differently. Whatever we see or feel is not necessarily the same as it really is. When we buy something, it is not because it is the best, but because we take it to be the best.

If people behave on the basis of their perception, we can predict their behavior in the changed circumstances by understanding their present perception of the environment. One person may be viewing the facts in one way which may be different from the facts as seen by another viewer. With the help of perception, the needs of various people can be determined, because people's perception is influenced by their needs.

Perception is very important for the manager who wants to avoid making errors when dealing with people and events in the work setting. This problem is made more complicated by the fact that different people perceive the same situation differently. In order to deal with the subordinates effectively, the managers must understand their perceptions properly.

Perception can be important because it offers more than objective output; it ingests an observation and manufactures an altered reality enriched with previous experiences.

Perception builds character (not necessarily good or bad character) that defines different roles individuals fall into the clown, the hypocrite, the self-righteous, the victim, etc..
It is vitally important if we want to get along with Others to try to see things from their perspective or walk in their shoes for a while. If we walk in their shoes we will gain a new perspective about things and in that understand the other and also can love and help the other

more appropriately.

Nature of perception

- Perception is the intellectual process.
- Perception is the basic cognitive or psychological process.
- Perception becomes a subjective process and different people may perceive the same event differently.
-

Perception and Sensation: There is a distinction between sensation and perception. Sensation is the response of a physical sensory organ. The physical senses are vision, hearing, tough, smell and taste.

These senses are bombarded by stimuli and reactions in particular sense organ take place because of these, e.g., of sensation may be reaction of eye to colour, ear to sound and so on. Sensation percedes perception.

Perception is much more than sensation. Perception depends upon the sensory raw data. The perceptual process adds to or/and subtracts from the sensory world. Perception is determined by both physiological and psychological characteristics, of the organism.

Sensation only activates the organs of the body and is not affected by such psychological factors as learning and motives. Activation of eyes to see an object is sensation and the inference what is being seen is perception.
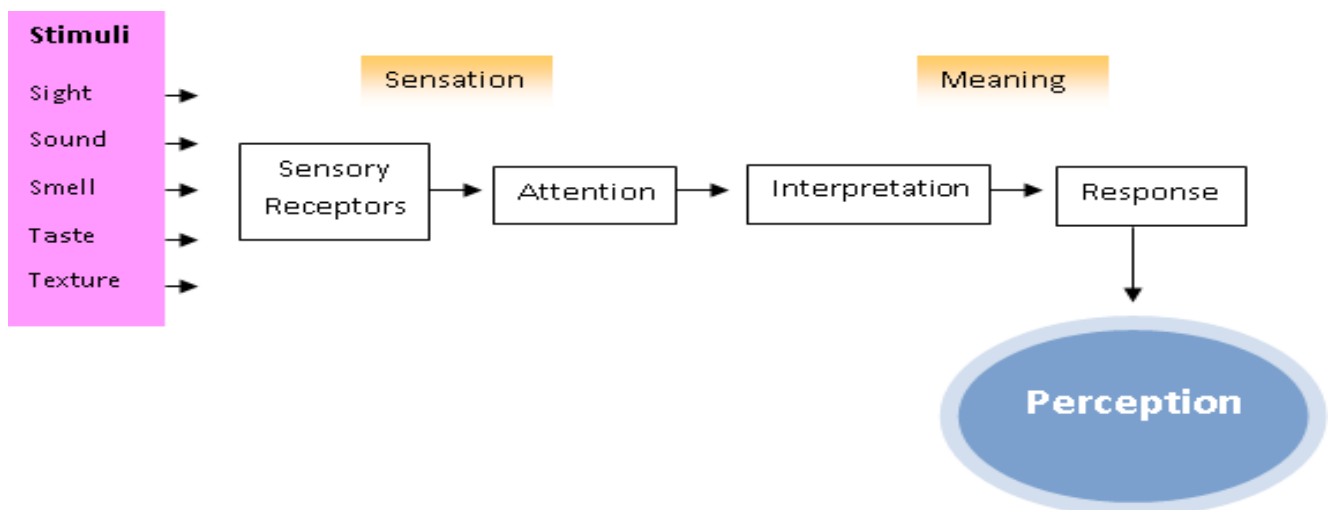
PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

.
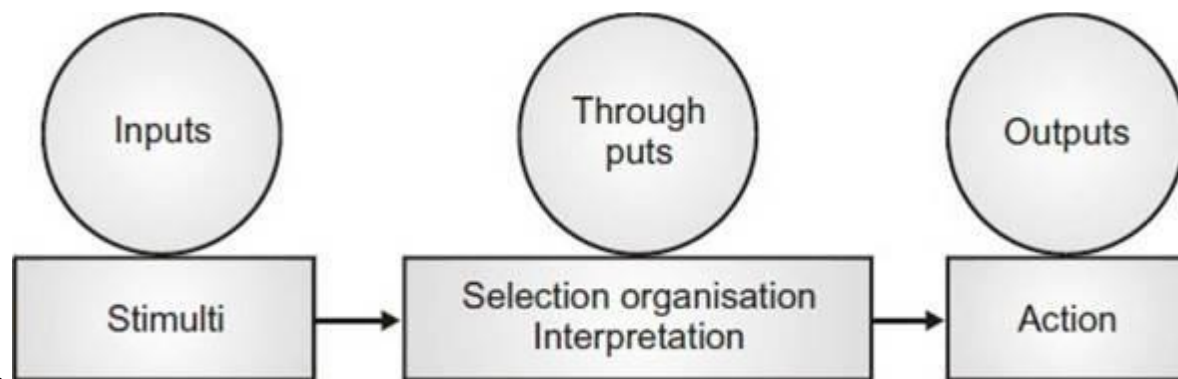
Perceptual Process.

Perception is a process of receiving, selecting, organising, interpreting, checking and reacting to stimuli. This is like an input-through put-output process in which the stimuli can be considered as 'inputs' transformation of 'input' through selection, organization and interpretation as 'through puts' and the ultimate behavior/action as 'output'. The whole perceptional process can be presented as follows: These are explained one by one

Receiving Stimuli: The first process in the perception is the presence of stimuli. The stimuli are received from the various sources. Through the five organs. It is a physiological aspect of perception process. Stimuli may be external to us (such as sound waves) and inside us (such as energy generation by muscles).

Selection of Stimuli: After receiving the stimuli or data, some are selected. Others are screened out. Two types of factors affect selection of stimuli for processing: external and internal factors. External factors relate to stimuli such as intensity of stimuli, its size, movement, repetition, etc. Internal factors, relate to the perceiver such as his/her age, learning, interest, etc. Normally, he will select the objects which interest him and will avoid that for which he is indifferent. This is also called 'selective perception'.

Organization of Stimuli : Organizing the bits of information into a meaningful whole is called

"organization". There are three ways by which the selected data, i.e., inputs are organized. These are :

(i) Grouping, (ii) Closure and (iii) Simplification.

Grouping: In grouping, the perceiver groups the various stimuli on the basis of their similarity or proximity. For example, all the workers coming from the same place may be perceived as similar on the basis of proximity.

Closure: When faced with incomplete information, people fill up the gaps themselves to make the information meaningful. This may be done on the basis of past experience, past data, or hunches. For example, in many advertisements, alphabets are written by putting electric bulbs indicating the shape of the concerned alphabets but broken lines. In such cases, people tend to fill up the gap among different bulbs to get meaning out of these.

Simplification: People identify main stimulus features and assesses how they are organized. He interprets a stimulus situation, the perceiver simples the information.

Interpretation: After we have attended to a stimulus, and our brains have received and organized the information, we interpret it in a way that makes sense using our existing information about the world Interpretation simply means that we take the information that we have sensed and organized and turn it into something that we can categorize. By putting different stimuli into categories, we can better understand and react to the world around us.

Action: The perceptual process ends with the resultant behaviour caused after interpreting the data received through sensory organs.

Perception Distortion

Perceptual distortions are incorrect understanding or abnormal interpretation of a perceptual experience. A perceptual distortion occurs when a persons responses to stimuli varies from how

it is commonly perceived. Perceptual distortion can relate to either sensory or psychological disorders, medication or drugs, or physical damage to the brain or sensory organ.

Perceptual Distortion:

Personality: Personality of the perceiver greatly influences the perception of other persons. Personality influence perception because of 2 reason .First, the perceiver tries to project his personality attributes in others, known as projection. Second, the perceiver tries to fit his attitude, beliefs, expectation to reality known as process of self-fulfilling.

Mental Set: Mental set is the tendency on has to react in a certain way to a given situation. In organization setting, people have tendency to perceive about others on the basis of this mental set which cause misperception. For ex. Suppose you are a contestant in a track meet and are positioning yourself in your starting blocks as you hear the preparatory command, get ready, get set when you hear the command, Go you take off at once since you are already set and ready to this command.

Attribution: Attribution is the process by which we make sense of our environment through our perception of our causality. Attribution is simply the process of attaching or attributing causes or reason to the actions and events we see. Causality is usually described in terms of internal causality and external causality. For ex. We may explain a particular individuals success or promotion with reference to his/her superior skills and knowledge (internal causality) or with reference to luck, 'friends in high places' and coincidence (external causality).

HALO Effect: The term halo effect was used by the psychologist Edward Thorndike in 1920. A HALO Effect is a judgment based on single striking characteristics such as an aspect of dress, speech, posture, or nationality. HALO Effect can be negative as well as positive.
• For ex. It is a natural human response on a meeting a stranger, to make judgment about the kind of person they are and whether we will like them or not.

Stereotyping: Stereotyping occurs when the perceiver judges or perceives a person on the basis

of characteristics of the group to which he belongs. The person is not perceived as an individual with specific set of his characteristics but on the basis of his group characteristics.

• For ex. There are some stereotyping at the international level like; Japanese are industrious, Italian are quick tempered American are materialistic and ambitious.

First Impression: It is very common that people evaluate others on the basis of first impression.

• The evaluation based on first impression may be correct if it is based on adequate and significant evidence. However, since first impression evaluation is not based on adequate information, it may not be true reflection of peoples being perceived.

• This can be corrected by more frequent interaction, though erasing of first impression evaluation is not that easy.

Factors Influencing Perceptual process

External Factors

- Size : Bigger size attracts the attention of the perceiver
- Intensity : A loud sound, strong odor or bright light is noticed more as compared to a soft sound, weak odour or dimlight.
- Repetition : A repeated external stimulus is more attention getting than a single one. Advertisers use this principle.
- Novelty and Familiarity : A novel or a familiar external situation can serve as attention getter.
- Contrast : It is a kind of uniqueness which can be used for attention getting. Letters of bold types, persons dressed differently than others, etc., get more attention.
- Motion : A moving object draws more attention as compared to a stationary object. Advertisers use this principle.

Internal Factors

- Self-concept : The way a person views the world depends a great deal on the concept or image he has about himself. The concept plays an internal role in perceptual selectivity.

- Beliefs : A person's beliefs have profound influence on his perception. Thus, a fact is conceived not on what it is but what a person believes it to be.

- Expectations : These affect what a person perceives. A technical manager may expect ignorance about the technical features of a product from non-technical people.

- Inner Needs : The need is a feeling of tension or discomfort, when one thinks he is missing something. People with different needs experience different stimuli. According to Freud, wishful thinking is the means by which the Id attempts to achieve tension reduction.

- Response Disposition : It refers to a person's tendency to perceive familiar stimuli rather than unfamiliar ones.

- Response Salience : It is the set of disposition which are determined not by the familiarity of the stimulus situations, but by the person's own cognitive predispositions. Thus, a particular problem may be viewed as a marketing problem by marketing personnel, a control problem by accounting people and human relations problem by personnel people.

- Perceptual Defence : It refers to the screening of those elements which create conflict and threatening situation in people. Denying the existence or importance of conflicting information.

Learning : Learning can be defined as the permanent change in behavior due to direct and indirect experience. It means change in behavior, attitude due to education and training, practice and experience. It is completed by acquisition of knowledge and skills, which are relatively permanent.

Nature of Learning : Nature of learning means the characteristic features of learning. Learning involves change; it may or may not guarantee improvement.It should be permanent in nature, that is learning is for lifelong.The change in behavior is the result of experience, practice and training. Learning is reflected through behavior.

Factors Affecting Learning

Learning is based upon some key factors that decide what changes will be caused by this experience. The key elements or the major factors that affect learning are motivation, practice, environment, and mental group.

Motivation − the encouragement, the support one gets to complete a task, to achieve a goal is known as motivation. It is a very important aspect of learning as it acts gives us a positive energy to complete a task. Example − the coach motivated the players to win the match.

Practice − we all know that "Practice makes us perfect". In order to be a perfectionist or at least complete the task, it is very important to practice what we have learnt. Example − we can be a programmer only when we execute the codes we have written.

Environment − we learn from our surroundings, we learn from the people around us. They are of two types of environment – internal and external. Example − A child when at home learns from the family which is an internal environment, but when sent to school it is an external environment.

Mental group − It describes our thinking by the group of people we chose to hang out with. In simple words, we make a group of those people with whom we connect. It can be for a social cause where people with the same mentality work in the same direction. Example− A group of readers, travelers, etc.

THEORIES OF LEARNING :
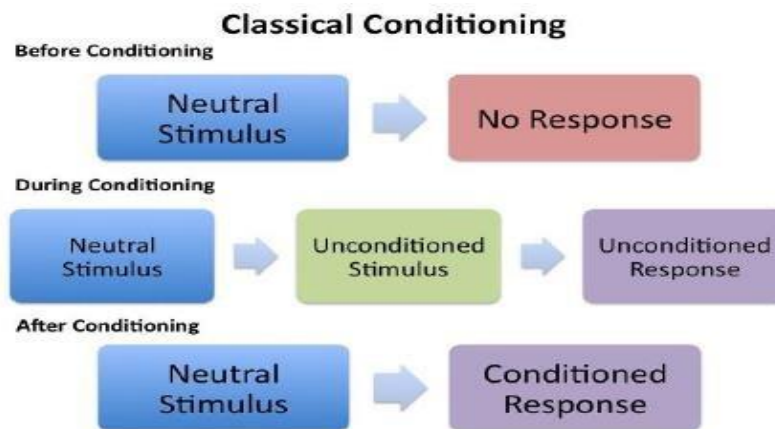Learning can be understood clearly with the help of some theories that will explain our behavior. Some of the remarkable theories are −
- Classical Conditioning Theory
- Operant Conditioning Theory
- Social Learning Theory
- Cognitive Learning Theory
- Classical Conditioning Theory

The classical conditioning occurs when a conditioned stimulus is coupled with an unconditioned

stimulus. Usually, the conditioned stimulus (CS) is an impartial stimulus like the sound of a tuning fork, the unconditioned stimulus (US) is biologically effective like the taste of food and the unconditioned response (UR) to the unconditioned stimulus is an unlearned reflex response like salivation or sweating.

After this coupling process is repeated (for example, some learning may already occur after a single coupling), an individual shows a conditioned response (CR) to the conditioned stimulus, when the conditioned stimulus is presented alone. The conditioned response is mostly similar to the unconditioned response, but unlike the unconditioned response, it must be acquired through experience and is nearly impermanent.

Classical Conditioning

Before Conditioning

| Neutral Stimulus | ➡ | No Response |

During Conditioning

| Neutral Stimulus | ➡ | Unconditioned Stimulus | ➡ | Unconditioned Response |

After Conditioning

| Neutral Stimulus | ➡ | Conditioned Response |

Operant Conditioning Theory : Operant conditioning theory is also known as instrumental conditioning. This theory is a learning process in which behavior is sensitive to, or controlled by its outcomes.

Let's take an example of a child. A child may learn to open a box to get the candy inside, or learn to avoid touching a hot stove. In comparison, the classical conditioning develops a relationship between a stimulus and a behavior. The example can be further elaborated as the child may learn to salivate at the sight of candy, or to tremble at the sight of an angry parent.

In the 20th century, the study of animal learning was commanded by the analysis of these two sorts of learning, and they are still at the core of behavior analysis.

Social Learning Theory

The key assumptions of social learning theory are as follows −

- Learning is not exactly behavioral, instead it is a cognitive process that takes place in a social context.
- Learning can occur by observing a behavior and by observing the outcomes of the behavior (known as vicarious reinforcement).
- Learning includes observation, extraction of information from those observations, and making decisions regarding the performance of the behavior (known as observational learning or modeling). Thus, learning can occur beyond an observable change in behavior.
- Reinforcement plays an important role in learning but is not completely responsible for learning.
- The learner is not a passive receiver of information. Understanding, environment, and behavior all mutually influence each other.

Cognitive Learning Theory

Cognition defines a person's ideas, thoughts, knowledge, interpretation, understanding about himself and environment.

Operant Conditioning

	Reinforcement Increase Behavior	Punishment Decrease Behavior
Positive Stimulus (something added)	Positive Reinforcement Add something to increase behavior	Positive Punishment Add something to decrease behavior
Negative Stimulus (something removed)	Negative Reinforcement Remove something to increase behavior	Negative Punishment Remove something to decrease behavior
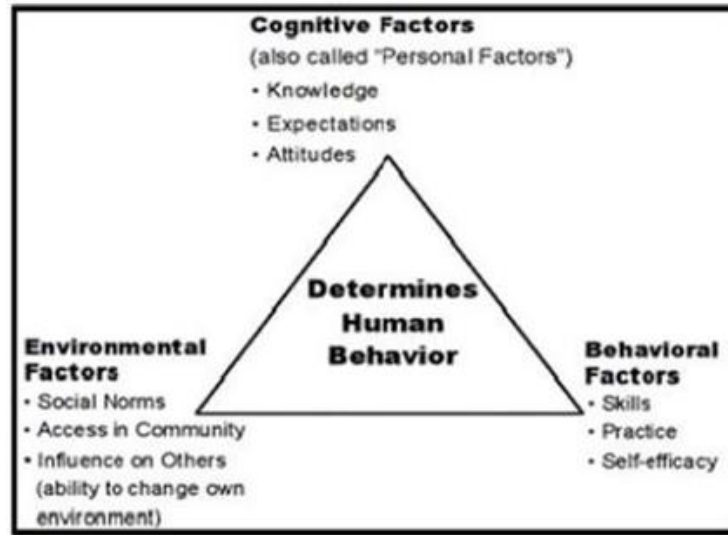
This theory considers learning as the outcome of deliberate thinking on a problem or situation based upon known facts and responding in an objective and more oriented manner. It perceives that a person learns the meaning of various objects and events and also learns the response depending upon the meaning assigned to the stimuli.

This theory debates that the learner forms a cognitive structure in memory which stores organized information about the various events that occurs.

Learning & Organizational Behavior :
- An individual's behavior in an organization is directly or indirectly affected by learning.
- Example − Employee skill, manager's attitude are all learned. Behavior can be improved by following the listed tips
- Reducing absenteeism by rewarding employees for their fair attendance.
- Improving employee discipline by dealing with employee's undesirable behavior, drinking at workplace, stealing, coming late, etc. by taking appropriate actions like oral reprimands, written warnings and suspension.
- Developing training programs more often so as to grab the trainees' attention, provide required motivational properties etc.

Attitude:

An attitude is a positive; negative or mixed evaluation of an object that is expressed at some level of intensity. It is an expression of a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of a person, place, thing or event.

Attitudes involve a complex organization of evaluative beliefs, feelings, and tendencies toward certain actions. How much we like or dislike something determines our behavior towards that thing.

According to Stephen P. Robbins – "Attitude is manner, disposition, feeling and position with regard to a person or thing, tendency or orientation especially in the mind."

Frank Freeman said, "An attitude is a dispositional readiness to respond to certain institutions, persons or objects in a consistent manner which has been learned and has become one's typical mode of response."

Characteristics of Attitude are;

- Attitudes are the complex combination of things we tend to call personality, beliefs, values, behaviors, and motivations.

- It can fall anywhere along a continuum from very favorable to very unfavorable.

- All people, irrespective of their status or intelligence, hold attitudes.

- An attitude exists in every person's mind. It helps to define our identity, guide our actions, and influence how we judge people.

- Although the feeling and belief components of attitude are internal to a person, we can view a person's attitude from his or her resulting behavior.

- Attitude helps us define how we see situations, as well as define how we behave toward the situation or object.

- It provides us with internal cognitions or beliefs and thoughts about people and objects.

- It can also be explicit and implicit. Explicit attitude is those that we are consciously aware of an implicit attitude is unconscious, but still, have an effect on our behaviors.

- Attitudes cause us to behave in a particular way toward an object or person.

- An attitude is a point of view, substantiated or otherwise, true or false which one holds towards an idea, object or person.

- It has aspects such as direction, intensity, generality or specificity.
- It refers to one's readiness for doing Work.

"Attitudes is a mental and neural state of readiness organized through experience, exerting a directing or dynamic influences upon the individuals response to all objects and situations with which is related" --- ALL PORT

"Attitude is the persistent tendency to feel and behave in a favorable or unfavorable way towards some object, person, or ideas"   REITZ

"Attitude is a predisposition to respond in a positive or negative way to someone or something is one's environment"   SCHERMERHOSM ET AL

FEATURES OF ATTITUDE:-

Attitude affects the behavior: An individual's behavior is affected by putting him ready responds favorably or unfavorably to things in the environment. Attitudes are acquired through learning over the period of time: the process of learning starts right from childhood and centenaries throughout the life of an individual.

Attitudes are invisible: They constitute a psychological phenomenon which cannot be observed directly. They can be observed only by observing the behavior of an individual.

Attitudes are pervasive: Attitudes are pervasive and every individual has some kind of attitude towards the object situation or person around them.

FORMATION OF ATTITUDES: Attitudes are not inherited. They are acquired and learned by the people from the environment in which individual interacts. The information of attitude is broadly classified into two sources:

- Direct experience

- Social learning

Direct Experience:-One's direct experience with an object or person serves as a powerful source of his/her attitude formation ,i.e. attitudes are formed on one's past experiences.

E.g.:- Some of you mav like HR, some other may like finance and few may like marketing. This is an attitude which is formed by studying the subject and getting a fair knowledge from the same. Attitudes derived from direct experience are powerful, stronger, durable and difficult to change.

Social learning: The process of deriving attitude from family, peer , groups, religious, organization and culture is called social learning.In social learning an individual acquires attitudes from his environment in an indirect manner. Attitudes are derived from peers also.

Social learning starts from early age when children derive attitudes from their parents, friends, teachers, educational institutions etc. Individuals acquire much of their attitudes by merely observing their models that they admire and respect. The observe over hears. Their models expressing their opinion or watches them displaying their behavior and that reflects their to align with their models.

An individual's association with others also shapes his Attitude. Culture of a country / state also plays a vital role in shaping one's attitude.

Learning attitudes involves 4 processes:

Attention: Attention must be focused on model.

Retention: What was observed from the model must be retained.

Reproduction: Behavior must be practiced again and again

Motivation: The learner must be motivated to form the model.

Type of Attitudes:-

Though an individual can have numerous attitudes, but OB focuses on job related attitudes.Job related attitudes are of 3 types:

- Job satisfaction
- Job involvement
- Organizational commitment Job satisfaction:-

Job satisfaction refers to an individual pleasurable or positive emotional state towards his/her job. Job satisfaction is related with five specific dimensions of job pay, work itself, promotion, opportunities, supervision and co-workers, positive attitude towards lead to job satisfaction.

Job Involvement:- It is the degree to which employee immense themselves into their jobs invest time energy

Organizational commitment:- It is attitude of the employees towards their organization. It is the measure of the employees willingness to remain with a firm in the future,

MEASUREMENT OF ATTITUDE:

Measurement in its broadest sense is the assignment of numerals, to objects or events.The methods are classified in to four types:-

- Self report
- Indirect tests
- Direct observation technique
- Psychological Reaction Techniques.
-

Self Report:

This technique usually elicits response from employee through questionnaires dealing with their feelings about their work and related matters. This report is carried out through the use of attitude surveys.Attitude surveys contain a set of statement or question to be answered by the employee. A definite assigns to each answer. Scaling terms assigned are tailored to obtain the information what managers actually want.

E.g.:-Attitude scaling might be dislike statement. My job makes the best use of my abilities.

Strongly Agree   5

Agree	4
Undecided	3
Disagree	2
Strongly disagree -	1.

Indirect tests:- These tests may not be brought directly to the employees notice. But the test will be fixed and employees' performance would be evaluated with out his conscience. Indirect test may be also conducted where the employee will answer to questions which may seem to be very simple in answering but these answers when evaluated will help the employee to know his attitude.

Direct observation technique:-It is very simple where the employee will be directly observed on his work and his attitude will be known.

Psychological Reaction Techniques:- Employees psychological reaction towards work and work environment will be judged and their attitudes will be observed to understand his/her attitude towards job aspects.

How to change attitude:- Fill in the information gap: Unfavorable attitudes can be changed by filling the information which may change his attitudes.

Use of fear: Low and high degree fear arousal may lead to problems only median level fear would help the employee to change his attitude.

Resolving discrepancies: -People have different kind of attitude and behavior and so by proper solving of discrepancies one's negative attitude could be changed.

VALUES : Values are convictions and frameworks of philosophy of an individual on the basic of which he judges what is good or bad. desirable or undesirable, ethical or unethical.
Rokeach a noted psychologist has defined values as "Global beliefs that guide actions and judgments across a variety of situations"

He further defines, Values represent basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct (or end state of existence) is personality or socially preferable to an opposite mode of conduct (end state of existence)

Features :

Part of culture: Values basically comes from our culture which constitutes of ideas, beliefs of society.

Learned response: Values our called learned response which is one acquires from the society.

Passed from one generation to another: Values are circulated and are passed through generation to generation by specific groups and institutions it starts from family educational institutions, religions and ethnic institutions

Social Phenomenon: An individual way of thinking which influence by his society and family is

Difference between Attitudes and Values.

Attitudes	Values
Attitude exhibit predisposition to response. They refer to several beliefs relating to a specific object or situation	Values represent judgmental ideas about what is right
These are one's personal experiences	They represent single belief foe used on objects or situations
	These are derived from social cultural mores.

Similarities between attitudes and values

- Attitudes and values are learned or acquired from the same source experience with people, object and event
- Attitudes and values affect cognitive process and behaviour of people. Attitudes and values are endurable and difficult to change.
- Attitudes and values influence each other and, more often than not, are used interchangeably.

Types of values :

Rokeach , a pioneer is studying human values conducted a research survey on human values.One the basis of his research findings he identified two basic type of values.

- Terminal values
- Instrumental values

Terminal Values : Terminal values represent the desirable end-state of existence, the goals that an individual would like to achieve during his life time.

Instruments values : Instrumental values : It reflects the way to achieve goals another words, these represent preferable modes of behaviour or means of achieving one terminal goals.

Rokeach identified is terminal & 18 instrumental names :

Terminal Values		Instrumental Value	
1.	World piece	1.	Honesty
2.	Happiness	2.	Forgiving nature
3.	Equalty	3.	Helpfulness
4.	Achievement	4.	Self control
5.	Inner peace	5.	Independence
6.	Beauty in nature	6.	Obedience
7.	Family security	7.	Ambition.
8.	Self respect	8.	Open mindedness

9.	Salvation	9.	Cleanliness
10.	Friendship	10.	Affection and love
11.	Mature love	11.	Politeness
12.	Pleasure	12.	Rationality
13.	Freedom	13.	Responsibility
14.	Wisdom	14.	Courage
15.	Prospect	15.	Competence
16.	National Security	16.	Cheerfulness
17.	Social Respect	17.	Intelligence
18.	Exciting life	18.	Imagination

All port and his associates had identified six types of values .All port and his associates developed a different type of questionnaire containing a description of different situations. The respondents were told to give their preference to the questions for which ranks were fixed accordingly. Based on the answers given and the rank accordingly allotted by the respondents.

Value was categorized into six types

Theoretical: Accords high importance on the discovery of truth through a critical and rational approach.

Economics : Emphasizes on the usefulness and practicability money

Aesthetic : Places the top most importance on form and harmony

Social : Accords the highest value to the love a affection of mankind

Political : Assigns more interest to the acquisition of power and influence.

Religions : Pay more values or importance to the religion they belong

Formation of values Research has proven that, 40% of one's values is genetically determined

Rest of the values are acquired through experience with parents school-mates friends, peers, models & organizations Culture also influences in the formation of values.

Values & Ethics:

Though sometimes people consider values and ethics synonymous and use them interchangeably. But they are different. Values are beliefs that affect an individuals fundamental ideas about what is good or bad. Ethic is the way the values are acted out ethical was of behaviour is acting according is one personal values.

Values and Behavior:

- Values serve as foundations for attitudes.
- In practice, individuals enter organization with a pre-conceived motion of what ought and what ought not to be. These motions are value later.
- Independent hold their own interpellations of right and wrong – This affects their behaviour.
- Values affect both attitude and behavior
- Values once formed are very difficult to change and are in challenge to modern management.

UNIT – III - SBAA1306 - ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

UNIT – III   INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOR AND MOTIVATION

Motivation - Theories of Motivation (Maslow, McClelland, McGregor Herzberg, Vroom, Porter & Lawler, Argyris), Implications of Employees - Nature and meaning of Interpersonal Behavior, Concept of Self, Transaction Analysis (TA), Benefits and uses of Transactional Analysis, Johari Window Model.

MOTIVATION

Motivation is the willingness to exert high level of the effort towards organizational goals , conditioned by the efforts ability to satisfy same individual needs. Stephen p Robbins.

Need satisfaction process

Unsatisfied Need----tension---drive ---search behaviour--- satisfied need--- reduction in tension

- An unsatisfied need created tension that stimulates drives with in an individual.
- These drives generate an search behaviour to find particular goals and attain them.
- If the goal is attained, the need is satisfied and the tension is reduced.
- Since the organizational goals are important , the individuals must be compatible to the org. goals**.**
- Motivation is anything that induces a person to act in a desired manner.
- Motivation is what makes a person to work and satisfaction is the resultant happiness. It follows a cause and effect relationship.

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

1. MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY THEORY OF MOTIVATION
2. HERZBERG'S TWO FACTOR THEORY OF MOTIVATION
3. MCGREGORS'S THEORY 'X' AND THEORY 'Y'
4. MCLLELAND 'S NEED THEORY
5. VROOMS VALENCE EXPECTANCY THEORY
6. PORTER AND LAWLER'S MODEL OF SATISFACTION

MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY THEORY OF MOTIVATION:

According to this theory man is motivated based his needs. Any individual has five categories of needs.

The need emerges in a hierarchal order i.e. from lower order needs to higher order needs.

The five levels of needs are

Lower order needs

1. Physiological needs
2. Security needs

3. Social needs

Higher Order Needs

4. Self esteem needs
5. Self actualization needs

Physiological needs:

This needs is considered to be the starting point of motivation . These are needed for the survival and maintenance of human life. Eg: Food, Clothing, Shelter, Air Water and also other necessities of life.

Security needs:

After an individual's physiological need is satisfied, his next level of need for security emerges, i.e. he wants the assurance of maintaining an economic level, in terms of job security of income source, provision for old age, insurance against risk etc.

Social needs:

Man is social being. He is interested in conversation, sociability, exchange of feelings , grievances and ideas . He wants companionship, recognition and belongingness. Simply he needs the comfort of people/society to fulfill this need.

Self esteem need (status):

Egoistic needs take inward or outward orientations. Inward directed ego needs embrace factors like self confidence, independence, achievement, competency, knowledge, success. These needs have to be earned by an individual; through his intelligence and hard work.They want recognition in the society where they live. On the other hand outwardly directed ego needs are concerned with prestige, status respect and it could be gained in the form of position and control over economic, social and political power form the societyor organization.

Self Actualization needs (self fulfillment needs):

The final or the priority model is the need for self -fulfillment or the need is the need to fulfill what a person considers to be his mission in life. After a man's other needs are fulfilled, his desire for personal achievement increases. He wants to do something, which is challenging and gives his full energy to work and win. This need gives him psychological satisfaction if achieved.

Maslow felt that these needs have definite sequence of domination.

- second level needs does not dominate until first level need is satisfied and this would continue till the last hierarchy.
- Hence based on this 5 levels of need Maslow establishes that man is a social animal, he always wants something the other.

(condition is know what his need is at that particular point of time) He can be motivated accordingly.

HERZBERG'S TWO FACTOR THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Herzberg and his fellow men conducted a research on zoo engineers and accountants who worked in 11 different firms in Pittsburg area. These men were asked to recall specific incidents in their experience which made them feel good or bad about their jobs. These findings set as a model to derive this theory.

According to this theory Herzberg has defined two distinct factors of motivation

Herzberg's motivation theory is based on two types of factors.
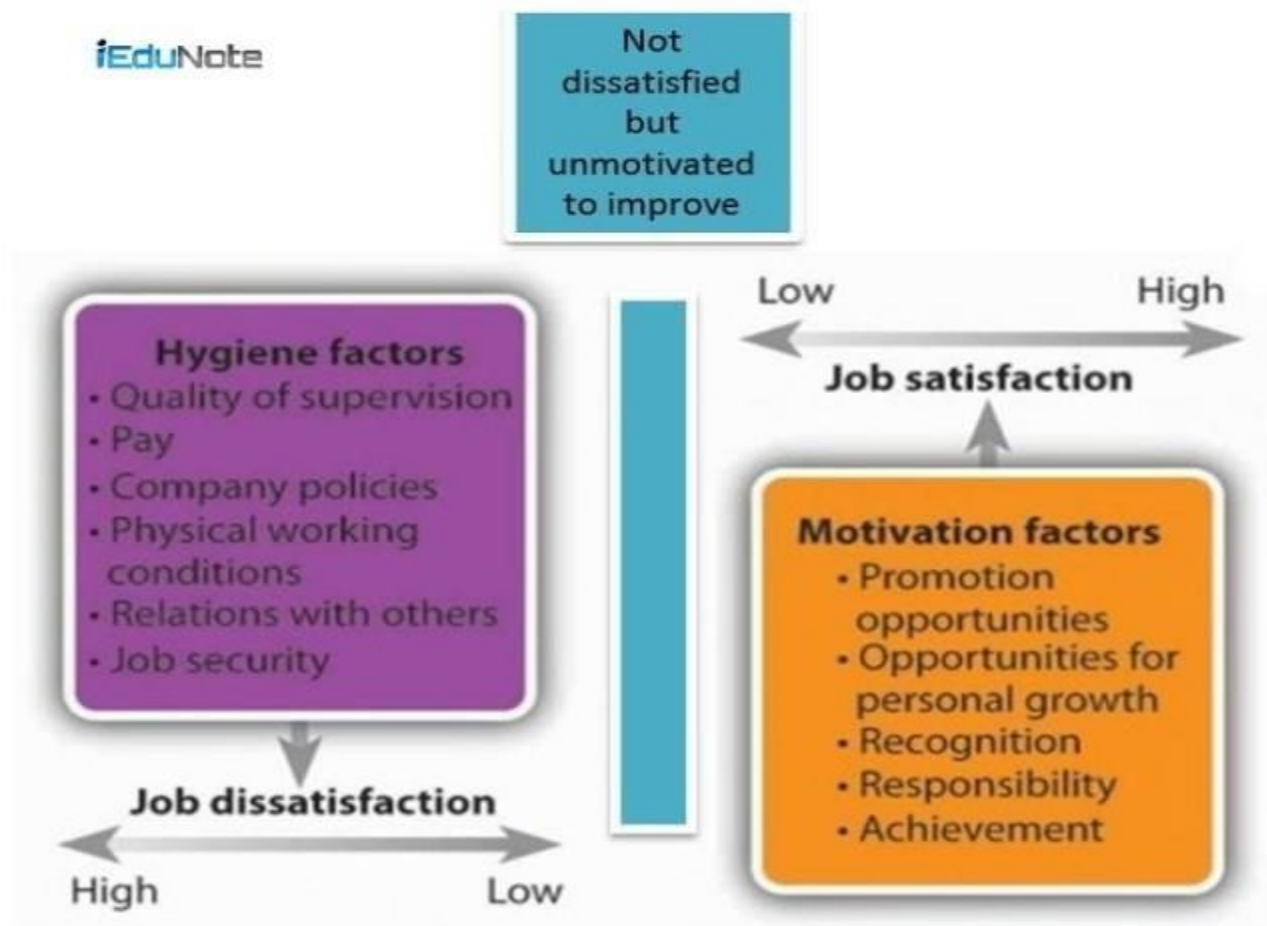
These factors

Satisfiers (motivation factors)

Dissatisfiers (maintenance or hygiene factors).

Hygiene factors include the factors of company policy and administration, salary, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, status, job security, and personal life.

The motivators or satisfiers are therefore related to job content. They include the factors like achievement, recognition, challenging work, advancement, responsibility and growth in the job. Their existence yields feelings of satisfaction.
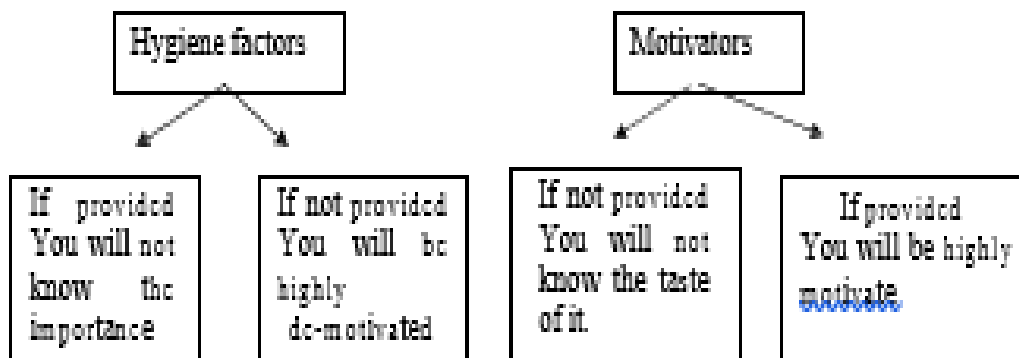
Hygiene factors

It was found that hygiene factors were those factors, which if provided will not motivate the employees, but if not provided will definitely de-motivate the employees

Motivators :

They are factors which when not provided the employee will not be ware if it , but if provided the employee gets highly motivated and works effectively.

Herzberg's theory

        a. It is pure a psychological theory.

        ☐   It can be applicable to modern organization.

        ☐   It is practical and easy to understand.

        ☐   Identification of hygiene factor is a valuable

Disadvantages of Herzberg's theory:

    ☐   The theory emphasizes on job satisfaction rather than motivation.

credit, but when things go wrong they blame external factors

- They theory has over simplified the complex working condition

Difference between Maslow's theory and Herzberg's theory

Maslow's theory	Herzberg's theory
1. He has divided the structure into five layers.	1. He has divided the theory into two 2 factors
2. Emphasis is on needs	2. Emphasis is on satisfaction
3. Hierarchy is followed	3. All need arise at the same time
4. Pay is a motivation	4. Pay comes under the hygiene factor
5. It is a descriptive theory	5. It is a prescriptive theory
6. Relevant to people of all cadre	6. Relevant to study managerial cadre
7. A satisfied needs is not a motivator	7. Satisfied need also continue to motivate people.

MCCLELLAND' S NEEDS THEORY

McClelland's Needs Theory was proposed by a psychologist David McClelland, who believed that the specific needs of the individual are acquired over a period of t ime and gets molded with one's experience of the life. McClelland's Needs Theory is sometimes referred to as Three Need theory or Learned Needs Theory.

McClelland has identified three basic motivating needs, Viz. Need for Power, Need for Affiliation and Need for Achievement and, along with his associates performed a considerable research work on these basic needs.

1. **Need Need for Power**
2. **Need for Affiliation**
3. **Need for Affiliation**

Need **for Power (n-pow):**

Power is the ability to induce or influence the behavior of others. The people with high power needs seek high- level positions in the organization, so as to exercise influence and control over others.

Generally, they are outspoken, forceful, demanding, practical/realistic - not sentimental, and like to get involved in the conversations.

Need for Affiliation

People with high need for affiliat ion derives pleasure from being loved by all and tend to avoid the pain of being rejected. Since, the human beings are social animals, they like to interact and be with others where they feel, people accept them.

Thus, people with these needs like to maintain the pleasant social relationships, enjoy the sense of intimacy and like to help and console others at the time of trouble.

Need for Achievement (n- ach):

McClelland found that some people have an intense desire to achieve. He has identified the following characteristics of high achievers:

- **High achievers take the moderate risks** , i.e. a calculated risk while performing the activities in the management context. This is opposite to the belief that high achievers take high r isk.
- **High achievers seek to obtain the immediate feedback for the work done by them,** so as to know their progress towards the goal.
- **Once the goal is set, the high achiever puts himself completely into the job, until it gets completed successfully.** He will not be satisfied until he has given his 100% in the task assigned to him.

A person with a high need for achievement accomplishes the task that is intrinsically satisfying and is not necessarily accompanied by the material rewards. Though he wants to earn money, but satisfaction in the accomplishment of work itself gives him more pleasure than merely the cash reward.

Hence, McClelland's Needs Theory posits that the person's level of effectiveness and motivation is greatly influenced by these three basic needs.

MCGREGORS'S THEORY 'X' AND THEORY 'Y'

The theory is based on assumptions about employees by the manager or employer

- One basically negative- Theory'X'

McGregor has generated two different theories based in Employer's /Boss's assumption on employees. But it is also to be noted that employees tend to become what the boss thing about them. McGregor prefers theory 'X' to theory 'Y'. It is also concluded that participative decision making, challenging jobs and decentralized form of environment and supportive style of leadership would motivate employees.

According to this theory a Boss holds either positive or negative assumptions about their employees.

| THEORY 'X'	THEORY 'Y'
1. Subordinates dislike work 2. Employees avoid responsibility 3. Employees are incapable and hence have to be guided 4. Employees have to be forced or controlled to make them work. 5. Employees are self centered and they are indifferent to the organization 6. Boss follows a centralized system of work 7. Boss are suspicious 8. Boss follows authoritative style. 9. Boss is task oriented.	1. Employees always have a natural liking for work. 2. Employees will seek for responsibility and accept them 3. Employees have considerable skills 4. Employees have natural inclination to work and they have self control 5. Employees are not self centered and are concerned about organizational goals. 6. Boss tends to keep the system in decentralized manner. 7. Boss trust employees 8. Boss supports employees 9. Boss are task oriented.

PROCESS THEORIES

VROOMS VALENCE EXPECTANCY THEORY

This theory was propounded by Vrooms, and this theory states about the importance of factors which lead to motivation.

The theory of based on the formula: Motivation(F) = Σ Valence x Expectancy

Key words Valence Expectancy, 1st level outcome , 2nd level outcome, Instrumentality
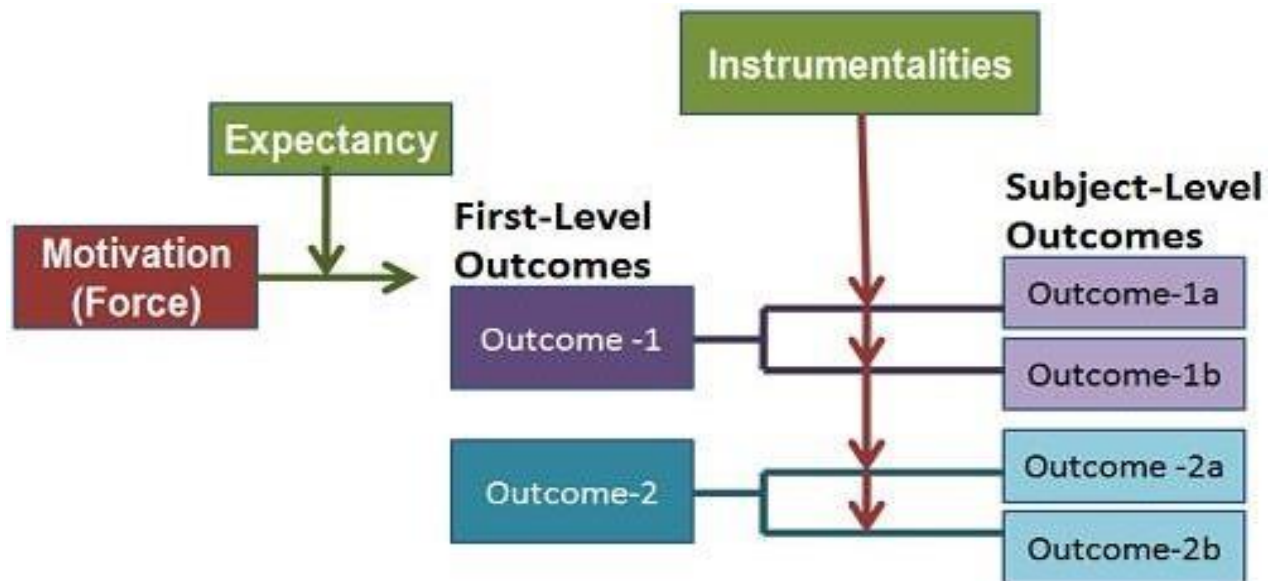
Valence:

It is the strength of individuals preference for a particular outcome. It ranges from -1……0…..... +1. where when

V is positive(+1) = Individual prefers to attain the outcome.

V is neutral (0)= Individual is indifferent towards the outcome.

V is negative (-1) = Individual does not prefer to attain the outcome.

Expectancy:

It is the probability that a particular outcome will lead to the desired first level outcome.

The probability will range from (0----------1). If the probability is high , the score is high and it is low when the probability is low. Expectancy relates to the effort to the first level outcome.

1st level outcome :

It is the efforts put based on the expectations of getting the same, which means performance will be based on the persons expectancy towards perceived reward. i.e. promotion.

2nd level outcome:

It is the result acquired out of the expectations and effort. e.g. getting promotion

Instrumentality:

It is the belief that the performance is related to rewards. Probability attached by the individual to each possible performance. It refers to the degree to which the first level outcome leads to second

1. Motivated to get a promotion

2. Promotion expectancy = high/moderate/ low

3. Effort - high/moderate/ low or No effort

4. Out come 1- Guaranteed promotion

5. Out come 2- May / May not get a promotion

6. Out come 3- No chances of getting a promotion

Hence the theory states that it is the motivational force in an individual which makes him

 Believe that he can attain a particular out come, based on this expectancy he performs and he gets the rewards.

PORTER AND LAWLER'S MODEL OF SATISFACTION

Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler came up with a comprehensive theory of motivation, combining the various aspects. Porter and Lawler's model is a more complete model of motivation. This model has been practically applied also in their study of managers. This is a multivariate model which explains the relationship that exists between job attitudes and job performance. This model is based on four basic assumptions about human behaviour :

(i) As mentioned above, it is a multivariate model. According to this model, individual behaviour is determined by a combination of factors in the individual and in the environment.

(ii) Individuals are assumed to be rational human beings who make conscious decisions about their behaviour in the organizations.

(iii) Individuals have different needs, desires and goals.

(iv) On the basis of their expectations, individuals decide between alternative behaviours and such decided behaviour will read to a desired outcome.

The Various Elements of Porter and Lawler Model

1. Effort,

2. Performance and

3. Satisfaction.

Let us briefly discuss the main elements of the model :

1.Effort: Effort refers to the amount of energy an employee exerts on a given task. How much effort an employee will put in a task is determined by two factors: (i) value of reward and (ii) perception of effort-reward probability.

2. Performance : One's effort leads to his/her performance. Both may be equal or may not be. However, the amount of performance is determined by the amount of labour and the ability and role perception of the employee. Thus, if an employee possesses less ability and/or makes wrong role perception, his/her

performance may be low in spite of his great efforts.

3.Satisfaction: Performance leads to satisfaction. The level of satisfaction depends upon the amount of rewards achieved. If the amount of actual rewards meet or exceed perceived equitable rewards, the employee will feel satisfied. On the contrary, if actual rewards fall short of perceived ones, he/she will be dissatisfied.

Rewards may be of two kinds - intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Examples of intrinsic rewards are such as a sense of accomplishment and self-actualization.

Extrinsic rewards may include working conditions and status. A fair degree of research supports that the intrinsic rewards are much more likely to produce attitudes about satisfaction that are related to performance
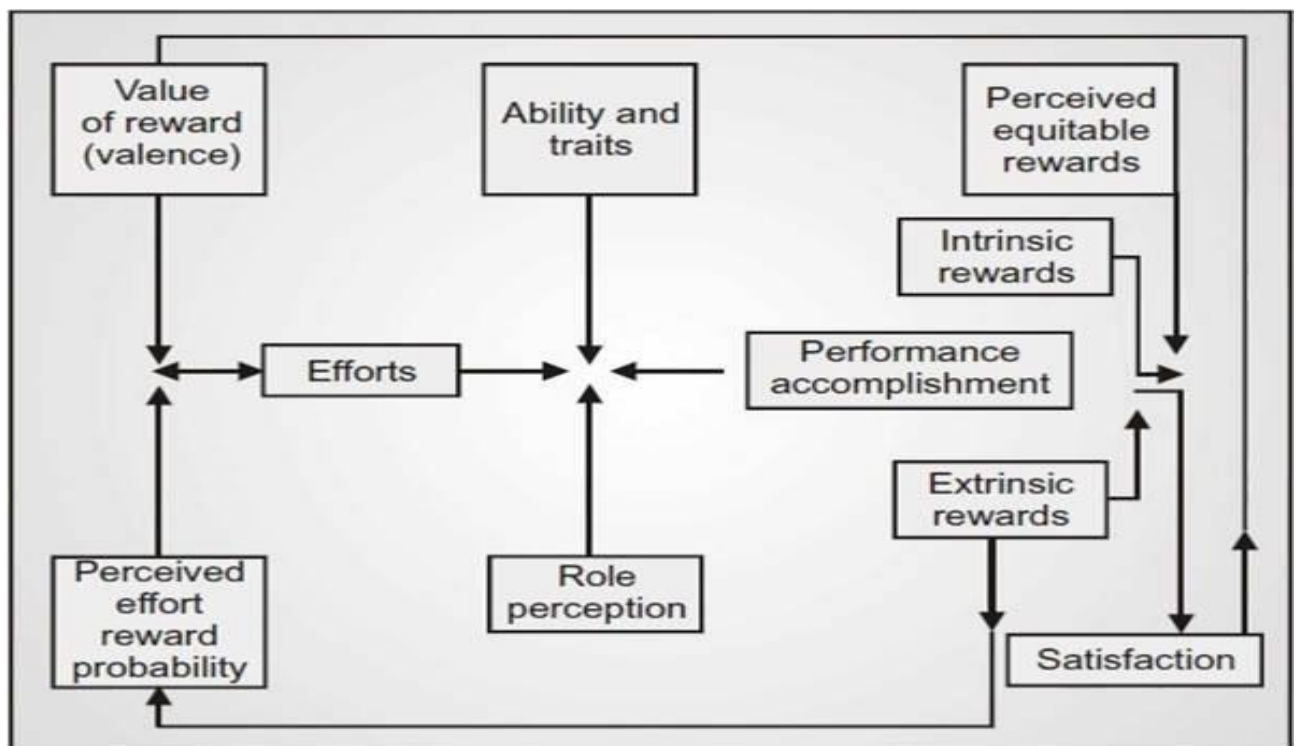
It is a complete model of motivation. The research covered the applicability to managers. They brought about the relationship between job attitude, job performance and job satisfaction. The whole model is designed on the traditional assumption that there is a positive relationship between satisfaction and performance. It is a multivariate model to which helps to explain the relationship between satisfaction and performance. Porter and Lawler have attempted to measure variables such as the values of possible rewards, the perception of effort-rewards probabilities and role perceptions in deriving satisfaction. They recommended that the managers should carefully reassess their reward system and structure. The

in organizations In this model of motivation or effort does not directly lead to performance but factors like one's personal traits , role perceptions , the value he has given for a particular rewards and his perception towards his abilities to achieve the reward work together to achieve the reward. Ones he has achieved what he has expected to achieve, he is satisfied or else the process continues.

CHRIS ARGYRIS'S THEORY

Chris Argyris (born July 16, 1923, an US Business theorist) has developed his motivations theory based on proposition how management practices affect the individual behaviour and growth. In his view, the seven changes taking place in an individual's personality make him/her a mature one. In other words, personality of an individual develops from immaturity to maturity as follows :

.

THE ARGYRIS IMMATURITY-MATURITY CONTINUUM

Immaturity Characteristics	Maturity Characteristics
Passivity	Activity
Dependence	Independence
Few ways of behaving	Diverse behaviour
Shallow interests	Deep interests
Short-time perspective	Long-time perspective
Subordinate position	Super ordinate position
Lack of self awareness	Self awareness and control

Argyris views that immaturity exists in individuals mainly because of organizational setting and management practices such as task specialization, chain of command, unity of direction and span of management. In order to make individuals grow mature, he proposes gradual shift from the existing pyramidal organization structure to humanistic system; from existing management system to the more flexible and participative management. He states that such situation will satisfy not only their physiological and safety needs, but also will motivate them to make ready to make more use of their potential in accomplishing organizational goals

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

Dr. Berne defined the basic unit of analysis. At its simplest level, Transactional Analysis is the method for studying interactions between individuals.

Definition: The **Transactional Analysis** refers to the psychoanalytic process wherein the interpersonal behaviors are studied. In other words, a social psychological model that talks about the personal growth and

personal change, i.e., identifying the ego states of each individual to understand their behaviors and altering them to solve the emotional problems.

This model was originally developed by Dr Eric Berne, who during his observation found that his patients behaved in a way as if several different people were inside them. This forced him to study the personality and dynamics of self and its relationship with others which helped in determining the kinds of behaviors that an individual shows in different real time situations.

The transactional analysis gives birth to several models that help in explaining the relationship formed between the individuals as a result of their interactions. It mainly involves:

Transactional analysis

When people interact with each other, the social transaction gets created which shows how people are responding and behaving with each other, the study of such transactions between people is called as the transactional analysis

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

Transactional analysis (TA) is a technique of analyzing and understanding inter-personal behavior. When a person interacts with another a social transaction takes place. In such a transaction one person responds to another. The study of these transactions is what called 'transactional analysis.

- ➢ The concept of TA was originally conceived by Eric Berne for the purpose of psychotherapy in the 1950.
- ➢ Transactional Analysis (TA) offers a model of personality and the dynamics of self and its relationship to others that makes possible a clear and meaningful discussion of behaviour.
- ➢ When people interact, there is social transaction in which one person responds to another.
- ➢ Transactional Analysis states that people interact with each other in terms of three psychological positions or behavioral patterns know as ego states .

Ego States

The **Ego States** are an important aspect of transactional analysis that talks about how a person feels, behave or think at any point of time.

According to Dr Eric Berne, people usually interact with each other in terms of three psychological and behavioral patterns classified as parent ego, adult ego and child ego, often called as a **PAC Model.**

This classification is not made on the basis of the age group of an individual rather these are related to the ways in which an individual behaves. Thus, it is observed that a person of any age group may possess varying degrees of these ego states.

Parent Ego: The parent ego, refers to the behavior and attitude of an emotionally significant individual who acted with quite a maturity when he was a child. He possesses the parental traits of being overprotective, dogmatic, distant, indispensable and upright and behaves very judiciously at any time.
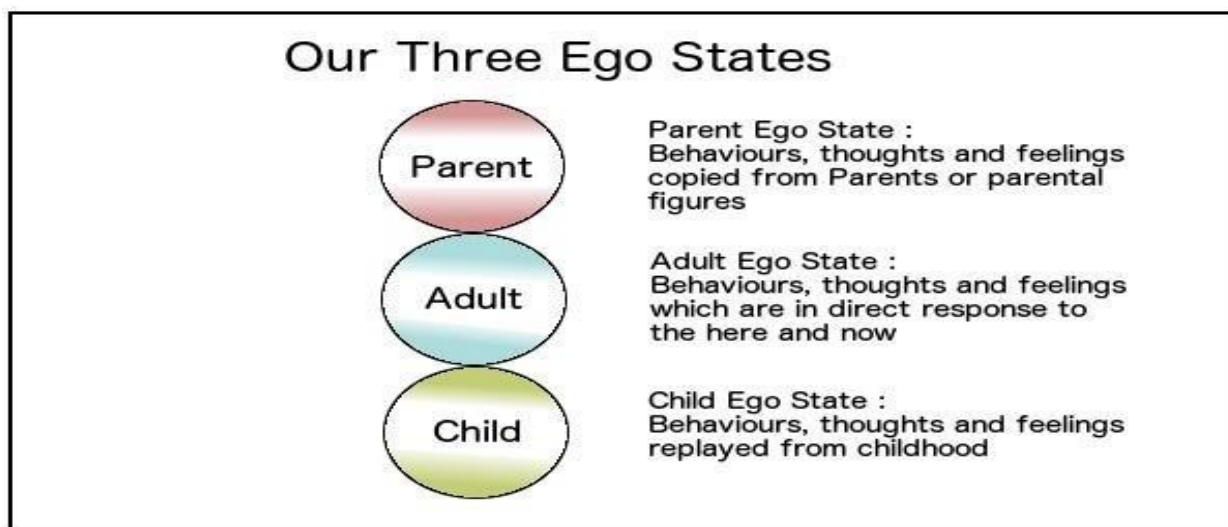
There are two types of a parent ego: critical and nurturing. The critical parent ego is one when an individual shows the critical and evaluative behavior while interacting with the others. Whereas the nurturing parent ego is one, when individual shows the kind and nurturing behavior, not only towards children but towards all with whom he interacts.

Adult Ego: The adult ego shows the logical thinking and reasoning ability of an individual. The person behaving or interacting with adult ego seeks all the information properly, validate it using his reasoning skills and then provide it to the other people. The person possessing the adult ego can be judged through his discussions and the way he thinks about a situation before arriving at the conclusion.

As the individual grows, he updates his parent data to identify what is valid or not valid, similarly the child data is also updated to determine which feeling should be expressed and which should be left unspoken. In this way, the adult ego helps an individual to control his emotional expressions appropriately.

Child Ego: The child ego, refers to the state of an individual when he behaves illogically and takes quick actions to satisfy the immediate needs without thinking much about its consequences. The creativity, depression, conformity, dependence, hate, fear, etc. are some of the main characteristics of this ego state. The child ego represents the childhood state when an individual has not become social and is in its initial stage of development.

The child ego can be natural, adaptive and rebellious. The natural child is sensuous, impulsive, affectionate and does things that come naturally. Whereas the adaptive child is one, who is trained and instructed by parents to behave in a manner taught by them. The rebellious child is one who is not allowed to open up and experiences anger, fear and frustration.

Our Three Ego States

Parent

Parent Ego State :
Behaviours, thoughts and feelings copied from Parents or parental figures

Adult

Adult Ego State :
Behaviours, thoughts and feelings which are in direct response to the here and now

Child

Child Ego State :
Behaviours, thoughts and feelings replayed from childhood

Based on the 3 ego states we interact with each others which results in three types of transactions:
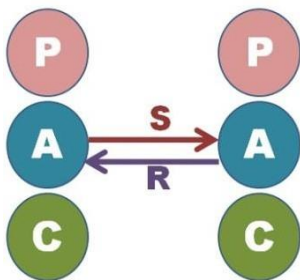
  ➢ Complementary Transactions
  ➢ Non-Complementary Transactions
  ➢ Ulterior transactions

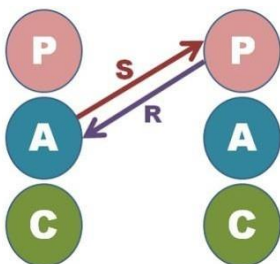**1. Complementary Transactions:**

A transaction is said to be complementary when the person sending the message gets the predicted response from the other person. Thus, the stimulus and response patterns from one ego state to another are parallel.
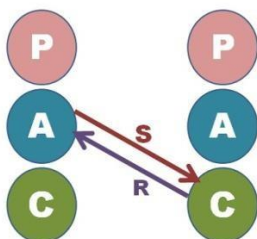
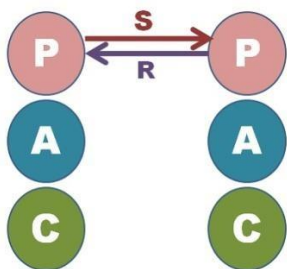There can be 9 complementary transations

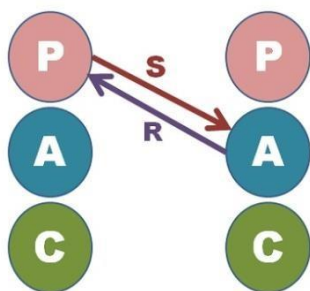**Adult-Parent Transaction: .**

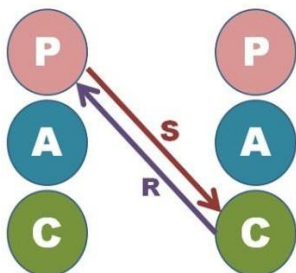**Adult-Parent Transaction**
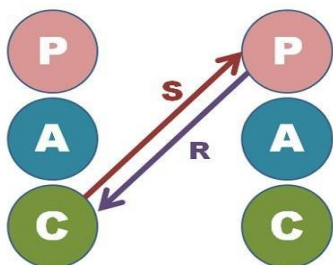

Adult-Child Transaction

Parent-Parent Transaction

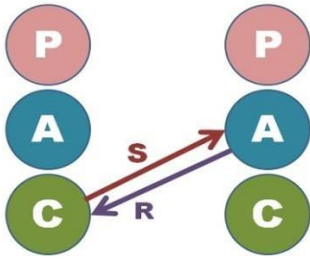**Parent-Adult Transaction** .

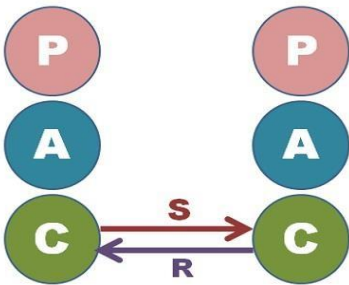

Parent-Child Transaction

Child-Parent Transaction

.

Child-Adult Transaction.

Child-Child Transaction: .

Non-Complementary Transactions: A transaction is said to be non-complimentary or crossed when the person sending the message does not get the predicted response, or the stimulus and response lines are not parallel.
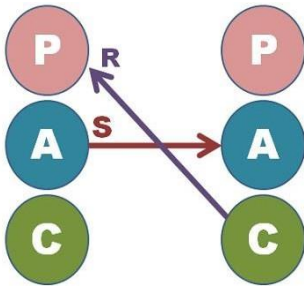
Eg: If a manager asks an employee in an adult tone whether he can finish the work in a day which should be done for 3 days but having more work load if the employee gets angry and tells that it is not possible the employee responds on the child-to-parent basis. This would block the communication, and no further transaction could be done.

Ulterior Transaction: It is a complex transaction because the communication has the double meaning. Such as, on the surface level the communication may have a clear adult message, but it may carry some hidden message on the psychological level and gets misinterpreted.

If an employee is coming late and the manager tell one day " very good continue as it is". The statement has two meanings where the surface meaning says come late but the in-depth warning shows the employee should not repeat it.

Gallow Transaction:

When you give a smiling response to persons misfortune it is called gallow transaction.

Eg: A mother laughing if her child falls down after climbing above in spite of her warning.

LIFE POSITIONS

The **Life Positions** refers to the specific behavior towards others that an individual learns on the basis of certain assumptions made very early in the life.

- ➢ Individual's behaviour towards others – largely based specific assumptions that are made early in life
- ➢ Very early in childhood – person develops a dominant philosophy from experience
- ➢ Philosophy is tied into person's identity, sense of worth and perceptions of other people
- ➢ This tends to remain with person for life time unless major experience causes change(s) to occur
- ➢ Based on the assumptions one makes about himself or herself there are 4 life positions.
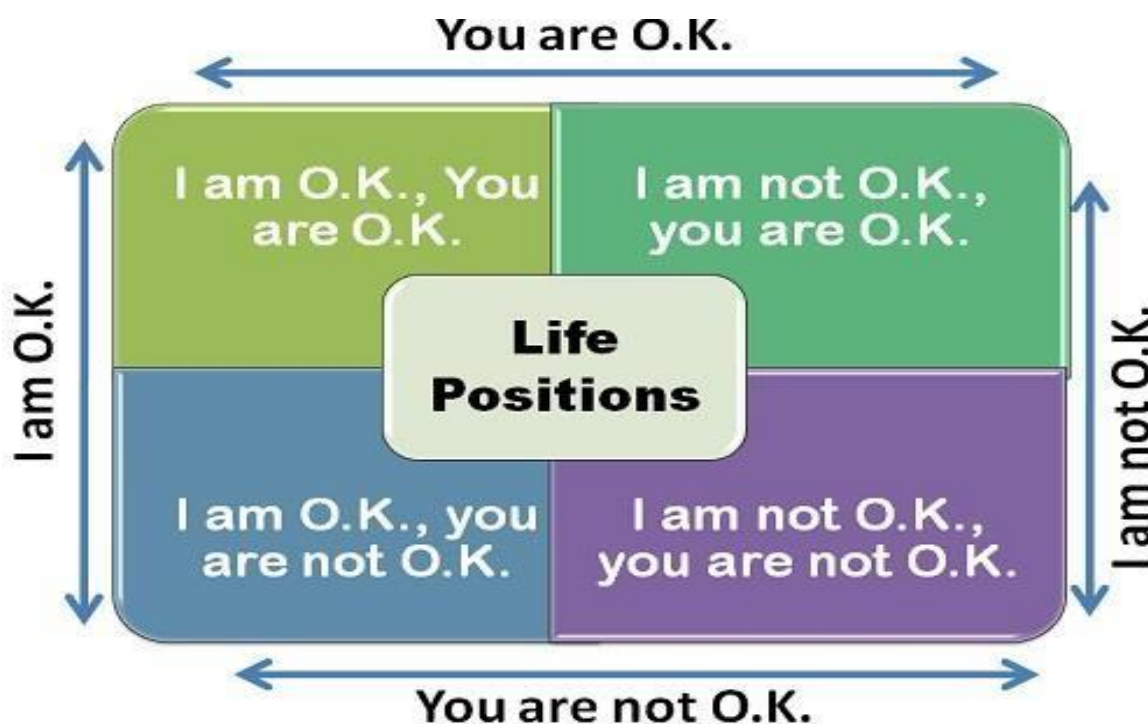
- ➢
1. **I am O.K., You are O.K.:** This life position shows that an individual has several O.K. experiences with others. This means, an individual encountered no severe problems or issues with others in his childhood and had a normal relationship with them. People with such life positions about themselves and others around him

can solve any problem very easily and realizes the significance of others being in his life. This position is based on the adult ego.

2. **I am O.K., You are not O.K.:** This life position is created when an individual was too much ignored when he was a child. Here, an individual believes that he is right, and all the others around him are wrong. These are the individual who possesses the rebellion child ego and put blame on others for anything that goes wrong with them.

3. **I am not O.K., you are O.K.:** This life position gets created when an individual feels that others do things better than him. He feels inferior to others and believes that others can do many things which he cannot do by himself. These kinds of people always complain about one thing or the other and remain highly dissatisfied with their lives.

4. **I am not O.K., you are not O.K.:** This kind of life position is created by those who lacks interest in living. They feel life is not worth living and are the ones who have been neglected by their parents in their childhood and were brought up by the servants. Such kind of people commits suicide or homicide to end their lives. Thus, the life positions talk about the individual developing his identity, sense of worth and perception about others during his childhood and believing it to be true until and unless some major experience changes it.

JOHARI WINDOW

Johari window is a psychological tool to self-assess one's behaviour as well as the relationship with others, through feedback or disclosure. It is one of the most effective means of self-analysis by considering the other's perspective to understand oneself in a better way.

It helps in determining the areas of expertise or strengths, the shortcomings, the scope of development and challenge to be faced.

The Johari Window Model was profounded by Joseph Luft and Harrington Ingham in the year 1955.

The model consists of four quadrants, each of which determines a different combination. These combinations are a result of facts known or unknown by oneself about himself along with the facts known or unknown to others.

SELF AWARENESS:

Awareness of self is vital in the context of inter-personal relationships.

Behavioral experts have identified four different levels of self awareness.

- Quadrant 1 or the Open/Free area is known to your own self as well as known to the others,
- Quadrant 2 or Blind Area is known to others but not known to oneself
- Quadrant 3 or Hidden areas is known to self but not known to the others
- Quadrant 4 or Unknown Area is neither known to the self nor known by the others

	Known to Self	**Unknown to Self**
Known to Others	**Open** (Public knowledge; what I show to you)	**Blind** (Feedback - your gift to me)
Unknown to Others	**Hidden** (Private; mine to share if I trust you)	**Unconscious** (Unknown; new awareness can emerge)

These are:

1. The open self
2. The blind self
3. The hidden self and
4. The unknown self

1.Open Self: This quadrant shows the behavior, motives, attitudes, knowledge skills of an individual that he is aware of and is willing to share it with others. The open self is characterized as a state wherein the individual is open and straight forward to himself and others about what he is doing, how is he doing and what are his intentions.

2. Blind Self: The blind self shows the state of an individual known to others but not known to him. It is area of talent or a specific trait or behaviour of a person which can be positive or negative, is known to others; however, the person himself is unaware of it.

3.Hidden Self: This quadrant of the Johari window shows the state of an individual known to him but not known to the others. This is generally seen in the individuals who are introvert and do not like to share their private lives with anyone. The individual keeps his feelings, ideas or thoughts to himself and do not disclose it in front of the others.

4.Unknown Self: The unknown self is the mysterious state of an individual neither known to him, nor others know about it. Ofen the feelings, thoughts or ideas go so deep down the individual that it becomes difficult for the individual as well for the other people to understand it.

The ultimate need is to enlarge the **open self quadrant** with the intent to establish a fruitful relationship with the self as well with others such that the work can be performed efficiently when working as a team.
As we know that all the four quadrants are unique but to maintain transparency and cordial relations within a team, it is essential to maximize the arena or the open area.
Thus, Johari window aims at improvement of interpersonal relationships, behaviour, attitude and skills within an organization by continually assessing the scope of growth.

UNIT – IV: ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR - SBAA1306

UNIT IV   GROUPS IN THE ORGANIZATION

Group - Concepts, Types, Features, Norms and Behavior, Stages, Group Cohesiveness - Leadership - Concept, Theories - Traits, Behavioral, Situational, Contingency, Styles, Managerial Grid - Conflict - Process, Types, Conflict Management.

LEADERSHIP

Leadership can be defined as an art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically toward the achievement of group goals.

Leadership means to develop willingness to work enthusiastically with zeal and confidence.

Difference between a Leadership and a Management

FACTORS	LEADER	MANAGER
Source of power	Has Personal abilities	Is authority delegated
Focus	Has vision and purpose	Operating results
Approach	Transformational	Transactional
Process	Inspiration	Control
Emphasis	Collectivity	Individualism
Futurity	Proactive	Reactive
Type	Formal and informal	Formal

Importance of leadership

Motivates employees

1. Creates confidence in employees
2. Builds morale among employees
3. Leadership skills
4. Ability to use power effectively and in a responsible manner
5. Ability to comprehend that human beings have different motivation forces at different times and in different situations
6. Ability to inspire
7. Ability to act in a manner that will develop a climate conducive to responding to an arousing

- Fundamental understanding of people
- Ability to inspire followers to apply their fullest capacities to a project.
- Developing a particular style of leadership

Leadership styles (3 styles of leadership)

1. Autocratic style

It is also known as authoritarian directive or monothetic style. In this style a manager centralizes decision-making power in himself. He structures the complete situation for his employed and they do what they are told. Here the leadership may be negative because followers are uniformed, insecure, and afraid on the leader's authority. There are three categories of autocratic leaders.

- **Strict autocrat:** He is very strict, his style or method of influencing his subordinates is through negative motivation i.e. by criticizing his subordinates, imposing penalty etc.,
- **Benevolent Autocrat:** He centralizes decision making power in him, but his motivation style is positive. He can be effective in getting efficiency in many situations. Some people to work under strong authority structure and they derive satisfaction by this leadership.
- **Incompetent Autocrat:** Sometimes superior adopt autocratic leadership style just to hide their incompetence. Because they feel in other styles they may be exposed before their subordinates. However, this style cannot be used for a long time.

Advantages of autocratic style of leadership

- Employees who like to work under strong authority structure and they derive satisfaction by this leadership
- Provides strong motivation and reward to a manger exercising this style.
- Help in quick decision making.
- Less competent employees also have scope to work based on the instruction given to them by their leaders.

Disadvantages of autocratic style of leadership

- People dislike strict style of leadership and they get demotivated.
- Frustration, low morale and conflict develops in the organsiation , jeopardizing organizational efficiency
- Employees loose their individuality and creativity because of continuously listening and following the instruction given by the leaders.

Democratic or Participative Style :

The style is democratic, consultative or ideographic. It involves a mental and emotional involvement of an employee in a group situation which encourages him to contribute to group goals and share responsibility in them. The manager in this style emphasizes on consultation and participation of his subordinates. Hence a participative manager decentralizes on consultation and participation of his subordinates. Subordinates are also broadly informed about the conditions affecting them and their jobs. He also encourages, accepts and appreciates the ideas and suggestions given by them.

Advantages

- Employees' feels recognized
- It a highly motivating technique for employees,
- Raises the morale and attitude of employees.

- Productivity increases.

Disadvantages
- Employees may not have understood the organizational process and may intervene and give suggestions
- Employees who are not ready to interact and participate may create problems.

4. Free rein Style

It means giving complete freedom to the subordinates. In this style manager once determines the policies, programs and limitations for action and the entire process is left to the subordinates. Group members perform everything and the manager usually maintains contacts with outside persons to bring the information and materials which the group needs .This type of leadership is suitable in certain situations, where the manager can leave a choice to the group. This helps the managers to develop independent personality. However contribution of the manager is almost nil. Hence this style is rarely used in organization.

GROUPS IN ORGANISATION

In any organization, the work of an individual is influenced by that of another. The employees, therefore, have to work together in a co-ordinate manner to complete any task. In other words, it is teamwork that makes goal attainment possible.

There is a no. of groups that one can find in a work place. These groups contribute either directly or indirectly to the success of the organization. The behavior of an individual is significantly influenced by the group to which he belongs. It is, therefore, more appropriate to discuss group behavior in the context of organizational behavior.

MEANING OF GROUP:

A group is a cluster of persons who have come together to pursue activities of common interest. A group may consist of any no. of persons. But the group members must have continued interaction with and must be psychologically aware of one another.

DEFINITION:

According to Edgar Schein, "a group is an aggregation of people who interact with each other, are aware of one another, have a common objective, and perceive themselves to be a group"

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GROUP:

1. A group is always a conglomeration of persons

2. The members know and interact with one another

3. The members come together to pursue certain activities of common interest.

4. Each member perceives that he is a part of the group

NEED FOR GROUP FORMATION

Nearness and interaction:

In the workplace, the employees work close to each other. During their course of work, they may have to interact with one another. Such an environment may induce them to form groups.

Capacity to influence:

The capacity of each individual in the organization to influence another by reason of work- or work-related issues is another factor that results in the formation of groups.

Need for security:

One of the main reasons for the formation of groups in the organization is the need for security. If the employer creates an environment in which the employees feel insecure, they have to come together as a group, namely, the union to safeguard their interests.

Common interest:

People with common interest, likes and dislikes often come together. This happens in an organization too. The subject matter of interest may be something connected with their work or it can be anything like politics, sports, hobbies, etc.

Recognition:

The recognition that is not normally available to a person, when he is alone becomes a member of certain group. A person who feels it all his endeavors must be recognized and appreciated will identify himself with some group in the organization.

Power:

Employees derive much greater power collectively, i.e., as members of union, than as individuals. In an organization where trade unions are absent or not powerful, belonging to a small informal group gives an individual a feeling that the group will not let him down when he faces a crisis. Further, a person who has no formal authority in the organization may be in the position to influence the members of an informal group by becoming its leader.

To get rid of delay:

Formal organization promotes delay in view of hierarchy and longer channels of communication. To get rid of the delay in the completion of certain specific tasks,executives, sometimes, may have to meet and interact with employees casually and informally.
An informal group of subordinates and superiors, thus, exists within a formal organization.

TYPES OF GROUPS:
Formal Groups:

a formal group. Such has a hierarchical structure. The members of the formal group are allotted definite task. They have adhered to certain rules and regulations. A formal group is also known as a command group.

Every superior has subordinates whom he delegates authority to enable them to carry out the task assigned. For the performance of the task by the subordinates, the superior is answerable to his own superior.

Formal groups can be permanent as well as temporary. Command groups and permanent committees are examples of permanent formal groups. A task force created for specific purpose is an example of a temporary formal group.

Informal Groups:

An informal group is the one which is unofficially created. It rises owing to personal relationships between the individuals of the organization. Factors such as friendship, language, religion, etc., influence the formation of informal groups.

An informal group may sometimes perform a task that the formal group has failed to perform. In formal groups maintain and strength the values and beliefs of their members. They provide the feeling of security to the members and help them interact with one another. They further strive to solve their work-related problems.

Membership Groups:

A membership group is one to which an individual actually belongs whether or not he is satisfied with the norms, values, beliefs and practices of such a group.

Reference Groups:

A reference group is one with which the individual actually identifies himself. In other words he would like to be associated with such a group

In-Group:

An in-group is one which we belong. The members of an in-group have certain values, beliefs, ideals, and norms that act as a binding force.

Out-Group:

The out-group is one to which we do not belong. It consists of members who hold the values, beliefs, ideals and norms that are quiet opposed to those of the members of the in- group.

Open Groups:

An open group is the one that is in a constant state of change. Its membership keeps fluctuating, i.e., existing embers may leave and new members may join. The group accepts the idea of the new members and may slowly give p certain old practices. In view of such a trend, the open group may have plans and proposals only for a shorter period of time.

Due to its peculiar characteristics, the open group faces conditions of imbalance and instability.

DIFFERENT STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT:

Forming Stage: The forming stage is marked by great deal of uncertainty over the purpose, structure and leadership of the group. At the end of this stage, inter-personal relationships are established and members begin to identify themselves with the group.

Storming Stage:

This stage is characterized by conflicts and confrontations among the group members. Such conflicts may arise due to differences in perception. A condition like this may sometimes lead to group split.

Norming Stage:

At this stage one person emerges as a powerful leader. Such a development paves a way for what is called group cohesion. A strong sense of group identity and comradeship also develops.

Performing Stage:

This stage is characterized by teamwork, role clarity and task accomplishment. It exhibits the highest level of group maturity. Conflicts among the members are resolved through group discussion

Adjourning Stage:

This stage is relevant for work teams, task forces and such similar groups that have only a limited task to perform. As soon as the task is completed, the activities of the group are wrapped up.

Group Norms

'Group norms' are the rules and regulations prescribed for the group members. In other words these are the do's and don'ts. These reflect the feelings, beliefs, values and attitudes commonly shared by the group members.
Group norms provide the standard against which the behavior of a member is evaluated. A member violating norms may have to face disciplinary action. A member of a trade union, for example, who does not respond to strike call given by the union, may be expelled.

Characteristics of group norms:
1. Norms explain the characteristics of a group

2. These relate to the behavior of the members that is considered desirable.

3. Norms provide the standard or basis against which the behavior of the group members is assessed.

4. Norms are applied to all the members of the group

GROUP COHENSIVENESS:
Group cohesiveness refers to the extent to which the members of the group are attached to each other and willing to remain in the group.

Factors Influencing Cohesion:

The extent to which the members of the group interact with each other determines group cohesion. Differences in option are bound to rise in any workplace. Such differences have to be sorted out through discussions and deliberations. The greater the interaction among the group members the better will be the cohesiveness.

Threat:

The kind of threat the members face both from internal and external environments can influence group cohesion. The greater the threat the better will be the cohesiveness. This is so because, the members know very well that they have to stand united failing which they cannot survive.

Leadership:

The quality of leadership can be an important determinant. If the leader is capable, he will be able to secure cohesion easily among members.

Conviction:

If there is always a sense of conviction among the group members on the decisions reached, it is an indication that cohesion s absolute. If a few members try to thrust tier ideas on their group, such a conviction may not exist.

Values:

The extent to which the group members share their values and attitudes is another determinant. If every member starts acting as per his value system, securing group cohesiveness will become difficult.

Size of the group:

The size of the group can be yet another important determining factor. When the size of the group increases, securing cohesion among members will become difficult. This happens because there may not be consensus among members on certain issues owing to the large size of the group.

MEASURES TO INCREASE GROUP COHESIVENESS:

Inducing agreements on group goals:

The work of every employee influences and is influenced by the work of others. In the work place the employees, therefore, have to work as a team. If only they work in a co-ordinated manner, it will be possible for them to carry out any task. There must be consensus among the members on the goal for the accomplishment of which they work together. The manager has to play a vital role in this regard.

Increasing the membership of like minded persons:

Every organization has a unique culture that is reflected in the beliefs and attitudes of the personnel and also in the work methods and practices. The behavior of the employees, therefore, must reflect its culture. While recruiting new employees, it must be ensured that they are in a position to understand and appreciate the organization's culture. If some members behave in an altogether different manner without bothering about the customs and values of the organization, it is sure to affect group cohesiveness. Steps must, therefore, be taken to induct and retain only those whose

Increasing interaction among the members:

Any issue has to be discussed in a forum and no attempt shall be made to thrust one's view on others. Before evolving decisions on any important matter, the manager must provide opportunities for all his subordinates to discuss the same and arrive at a consensus.

Group cohesiveness depends to a greater extent on how often and how effectively the members interact before reaching an agreement on any issue.

Taking care of group size:

If the group is unwieldy, securing consensus among the members is sure to become difficult. It is, therefore, necessary to take care of the group size.Encouraging competition among groups: Another measure to increase group cohesiveness is to encourage healthy competition among different groups in the organization. For example, the salesmen deployed in the southern region may compete with those deployed in the northern region. This will induce the salesman in both the groups to evolve some strategy and work with better understanding.

Rewarding the group instead of the individuals:

If any group performs well, it is important to reward the group as a whole instead of rewarding a few although they have made a significant contribution when compared to others. This may help to avoid ill-feelings among the group members and may in fact bring them closer.

Isolating the group members from rival groups:

When there are rival groups, e.g. Rival trade unions, it may sometimes be necessary to isolate the group members from the rival groups. For this purpose, the leader of the group may have to caution his members always so that they do not get carried away by the claims of the rivals and continue to be loyal to their group.

DECISION-MAKING AND THE GROUP:

Decision making is the process of selecting one alternative from among a no. of alternatives available. The need for decision making will arise only when there are options. If there is only one way of doing a task, there is nothing to decide.

According to Haynes and Massie, 'decision making is the process of selection from a set of alternative courses of action which is thought to fulfill the objective of the decision-problem more satisfactorily than others.'

In the words of George Terry, 'decision making is the selecting of an alternative, from two or more alternatives, to determine an opinion or a course of action.'

PROCESS OF DECISION MAKING:

IDENTIFING AND UNDERSTANDING THE PROBLEM:

The first step in the process of decision making is to identify and understand the actual problem. If only the actual problem is identified, it will be possible to provide remedy by evolving a suitable decision. Sometimes, the symptom is misunderstood as the actual problem and an attempt is made to find a solution to it.

MAKING AN ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM:

Once the actual problem is identified, the next step is to make a detailed analysis of the same. Analysis of the problem requires data that may be obtained from both internal and external sources.

IDENTIFYING ALTERNATIVE SOLUTION:

After the problem has been analyzed in detail, the next step is to develop alternative solutions. Any organizational problem has many solutions. It is, therefore, necessary that the decision maker identifies the alternative solutions.

EVALUATING THE ALTERNATIVE SOLUTION:

After the alternative solutions have been identified, the next step is to make an evaluation of the same. Evaluation of alternatives is done by seeing the pros and cons of the alternatives.

SELECTING THE BEST SOLUTION:

At this stage the solution considered the best and the most viable one, under the circumstances, are selected. In addition to the merits of each alternative solution, the following factors too influence the selection the best alternative:

- Resources available

- The values and beliefs of the decision maker

- Opinions of the staff

- Past experience, etc.

IMPLEMENTING THE DECISION:

After the final decision has been made, the next step is to implement the same. Implementing the decision is done by communicating the same to all concerned. The responsibility of caring out the decision must be fixed on individuals. Necessary

procedures should be laid down for executing the decision. Suitable provision must be made to watch the progress of the decision.

REVIEW:

Periodic review of the decision, during the period of its implementation, is necessary. This is done by comparing the actual results with the expected results. Deviations, if any, must be noticed and corrective measures must be taken then and there. Certain modifications or alterations in the decision may be made if necessary.

INDIVIDUAL DECISIONS:

These are decisions made by individuals over an organizational issue. The individual, by virtue of his position or knowledge or efficiency may be enjoying such a decision making authority. For example, when there is dispute between the workers and the management, the matter may be referred to a mediator who may conduct an enquiry and announce his decision. The decision of the mediator is binding on both the workers and the management.

GROUP DECISIONS:

These are decisions made by the group of persons. In an organisation, there may exist a committee consisting of the representatives of both the worker and the management. When there is any dispute between the workers and the management. When there is a dispute between the workers and the management, the mater will be referred to the committee. The committee may conduct an enquiry and announce its decision which is binding on both the workers and the management.

MERITS OF GROUP DECISIONS:

1. Every member of the group will come out with his views on the problem considered. The problem, therefore, can be thoroughly discussed and the best solution can be found out. Such an advantage is not available in case of individual decisions.
2. The decision of the group, usually, will not be a biased one. This is because; every member of the group has his own ideals and values. No member can thrust his view on others. There is always chance for the bias element entering the individual decisions.
3. The group usually consists of members who represent different segments of the organization. Therefore, each member will ensure that injustice is not done to the segment he represents.
4. The process of group decision making also provides scope for proper co-ordination and co-operation among the members into confidence when he discusses any issue.
5. Group decisions enjoy a greater sense of acceptability than individual decisions.

DEMERITS OF GROUP DECISIONS:

1. There may be delay in arriving at a decision.
2. There is no fixed responsibility on any member of the group for the quality of the decision made. It is, therefore, possible that a casual approach may be adopted throughout the decision-making process.
3. Group decisions are often found to be compromise decisions. This happens because the members may give divergent views on the issue and the consensus has to be reached somehow at the end. The decision is finally made so as not to hurt anybody's sentiments. Such a decision can only be a compromise decision and not the best.
4. It is also possible that a few influential members of the group may try to put pressures on others and get their consent.
5. Group decisions are always expensive compared to individual decisions in terms of time, money and efforts required.

6. Conflicts may also arise between the members of the group. As a result, a decision may not be evolved at all and the entire process may be deferred indefinitely

LEADERSHIP THEORIES
1.CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP THEORY

They are called great man theory and can be traced back to ancient times .Plato's Republic and Confucius' Analects dealt with leadership. They provided some insights on leadership. Subsequent studies based on these insights have suggested that 'a leader is born and is not made'. A leader has ome charisma which acts as influencer. Charismatic is a Greek work which means gift. Thus charisma is a god gifted attribute in a person which makes him a leader irrespective of situations in which he works,

Charismatic leaders are those who inspire and have a major impact on their organizations through their personal vision and energy. Occasionally, a leader emerges whose high visibility and personal charisma catch the public consciousness. Charismatic leader have extremely high level of self confidence, dominance, and a strong conviction .they are always oriented towards high level of goals or vision, which captures the energy of followers. The theory believes that only a transformation leader inspires his followers through vision and energy which a normal leader cannot do. The best examples are the Great leaders like Mahatma Gandhi and Lenin and the great industrialists like JRD Tata. GD Birla, Dhirbai Ambani who created industrial empires because of their own vision, energy and entrepreneurship.

The basic assumption of charismatic theory are:
1. Leader has exceptional inborn leadership qualities which bestowed upon them by the divine power.
2. These inborn qualities are sufficient for a leader to successful.
3. Since these qualities are inborn, these cannot be enhanced through education and training. Further these qualities are of very personal nature, these cannot be shard by others.
4. These leadership qualities make a leader very effective and situational factors do not have any influence.

Limitation of the theory

➢ If we assume that leaders are born, it means that we cannot develop leaders in the organizations.
➢ A charismatic leader may fail in certain situations.

TRAIT THEORY

The behavioural psychological researchers accepted the fact that leadership traits are not completely inborn but they can also be acquired through learning and experience. Trait is defined as an enduring quality of an individual. The trait approach seeks to determine what makes a successful leader form the leader's own personal characteristics. Trait approach leadership studies were quite familiar

between 1930 to 1950.The method was to select leaders of eminence and their characteristics were studied. It was the hypothesis that leaders with certain traits could become more successful leaders. **Various studies Shows various traits, hence these traits can be broadly classified into innate qualities and acquirable traits**

➢ Innate traits are those traits which are inborn in an individual they are related to one physical features and intelligence.

➢ Acquirable traits are those traits which are acquired and increased through various processes like self learning, training, experience etc. they are traits like emotional stability, human relations, empathy, objectivity, motivation skills, technical skills, communication skills, social skills etc.,

The studies have given that intelligence, attitudes, personality and biological factors are ingredients for effective leaders.

A review of various research studies has been presented by Stogdill, He has suggested these traits in a successful leader

1. Physical and constitutional factors (height, weight, physique, energy, health, appearance)
2. Intelligence
3. Self-confidence
4. Sociability
5. Will (initiative, persistence ambition)
6. Dominance
7. Surgency (talkative, cheerfulness, geniality, enthusiasm, expressiveness, alertness and alertness and originality)

Limitations of the theory
  ☐ There cannot be generalization of traits for successful leaders.
  ☐ No evidence can be given about the degree of traits because have various traits in various degrees.
  ☐ No definite conclusion can be drawn for the measurement of the traits.

BEHAVIOURAL THEORY

Behaviour theory of leadership emphasizes that strong leadership is a result of effective role behaviour. Leadership is shown by a persons act rather by his traits. Researchers exploring leadership role have come to the conclusion that to operate effectively, groups need some one to perform two major functions; task related function and group maintenance function. Task related function relate to providing solutions to the problems faced by the groups, in performing jobs and activities. Group maintenance function or social functions are related to actions of mediating disputes and ensuring that individuals feel valued by the group. An individual who is able to perform both roles successfully would be an effective leader. These two roles requires two different sets of behaviour from the leader, known as leadership styles. Leaders behavior may be viewed in two ways, functional and dysfunctional.

Functional leader influences followers positively by giving clear goals, motivating employees for achieving goals, raising the level of morale, building team spirit, effective two way communication, etc.,

Dysfunctional leader on the other hand is unfavourable towards employees and denotes ineffective leadership. Such a behaviour may an inability to accept employees ideas, display of emotional immaturity , poor human relations.

Limitations of the theory
1. A behaviour which has been functional at a point of time may be dysfunctional at another point of time.
2. Effectiveness of the leadership behaviour is depended on two external variables
   - Nature of followers
   - Situation in which the leader operates etc.

4. SITUATIONAL THEORY

The approach was applied for the first time in 1920 in the armed forces of Germany with the objective to get good generals under different situations. The studies when conducted in organizations in 1950's gave prime attention in situational theory of leadership (also known as contingency theory) is given to the situation in which the leadership is exercised. There for the theory states that the effectiveness of leadership will be affected by the factors associated with the leader and factors associated with the situation.

The dimensions of leadership have been presented below :

The various factors affecting leadership effectiveness may be broadly by classified in two major categories, Leader's behaviour and situational factors. The combination of both these factors determines leadership effectiveness.
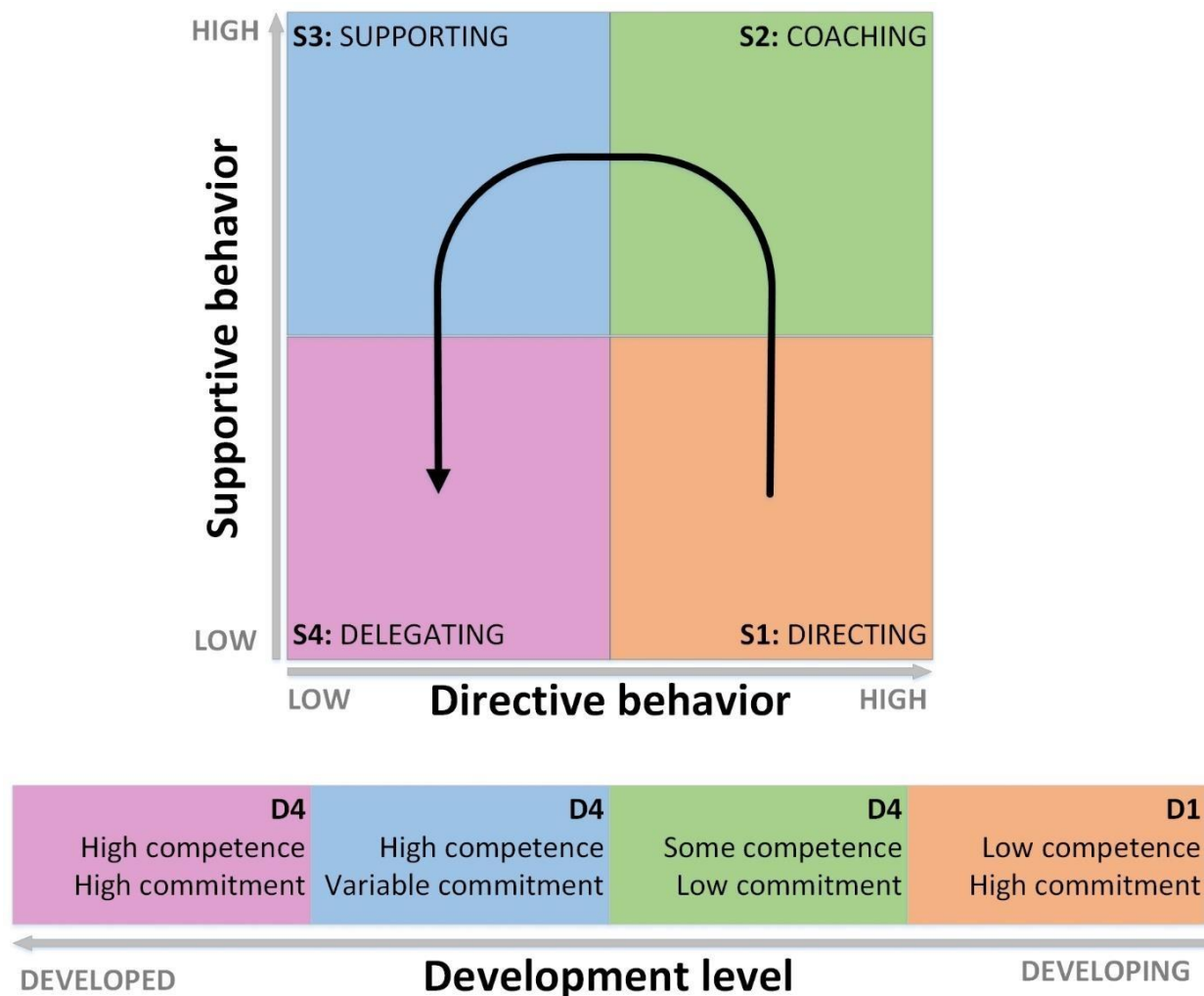
Leader behaviour is affected by two variables:
   a. Leader's characteristics
   b. Leader's Hierarchical position

Situational factors
   - Subordinates characteristics
   - Leader's situation
   - Group factors
   - Organizational factors

Diagram of the dimensions of leadership:

MANAGERIAL GRID DEVELOPED BY BLAKE AND MOUTON

One of the most widely known approaches of leadership styles in the managerial grid developed by Blake and Mouton. They emphasize the leadership consists of factors of both task oriented and relation-oriented behaviour in varying degrees.Two variable have been taken for the study , they are:-

➢ Concern for production
➢ Concern for people

The concern for phrase has been used to convey how managers are concerned for people or production. Concern for production means the attitudes of superiors towards a variety of things, such as, quality of policy decisions, procedures and processes creativeness of research, quality of staff services, work efficiency and volume of output. Concern for people includes degree of personal commitment toward goal achievement, maintaining the self esteem of workers, responsibility based on trust, and satisfying inter personal relations. The managerial grid identifies five leadership styles based upon these two factors(Concern for production &Concern for people) found in organizations.

```
High    9 ┌─────────────────────┬─────────────────────┐
        8 │  1.9                │  9.9                │
          │ (Country club)      │ (Team)              │
        7 │ Management          │ Management          │
        6 │        ┌────────────┴──┐                  │
Concern for 5│      │  5.5          │                  │
people    │        │  Middle of    │                  │
        4 │        │  the road     │                  │
        3 │        └───────────────┘                  │
        2 │ (Improverished)     │ (Task)              │
          │ Management          │ Management          │
        1 │    (1.1)            │   (9.1)             │
          └─────────────────────┴─────────────────────┘
Low         1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9    High
                  Concern for production
```

MANAGERIAL GRID
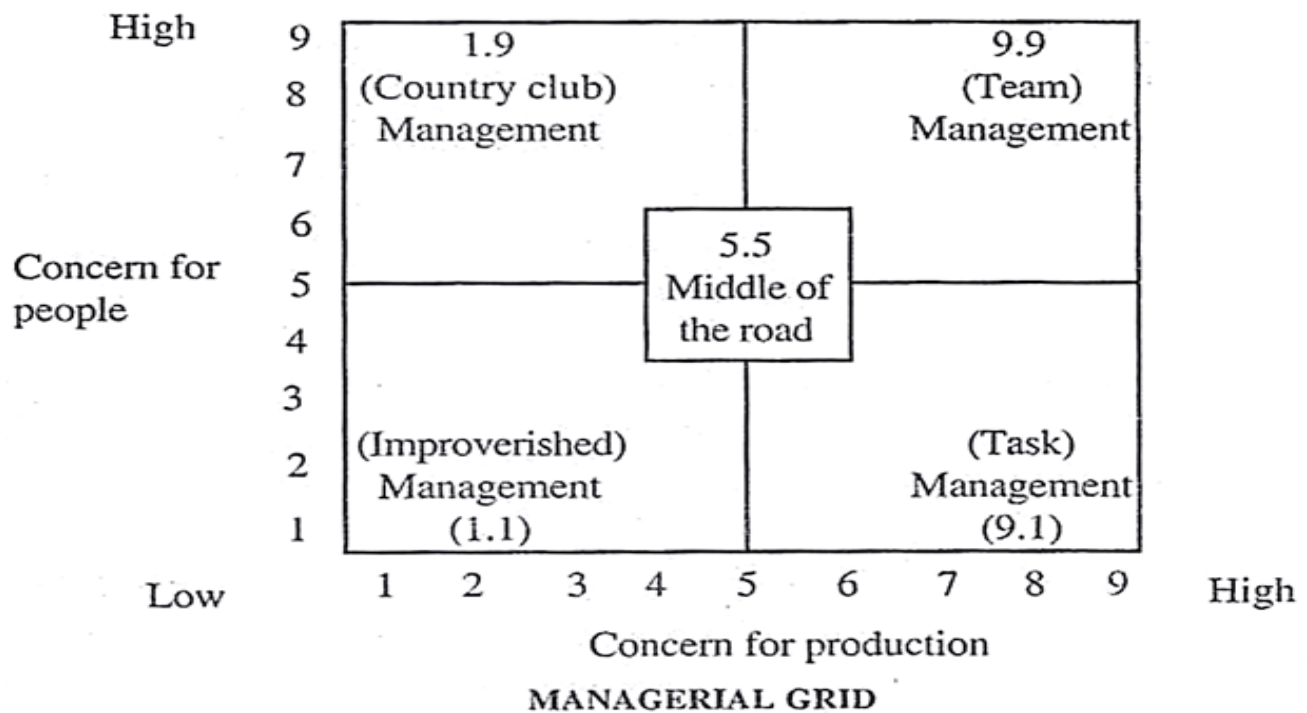
Blake and Mouton have described five styles of leadership based on the above model
They are

1.   impoverished (1,1),
2.   country club (1,9),
3.   task (9,1) ,
4.   Middle road (5,5)
5.   Team (9,9) styles of leadership

1. Impoverished (1,1): exertion of minimum effort is required to get work done and sustain organization morale.
2. Country club (1,9): Thoughful attention to needs of people leads to friendly and comfortable organization atmosphere and work tempo,
3. Task (9,1) : efficiency results from arranging work requirements in such a way that human elements have little effect.
4. Middle road (5,5) : adequate performance through balance of work requirements and maintaining satisfactory morale.
5. Team (9,9) : work accomplished is from committed people with interdependence through a common stake in organization purpose and with trust and respect.

6. Managerial grid is useful device to a manager for identifying and classifying managerial styles, it helps him to understand why he gets the reaction that he does from his subordinates. It is a means of managerial training and of identifying various combinations of leadership styles.

.

FIEDLER'S CONTINGENCY MODEL OF LEADERSHIP

The Fiedler Contingency Model was created in the mid-1960s by Fred Fiedler, a scientist who studied the personality and characteristics of leaders. The model states that there is no one best style of leadership. Instead, a leader's effectiveness is based on the situation.

This theory has taken its base form the situational approach of leadership ,states that any single style cannot be considered suitable for all situations and for all kind of subordinates. Fiedler developed contingency model of leadership assuming that the effectiveness of the leadership is based on the ability to act in terms of situational requirements

Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership holds that people become leaders not only because of their qualities but also because of various situational factors and the interactions between group members and the leader.

This model also explains a relationship between leadership style and the favorableness of ituation.

1. Fiedler described situational favorableness in terms of three dimensions—
 The leader and member relationship
 The degree of task structure an
 The leader's position power.

2. If the three dimensions are high, the situation can be said to be favorable. If the three dimensions are low, the situation in combination with leadership style determines effectiveness.

3. This theory is criticized for its deficiencies like narrow focus on a single leader trait (task or relations orientations), ambiguity in measurement of terms of the model, and lack of explanatory process.

4. Fiedler proposed a new theory based on empirical research, which is called the cognitive resource theory.

5. He identified the situations under which the leader's cognitive resources namely intelligence, experience and technical expertise contribute to group performance.

The leadership style of the leader, thus, fixed and measured by what he calls the least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale, an instrument for measuring an individual's leadership orientation. The LPC scale asks a leader to think of all the people with whom they have ever worked and then describe the person with whom they have worked least well, using a series of bipolar scales of 1 to 8, such as the following:

Unfriendly   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8   Friendly

Uncooperative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Cooperative

Hostile   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8   Supportive

....   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 ....

Guarded   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8   Open

A high LPC score suggests that the leader has a "human relations orientation", while a low LPC score indicates a "task orientation". Fiedler assumes that everybody's least preferred coworker in fact is on average about equally unpleasant. But people who are indeed relationship motivated, tend to describe their least preferred coworkers in a more positive manner, e.g., more pleasant and more efficient. Therefore, they receive higher LPC scores. People who are task motivated, on the other hand, tend to rate their least preferred coworkers in a more negative manner. Therefore, they receive lower LPC scores. So, the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale is actually not about the least preferred worker at all, instead, it is about the person who takes the test; it is about that person's motivation type. This is so, because, individuals who rate their least preferred coworker in relatively favorable light on these scales derive satisfaction out of interpersonal relationship, and those who rate the coworker in a relatively unfavorable light get satisfaction out of successful task performance. This method reveals an individual's emotional reaction to people they cannot work with. Critics point out that this is not always an accurate measurement of leadership effectiveness. Situational favorableness

According to Fiedler, the ability to control the group situation (the second component of the contingency model) is

Fiedler postulated two major style of leadership

1. **Human relations style**
2. **Task directed style**

Human relations style was oriented primarily towards achieving good interpersonal relations and towards achieving a position of personal dominance. Human relations-oriented manager/leader is effective in the intermediate range of favorableness. In the very favorable and very unfavorable situation task-oriented leadership is effective.

Task oriented style is concerned towards task performed. Fiedlers felt that ' the group performance will be contingent upon the appropriate matching of leadership style and the degree to which the situation provides the leader that is the degree to which the situation provides the leader with influence over his group members.

Favourableness of situation has been defined as the degree to which a given situation enables a leader to exert influence over a group.

He has identified three dimensions of favourableness of situation.

☐ The leader member relationships: the leader should be accepted by the followers
☐ The degree of the task structure: Task is properly structured

☐ The leader position or power obtained through formal authority. Great deal of authority and is formally attributed to leader's position
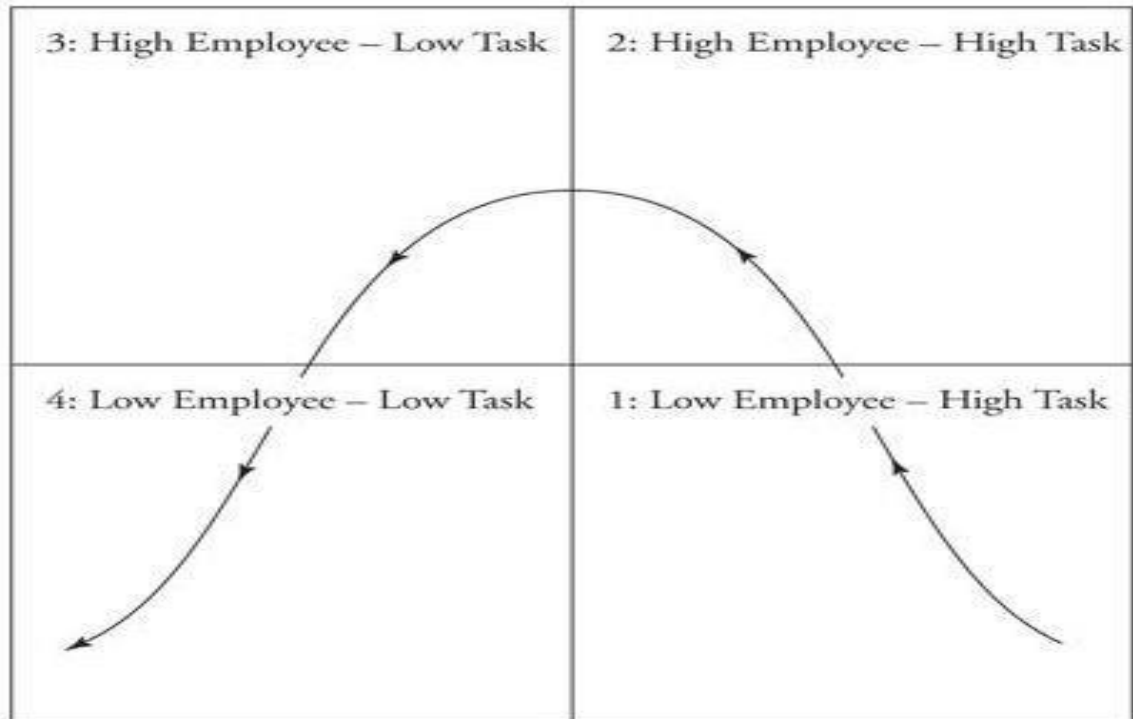
Figure 1 Hersey-Blanchard's Model of Situational Leadership.

The figure shows task oriented leader tend to perform best in groups situations that ate either favourable or unfavorable. Human relations oriented leaders perform best in situations that ate intermediate in favourableness. The model indicates that leadership effectiveness depends upon the various elements in the group environment,. Thus the effectiveness of the group performance can be affected by changing the leadership style for the situation in accordance with the described relationships. This also helps in designing the selection and training programmes for managers to be suitable for given situations.

ORGANISATIONAL CONFLICT

In simple terms conflict means **disagreement between the persons employed in the organization**. It may also mean clash of interest. It is the result of difference in the opinion of employees of the organization over any issue. Such a difference of opinion arises mainly because of the differences in the perception

If, for example, a decision has to be made on whether to revise the working hours or to continue the existing timings, the employer is sure to get different views from different persons. Before making the final decision, the employer has to make a secure consensus among the employees. Only then the proposal will get the support of everyone in the organization.

Conflicts are not the same as disputes. In the case of conflicts, the solution can be found out at the organizational level and the matter has to be referred to an impartial mediator.

Definition:

"**Conflicts are any situation in which two or more parties feel themselves in opposition. It is an interpersonal process that arises from disagreements over the goals or the methods to accomplish those goals**" –John W. Newstrom and KeithDavis

"Conflict is the condition of objective incompatibility between values and goals" – ralph Kilman and Kenneth Thomas.

ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT MEANING:

In simple terms conflict means disagreement between the persons employed in the organization. It may also mean clash of interest. It is the result of difference in the opinion of employees of the organization over any issue. Such a difference of opinion arises mainly because of the differences in the perception

If, for example, a decision has to be made on whether to revise the working hours or to continue the existing timings, the employer is sure to get different views from different persons. Before making the final decision, the employer has to make a secure consensus among the employees. Only then the proposal will get the support of everyone in the organization.

Conflicts are not the same as disputes. In the case of conflicts the solution can be found out at the organizational level and the matter has to be referred to an impartial mediator.

DEFINITION:

"Conflicts are any situation in which two or more parties feel themselves in opposition. It is an interpersonal process that arises from disagreements over the goals or the methods to accomplish those goals" – john w. Newstrom and KeithDavis

"Conflict is the condition of objective incompatibility between values and goals" – ralph Kilman and Kenneth Thomas.

CAUSES OF CONFLICT:

1. **Changes in work pattern:**

When the employees are asked to adopt a different pattern of work, conflicts may arise between them on whether or not to accept such a proposal and update themselves to be able to discharge their responsibilities as per the new pattern of work.

2. **Difference in perceptions**

   The perception of any issue by the individuals will not be identical. One of the main reason why conflicts arise in the workplace it that the perception of employees of any organizational matter differs. If one person favors the management proposal to revise timings another person may oppose it.

3. **Differences in values**:

   Difference in the value system of individuals is yet another factor contributing the conflicts. Example: an employee, who has certain grievances, may want to show his protest to the management by striking work. On the other hand, another employee, who also has grievances, may show his protest by fasting in the workplace.

4. **Availability of Options**

   Another reason why conflict arises in the work place is that often the employees have options, example: day shift or night shift, salary or commission or both.

   USES OF CONFLICT:

   1.Changes in work pattern:

   When the employees are asked to adopt a different pattern of work, conflicts may arise between them on whether or not to accept such a proposal and update themselves to be able to discharge their responsibilities as per the new pattern of work.

   2.Difference in perceptions:

   The perception of any issue by the individuals will not be identical. One of the main reason why conflicts arise in the workplace it that the perception of employees of any organizational matter differs. If one person favors the management proposal to revise timings another person may oppose it.

   3.Differences in values:

   Difference in the value system of individuals is yet another factor contributing the conflicts. Example: an employee, who has certain grievances, may want to show his protest to the management by striking work. On the other hand, another employee, who also has grievances, may show his protest by fasting in the workplace.

   4.Availability of options:

   Another reason why conflict arises in the work place is that often the employees have options, example: day shift or night shift, salary or commission or both.

   5.Allocation of limited resources:

   Reasons are always scarce in relation to demand. Example: when the funds available are limited, the management may find it difficult to meet the demands of different departments.

   6.Inter-dependence:

   Conflicts arise due to the problem of inter-dependence between individuals and departments. Example: marketing depends on production; production depends on purchase or raw materials and availability of labor which in turn depends on the availability of finance.

   Unequal work load: when there is disparity in the workload of employees operating at the same level, conflicts are bound to arise. This might have been done deliberately and inadvertently.

   7.Biased assessment of subordinates:

Some superiors show favoritism while appraising the performance of their subordinates. Favoritism is based on caste, religion, sex etc.

8.Unattainable targets:

Some superior sets target for their subordinates that are unattainable. It might have been dine intentionally or unintentionally. In any case it provides scope for conflicts in the workplace.

9.Lack of trust and confidence:

Lack of trust and confidence is yet another important cause of conflict. Some superiors have a feeling that their subordinates always shirk duties and are inefficient and incapable.

10.Threat to status quo: Any change taking place in the organization that disturbs the existing pattern of the employees give rise to conflicts. Example: certain privileges enjoyed by the employees may be withdrawn. Additional responsibility may be given to them.

DIFFERNET STAGES OF CONFLICT:

1. LATENT CONFLICT: Conflict has not taken a definite shape. It may arise in the Subconscious mind of a person. All the cause of conflicts is lying hidden.
2. PERCEIVED CONFLICT: here the parties become aware of the existence of the causes of conflict.
3. FELT CONFLICT: Having perceived the conflict the parties, at this stage, begin to feel it. They become emotionally involved in the conflicts:
4. MANIFEST CONFLICT: When the stage is reached, the parties begin to show their hostile feelings out warmly.
5. CONLFICT AFERMATH: This is the large stage with conflict may be suppressed or resolved amicably depending upon the attitudes of the parties and the prevailing conditions.

CAUSES OF CONFLICTS:

Conflict is a natural occurrence. It arises mainly due to the difference in perceptions, values, beliefs, sentiments, likes and dislikes of the people at work. Conflicts are not always bad. Certain benefits also become available to the organization out of these. The various positive and negative aspects are explained below:

Conflict in the workplace could be the result of:

- poor management
- unfair treatment
- unclear job roles
- inadequate training
- poor communication
- poor work environment
- lack of equal opportunities
- bullying and harassment
- significant changes to products, organisational charts, appraisals or pay systems
  Major causes of workplace conflict

Other major causes of conflict in the workplace include:

School of Management Studies

UNIT – V :ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR - SBAA1306

UNIT V: ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT

Types of Organizational Culture, Socialization Process - Organizational Change – Need - Change Process - Resistance to Change, Change Agents - Organizational Development and Intervention Strategies - Power and Politics - Sources of Power, Organizational Politics.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Meaning

"Culture is the set of important understandings that members of a community share in common." It consists of a basic set of values, ideas, perceptions, preferences, concept of morality, code of conduct etc. which create a distinctiveness among human groups.

"Culture is a combination of factors that are learned through our interaction with the environment during our developmental and growth years".

Definitions

"The organizational culture is a system of shared beliefs and attitudes that develop within an organization and guides the behaviour of its members."

"The corporate culture consists of the normal values and unwritten rules of conduct of an organization as well as management styles, priorities, beliefs and inters personal behaviour that prevails. Together they create a climate that influences how will people communicate, plan and make decisions."

"Organizational culture can be defined as the philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms that knit an Organization together and are shared by its employees."

According to Edgar Schein, "Organizational culture can be defined as a pattern of basic assumptions-invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration-that has worked well enough to be considered valuable and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems."

Objective of Organizational Culture:

1. **Cooperation:** By providing shared values and assumptions, culture may enhance goodwill and mutual trust, encouraging cooperation.

2. **Decision Making:** Shared beliefs give members a consistent set of basic assumptions. It may

3. **Control:** Control is provided by three mechanisms
   - Market control mechanism: relies on price. If results fall short of goals, prices are adjusted to stimulate necessary change
   - Bureaucratic control mechanism: relies on formal authority. The control process consists of adjusting rules and regulations and issuing directives
   - Clan control mechanism: relies on shared beliefs and values. Provide a map that members can rely on to choose appropriate course of action.
4. **Communication:** Culture reduces communication problems in two ways:
   - No need to communicate in matters for which shared assumptions already exist (things go without saying)
   - Shared assumptions provide guidelines and cues to help interpret messages that are received
5. **Commitment:** Strong cultures foster strong identification which causes commitment
6. **Perception:** What an individual sees is conditioned by what others sharing the same experience say they are seeing
7. **Justification of behavior:** Culture helps organization members make sense of their behavior by providing justification for **it.**

Characteristics of Organizational Culture:
1. **Individual Autonomy:** The degree of responsibility, freedom and opportunities of exercising initiative that individuals have in the Organization.
2. **Structure:** The degree to which the Organization creates clear objectives and performance expectations. It also includes the degree of direct supervision that is used to control employee behaviour.
3. **Management Support:** The degree to which, managers provide clear communication, assistance; warmth and support to their subordinates
4. .**Identity:** The degree to which, members identify with the Organization as a whole rather than with their particular work group or field of professional expertise.
5. **Performance Reward System:** The degree to which reward system in the Organization like increase in salary, promotions etc. is based on employee performance rather than on seniority, favouritism and so on.

6. **Conflict Tolerance:** The degree of conflict present in relationships between colleagues and work groups as well as the degree to which employees are encouraged to air conflict and criticisms openly.

7. **Risk Tolerance:** The degree to which, employees are encouraged to be innovative, aggressive and risk taking.

8. **Communication Patterns:** The degree to which, Organizational communications are restricted to the formal hierarchy of authority.

9. **Outcome Orientation:** The degree to which, management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve these outcomes.

10. **People Orientation:** The degree to which, management decisions take into consideration the impact of outcomes on people within the Organization. When we appraise the Organization on the basis of the above characteristics, we get a complete picture of the organization's culture. This picture becomes the basis of shared norms, beliefs and understanding that members have about the Organization, how things are done in it and how the members are supposed to behave.

Types of cultutre

Cultural Typology: Goffee and Jones have identified four distinct cultural types. They argue that these four culture types are based on two dimensions which they call sociability and solidarity. Sociability refers to high concerns for people i.e. it is people oriented and focuses on processes rather than on outcomes. The second dimension i.e. solidarity is however task oriented.

These two dimensions create four distinct cultural types:

1. Networked Culture:

Networked culture is high on sociability and low on solidarity. Which means that the Organization treats, its members in a quite friendly manner and there is open sharing of information. However, this culture type may lead to poor performance as the focus is on the people rather than on tasks.

2. Mercenary Culture:

It is low on sociability and high on solidarity. The Organizations with mercenary culture are task oriented and believe in competition. The people are highly focussed and goal oriented but, this type of culture may at times lead to frustration and stress among poor performers.

3. Fragmented Culture:

Fragmented culture is low on both sociability and solidarity. There is little or no identification with the Organization. It is the individual members' commitment, productivity and quality of work which is of utmost importance. This type of culture however suffers from lack of collegiality.

4. Communal Culture:

It is high on both sociability and solidarity. The Organizations with communal culture value both people and tasks. Work accomplishment is from committed people, and there is a relationship of trust and respect.

The following diagram explains the four cultural typology:
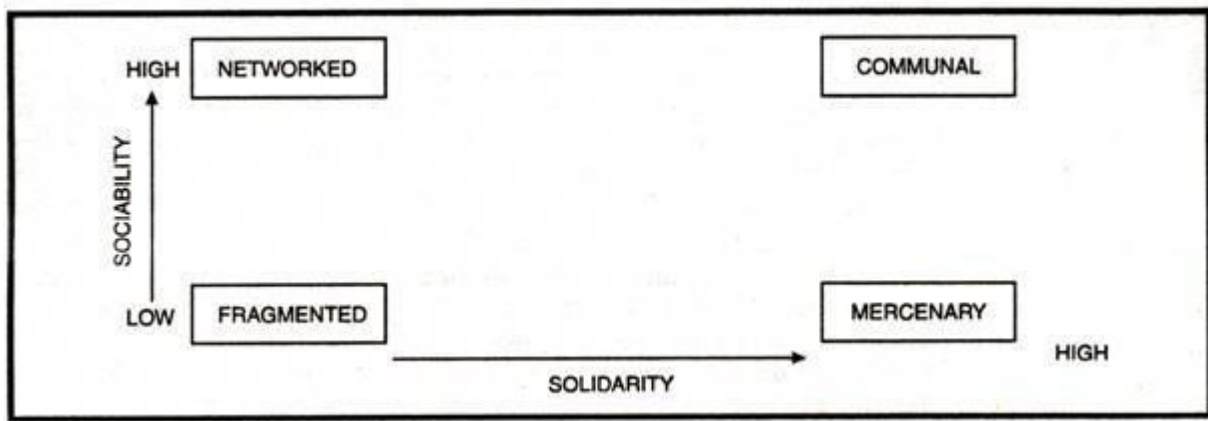
Changing Organizational Culture:

Sometimes an Organization determines that its culture is unfavorable to the Organizational effectiveness and it has to be changed.

For example, if there is a change in the external environment, the Organization must adapt itself to the changing conditions or it will not survive. Though it is very difficult to change the old cultures, but it is something which the management cannot do without.

The following conditions must be present only then a cultural change can take place:

1. Dramatic Crisis: Any dramatic crisis in the Organization like a major financial setback, loss of a major customer, or atechnological breakthrough by a competitor may force the management to look into the relevance of the existing culture.

2. New Top Leadership: If some top executives leave the Organization and new leadership takes over, they may provide an alternative set of key values or a new culture. This new leadership may be more capable of responding to the crisis.

3. Young and Small Organization: When the Organization is new and its size is small, it will be easier for the management to change the culture.

4. Weak Culture: Weak cultures are more amenable to change than strong ones. The higher the agreement among the members on the Organizational values, the more difficult it will be to change.

Methods to improve organizational culture:

(i) The top management people should become the positive role models. They should set the examples through their own behaviour.

(ii) As employees learn the culture through stories, symbols and rituals, the old stories, rituals and symbols should be replaced by creating new ones which are currently in vogue.

(iii) Adding new members, particularly at the higher level, is a powerful strategy to change the culture, provided the new members bring in new culture.

(iv) The socialization processes should be redesigned to align with the new values.

(v) Reward system establish and reinforce specific cultural behaviours and therefore, a change in culture can be initiated and supported by change in corporate reward systems.

(vi) Unwritten norms and beliefs should be replaced with formal rules and regulations that are tightly enforceable.

(vii) Extensive use of job rotations should be made to shake current subcultures.

(viii) Change in the top management can have significant impact on others in the Organization, because he may be, in a real sense, the personification of the culture.

(ix) Change in culture will be comparatively easy if peer group consensus is got through use of employee participation and creation of a climate with a high level of trust.

ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

"Organisational change refers to any alteration that occurs in total work environment".

"Organisational change refers to the alteration of structural relationships and roles of people in the organization."

Significance

- An organisation must develop adaptability to change otherwise it will either be left behind or be swept away by the forces of change.
- Organisational change is inevitable in a progressive culture.
- Modern organizations are highly dynamic, versatile and adaptive to the multiplicity of changes.
- It is largely structural in nature.

- An enterprise can be changed in several ways. Its technology can be changed, its structure, its people and other elements can be changed.

- Organisational change calls for a change in the individual behaviour of the employees.

- Organizations survive, grow or decay depending upon the changing behaviour of the employees.

- Most changes disturb the equilibrium of situation and environment in which the individuals or groups exist.

- If a change is detrimental to the interests of individuals or groups, they will resist the change.

Causes of organizational change:
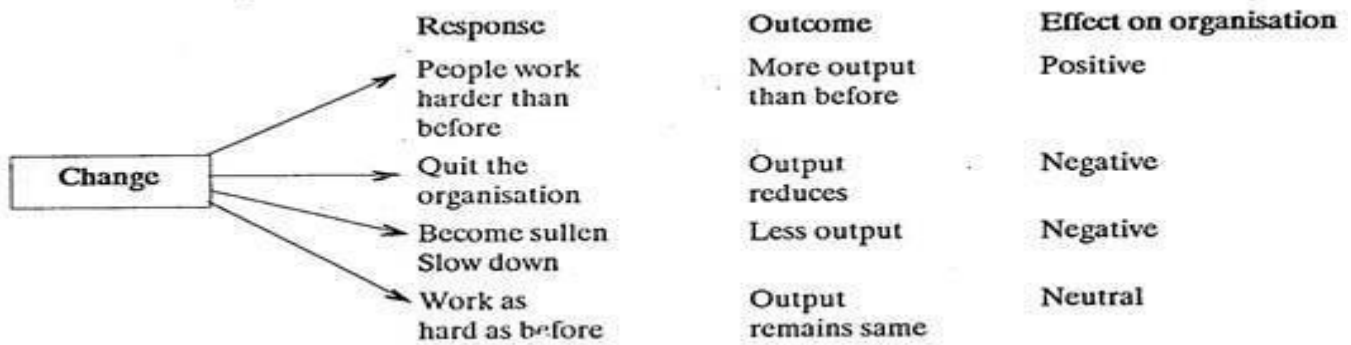
External Pressures:

1. **Change in Technology and Equipment**:Advancements in technology is the major cause (i.e., external pressure) of change. Each technological alternative results in new forms of organization to meet and match the needs.

2. **Market Situation**: Changes in market situation include rapidly changing goals, needs and desires of consumers, suppliers, unions etc. If an organization has to survive, it has to cope with changes in market situations.

3. **Social and Political Changes**: Organizational units literally have no control over social and political changes in the country. Relations between government and business or drive for social equality are some factors which may compel for organizational change.

Internal pressures (pressures for change from within the organisation):

1. **Changes in the Managerial Personnel:** One of the most frequent reasons for major changes in the organization is the change of executives at the top. No two managers have the same style, skills or managerial philosophies.

2. **Deficiencies in the Existing Organization:** Many deficiencies are noticed in the organizations with the passage of time. A change is necessary to remove such deficiencies as lack of uniformity in the policies, obstacles in communication, any ambiguity etc.

3. **Other Factors:** Certain other factors such as listed below also demand a change in the organization.

- Employee's desire to share in decision-making
- Employee's desire for higher wage rate
- Improvement in working conditions, etc.
- Response to Organizational Change:

Every change is responded by the people working in the organization. These responses may be positive or negative depending upon the fact as how they affect people.

	Response	Outcome	Effect on organisation
	People work harder than before	More output than before	Positive
Change	Quit the organisation	Output reduces	Negative
	Become sullen Slow down	Less output	Negative
	Work as hard as before	Output remains same	Neutral

Before introducing a change, the manager should study and understand employee's attitudes so as to create a positive response. Three sets of factors-psychological, personal and social- govern the attitude of people.

PROCESS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE:

Unless the behavioral patterns of the employees change, the change will have a little impact on the effectiveness of the organization.

A commonly accepted model for bringing change in people was suggested by Kurt Lewin in terms of three phase process:-

Change in organisation → Requires → Change in behaviour of people → Through → Unfreezing / Changing / Refreezing

(1) Unfreezing:

The essence of unfreezing phase is that the individual is made to realize that his beliefs, feelings and behaviour are no longer appropriate or relevant to the current situation in the organisation. Once convinced, people may change their behaviour. Reward for those willing to change and punishment for others may help in this matter.

(2) Changing:

Once convinced and ready to change, an individual, under this phase, learns to behave in new ways. He is first provided with the model in which he is to identify himself. Gradually he will accept that model and behave in the manner suggested by the model. In another process (known as internalisation), the individual is placed in a situation where new behaviour is demanded of him if he is to operate successfully.

(3) Refreezing:

During this phase, a person has to practice and experiment with the new method of behaviour and see that it effectively blends with his other behavioural attitudes. Reinforcement, for creating a permanent set in the individual, is provided through either continuous or intermittent schedules.

Resistance to organizational change:

Resistance to change is perhaps one of the baffling problems a manager encounters because it can take many shapes. People may resign, they may show tardiness, loss of motivation to work, increased absenteeism, request for transfer, wild-cat strikes, shoddy work, reduction in productivity etc.

Classification of resistance to change:

Individual Resistance:

Economic Reasons:

1. **Obsolescence of Skills:**

   When a person feels that with the introduction of newer processes, his skills will just become obsolete, he will resist the change. For example, a twenty years experienced accountant is quite likely to resist the introduction of a computer for preparing the wage bills because he feels that might affect his pay and position.

2. **Fear of Economic Loss:**

   People resist change if it opens the possibility of lowering their income directly or indirectly.

Personal Reasons:

1. **Ego Defensiveness:**

   A sales manager may turn down the suggestions of a salesman simply because the manager perceives that his ego may be deflated by accepting the suggestion.

2. **Status Quo:**

   Most of the people feel comfortable with status quo and strongly resist change as it may involve uncertainty and risk.

3. **Fear of Unknown:**

   Change presents unknown and unknown poses a constant threat and sores people. For fear of unknown, a manager may refuse promotion that requires his relocating in another state.**Social Reasons:**

Social Displacement:

Introduction of change (e.g., relocating) may result in breaking up of work groups and thus result in disturbance of the existing social relationships of people.

1. **Peer Pressure:**

   Whenever change is unwilling to the peers, they force the individual subordinate employees who are bent of accepting the change, to resist it.

2. **Organizational Resistance**:

   Resistance may also be present at organizational level. Some organizations are so designed that they resist innovations.

Some of the reasons of organizational resistance are:

1. **Threats to Power and Influence:**

   Some people (especially sitting at the top levels) resist change because they feel that a change might affect their position, power and influence in the organization.

2. **Organizational Structure:** Some organization structures (e.g., bureaucratic structure) have inbuilt mechanism for resistance to change.

3. **Resource Constraints:** Non-availability of financial, material and human resources may also act as a resistance to change.

4. **Sunk Cost:** In some companies, heavy capital is blocked in the fixed or permanent assets. If such an organization wishes to introduce change, then difficulty arises because of these sunk costs.

5. **Overcoming Resistance to Organizational Change**: Change creates tension and emotional turmoil in the minds of employees. Change thus results in resistance quite frequently, negative reactions doom the success of the change program especially when a manager is unable to handle it properly

TECHNIQUES TO HANDLE THE CHANGE PROPERLY AND TO DEAL WITH RESISTANCE TO CHANGE ARE:

1. **Education and Communication:** One of the easiest techniques to overcome resistance to change is to educate the people who resist it. In many cases, people do not properly understand the change and hence become afraid of its consequences and resist change.

2. **Participation and Involvement:** If subordinates are allowed to participate and involve themselves in the change process (decision-making regarding the implementation of the change), their misunderstandings about the consequences of change are cleared, they generally feel satisfied and do not oppose change.

3. **Support:** Support may be facilitative and emotional. Managers sometimes deal with potential resistance by being supportive. This includes listening, providing emotional support, providing training in new skills etc.

4. **Incentives:** Offering incentive is another fruitful way to overcome resistance to change.

5. **Manipulation:** Managers generally indulge in manipulation when all other tactics have failed to overcome resistance to change.

6. **Coercion:** At times, there is no way except to deal with resistance coercively. People are forced to accept change by threatening them with loss of their jobs, promotion possibilities and so forth.

POWER AND POITICS

POWER

Power is the ability to influence other people. It refers to the capacity to affect the behaviour of the subordinate with the control of resources. It is an exchange relationship that occurs in transactions between an agent and a target. The agent is the person who uses the power and target is the receipt of the attempt to use power

"Power refers to a capacity that A has to influence the behavior of B, so that B acts in accordance with A's wishes."

This definition implies a potential that need not be actualized to be effective and a dependency relationship. Power may exist but not be used. It is, therefore, a capacity or potential. One can have power but not impose it. Probably the most important aspect of power is that it is a function of dependency.

A capacity that **A** has to influence the behavior of **B**, so that **B** acts in accordance with **A**'s wishes.
The definition implies a potential that need not be actualized to be effective and
a dependency relationship. Power may exist but not be used. It is, therefore, a capacity or potential.

Contrasting Leadership and Power:

Essentially, leaders achieve goals, and power is a means of facilitating their achievement

- · Leadership involves the goals of the leaders and followers - Power does not
- · Leadership focuses on downward influence (leader - subordinate) - Power does not

Distinction between Power, Authority and Influence

Power is the ability to influence someone else. Influence is the process of affecting the thoughts, behaviour and feelings of another person. Authority is the right to influence another person. Authority is a legitimate right to influence others.

(1) Authority is right to influence others but power is ability to influence people.

(2) Authority is legitimate while power is not.

(3) Authority confers legitimacy to power but power itself need not be legitimate.

Bases of Power

Formal Power

1. **Coercive Power :** Coercive power is use of force to get an employee to follow an instruction or order, where power comes from one's ability to punish the employee for

noncompliance. This power is in use, for example, when an employee carries out an order under fear of losing their job or their annual bonus

1. **Reward Power :** Reward power is the power of a manager to give some type of reward to an employee as a means to influence the employee to act. Rewards can be tangible or intangible. Promotion, bonus, incentive , increment etc.,

2. **Legitimate Power** : Legitimate power is power you derive from your formal position or office held in the organization's hierarchy of authority. For example, the president of a corporation has certain powers because of the office he holds in the corporation.

3. **Information Power:** Informational Power is the power of having information that another does not have, or, the distribution of information as a means of effecting change. This could be positive or negative propaganda, knowledge of an opponents strategy, or detailed information that is used in decision support .

Personal Power

1. **Expert Power** : Influence based on special skills or knowledge. When an individual possesses in-depth information, knowledge, or expertise in the area that they are responsible for. This type of power is often the most effective type of power. Because the person has this high level of expertise, they can often persuade others do to things for them using trust and respect. This expertise and therefore this type of power are greatly valued in leadership roles.

2. Referent Power :Influence based on possession by an individual or desirable resources or personal traits. Referent Power is the "cult of personality". This is the power and ability for an individual to attract others and to build loyalty within them. Referent Power is also the power of respect. This can occur through time if a leader is successful and has a well known track-record of success. Referent Power is also created through the values of the individual. Some folks are born with "It". Others study leadership and develop themselves to be able to exercise this form of power effectively.

3. Charismatic Power: An extension of referent power stemming from an individual's personality and interpersonal style. A leader with charisma exercises something like divine powers over his or her followers. This is power based upon the ability to charm, to persuade, to hypnotise people solely with the power of personality. The charismatic leader may have no authority based upon anything except the ability to persuade and charm

Sources (Base) of Power

According to French and Raven, a manager drives power from five sources : Reward, Coercive, Legitimate, Referent and Expert power.

Reward Power

It is based on the agent's/manager's ability to control rewards the target/employee wants. The common, e.g., of it are managers control rewards of salary increases, bonuses and promotions. This power is based on old saying that 'wealth is power'.

Coercive Power

It is opposite of reward power. It is based on a manager's ability to cause an unpleasant experience for its people. In organizational situation, it may be in the form of action for or threat for dismissal, suspension, or demotion, for the people working in organization.

Legitimate Power

It is based on position and mutual agreement. Both the agent and target agree that the agent has the right to influence the employees. It is in the form of authority which is delegated to the positions of organizational members.

Referent Power

It is an elusive power that is based on interpersonal attraction. Charismatic individuals are often thought to have referent power. Here, people take somebody as ideal and behave accordingly upto a certain stage.

Expert Power

It exists when the agent has information or knowledge that the target needs. It is based on the proverb, "knowledge in power". Three conditions to be fulfilled are :

(1) The target must trust that the information given by the agent is accurate and correct.

(2) The information should be relevant and useful to the target.

(3) The target must consider the agent as an expert.

Acquisition of Power

Some people enjoy more power than others because :

1. **Extraordinary Works :** Doing things in a non-routine or extraordinary works contribute to power. For example, negotiating a new contract, developing a new product, or formulating a new programme.

2. Visible Activities : Even extraordinary activities not known to others do not generate much power. Therefore, activities need to be visible or known to others. Activities announced and appreciated by the people of higher echelons bring more power.

3. Cultivate Right People : Individuals can also increase their personal power by developing their interpersonal relationships with their superiors, subordinates and peers.

4. Coalitions : Coalescing is yet another way to earn power. The philosophy behind joining together is gaining increased capability to influence others.

5. Co-opt : Individuals can increase their personal power by co-opting people or groups. Co-opting, seeks to eliminate threats and opposition to an individual's base of power.

Personal and Position Power

Doing extraordinary things contribute much to personal power. It is possible for a person to affect the behaviour of others even when he does not have any formal authority. They do so because of superior qualities. The basis of such personal power lies in the competence, charisma and leader-like qualities of the person concerned.

Legitimate power is power that is based on position. Authority confers legitimacy to power. Authority is an institutionalised form of power vested in a position or office. Position power is an exercise of the authority delegated to a person.

Meaning of Organizational Politics

It means the use of power and influences in organizations. Actions not officially sanctioned or acceptable by an organization that are taken to influence others in order to meet personal goals refer to politics.

Reasons for Organizational Politics

There are many reasons that contribute to political behaviour in organizations. Some of them are :

1. Clear Goals : Organizations are human groups work for achieving certain goals. The more unclear and complex the goals are, the more politics will be.

2. Discretionary Authority : Organizations provide position with discretionary authority that is used based on individual judgement.

3. Autocratic Decisions : The leader dictates the decisions or orders and the subordinates have no right to disobey. This leads to low employee morale and doubts about what the manger-leader decides. Therefore, in order to safeguard their interests, workers involve in politics by forming coalitions and associations.

4. Power Politics : Power is also a limited in supply. Hence, there is a competition among mangers/executives to acquire more and more power. They try to acquire more power and resources than their competitors. Managers' such behaviour becomes quite dysfunctional.

5. Saturation in Promotion : Some people reach maximum level of promotion. They feel dissatisfaction and resort to the organizational politics. Some people may like work performance more than positional achievement and therefore, may not resort to politics.

6. Biased Performance Appraisal : When the job performance of a personnel cannot be measured quantitatively, performance appraisal is made on the basis of the judgement of the superior. As such the performance appraisal is likely to be subjective and biased. This may force the subordinates into dysfunctional political behaviour.

Characteristics (Symbols) of Power and Powerlessness (Negative aspects)

Kanter has identified several symbols of power or characteristics of powerful people in organization. These are :

1. Ability to intercede for someone in trouble : An individual who can pull someone of a jam has power.

2. Ability to get placement for favoured employees : Arranging and getting a key promotion for an employee is a sign of power.

3. Exceeding budget limits : A manager who can go beyond and above budget limits without being reprimanded has power.

4. Procuring above-average raises for employees : A manager who can pull incentives above average for his/her employee has power.

5. Getting items done on own terms at meetings.

6. Access to early information : Having access to information before anyone else is an indication of power.

7. Top managers seeking out opinion : Top managers may seek advice from their lower-level managers. These lower-level managers have power.

Unlike Katner, Michael Korda has identified three symbols of power.

(1) Office furnishing,

(2) Time power and

(3) Standing by.

Office Furnishing : Office furniture is a message about power one has. Size of the manager's table conveys the amount of power the manger has.

Time Power : The powerful executives value time much. A full calendar of the day is a proof of manager's power.

Standing by : People are obliged to stay close to their phones so that the executives can have access to them. The idea is that the more you can impose your schedule on your people, the more power you have.

Symbols of Powerlessness (Lack of Power)

The first-line supervisors often display three symptoms of powerlessness.

These are :

(i)   Overly close supervision

(ii)   inflexible adherence to rules;

(iii)   a tendency to do the jobs themselves rather than educating and training their subordinates to do these.

When staff professionals (accountants and lawyers) feel powerless, they resist change and try to protect their turf.

The key to overcome powerlessness is to share power, i.e., empowerment and delegate tasks to subordinates.

Empowerment is the sharing of power in such a way that individuals learn to believe in their ability to do the job. Empowerment has four dimensions:

1. Meaning: A fit between the work role and the employees values and beliefs.

2. Competence: A belief that one has the ability to do the job well.

3. Self-determination: Having control over the way one does one's work.

4. Impact: The belief that one's job makes a difference within the organization.

As a manager, you can use these guidelines for empowering your employees. Express confidence in employees, set high performance expectations, create opportunities for participative decision making, remove constraints that slow autonomy and set inspirational and meaningful goals.

EFFECTIVE USAGE OF POWER

- Use power in ethical ways.

- Understand and use all the various types of power and influence.

- Seek out jobs in the organization that allow you to develop your power skills.

- Use power tempered by self-restraint and maturity.

- Accept that influencing people is an important part of a manager's job.

French and Raven's Five phases of Power

Social psychologists French and Raven, in a now-classic study (1959), developed a schema of sources of power by which to analyse how power plays work (or fail to work) in a specific relationship.

Power is the ability to influence someone According to French and Raven, power must be distinguished from influence in the following way: power is that state of affairs which holds in a given relationship, A-B, such that a given influence attempt by A over B makes A's desired change in B more likely. Conceived this way, power is fundamentally relative - it depends on the specific understandings A and B each apply to their relationship and, interestingly, requires B's recognition of a quality in A which would motivate B to change in the way A intends. A must draw on the 'base' or combination of bases of power appropriate to the relationship, to effect the desired outcome. Drawing on the wrong power base can have unintended effects, including a reduction in A's own power.

French and Raven argue that there are five significant categories of such qualities, while not excluding other minor categories. Further bases have since been adduced - in particular by Morgan (1986: Ch. 6), who identifies 14, while others have suggested a simpler model for practical purposes -for example, Handy (1976), who recommends three.

In a notable study of power conducted by social psychologists John French and Bertam Raven in 1959 power is divided into five separate and distinct forms. As we know leadership and power are closely linked. This idea shows how the different forms of power affect one's leadership and success. This idea is used often in organizational communication and throughout the workforce. "The French-Raven power forms are introduced with consideration of the level of observability and the extent to which power is dependent or independent of structural conditions. Dependency refers to the degree of internalization that occurs among person's subject to social control. Using these considerations it is possible to link personal

processes to structural conditions". (Donald Warren 1968) (Lazarfeld and Menzel 1961) French & Raven introduce five bases of power Coercive, Reward, Legitimate, Referent and Expert.