MANONMANIAM SUNDARANAR UNIVERSITY

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TamilNadu

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

M.COM

MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS
AND
ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

M.Com - I YEAR

MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS
AND
ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

OBJECTIVES

1. To enable the students to learn the basic concepts of Management

2. To make the student acquaint on the theories of Motivation

3. To teach Group Dynamics

4. To know the Organisational factors in power distribution

5. To enable the students to know about organisational culture

COURSE CONTENT

Unit I

Management meaning -functions of management-principles- Concept and nature of organizational behaviour-OB and experiments-Human behaviour approach- OB models-Personality: Concept-personality theories-determinants of personality-personality and behaviour-organizational applications of personality-perception: concept-perceptual process -perceptual selectivity - interpersonal perception-managerial applications of Perception.

Unit II

Learning: concept-nature-components of learning process -factors affecting learning reinforcement-concept -nature- Maslows need Hierarchy theory-Herzbergergs motivation Theory McGregor's theory X and Y -incentives - important elements of a sound motivational system Attitude: concept of attitude-attitudes and behaviour-factors in attitude formation.

Unit III

Stress: concept -features causes of stress effects of stress .Interpersonal behaviour - nature- levels of self-awareness -Group dynamics definition -concept of group-type of group - formal group-committee-reasons for use of committees - measures for making committee effective - informal group -causes- working problems-group behaviour-group norms-group decision making process-brainstorming.

Unit IV

Power -concept-importance -types-power distribution -Organisational factors in power distribution-concentration of power -tactics to gain power -authority :concept -authority Vs power-major qualities essential for leadership styles.

Unit V

Organisational Change and development – Organisationl Culture – International Organisational Behaviour – Conflict – Positive and Negative Aspects of Conflict – Workers' Participation in Management – Advantages and Demerits.

LEARNING OUTCOMES:

After the completion of the course, the students must be able to:

1. Gain knowledge about the concepts of Management

2. Get an understanding about the behavioural change based on Motivation

3. Gain knowledge of the Group Dynamics and conflict management

4. Learn about tactics to gain power

5. Gain an understanding of Organisational change and development

TEXT BOOK:

1. Organisational Behaviour - L.M.PRASAD, Sultan Chand and Sons

REFERENCE BOOKS:

1. Organisational Behaviour by Dr S.S.Khanka

2. Organisational Behaviour by Fred Luthans

3. Organizational Behaviour by Stephen P. Robbins, Timothy A. Judge, Neharika Vohra. Pearson publishers

4. Organisational Behaviour: Text, Cases & Games by K. Aswathappa, Himalaya Publishing House

UNIT-I

COURSE CONTENT

Management meaning -functions of management-principles- Concept and nature of organizational behaviour-OB and experiments-Human behaviour approach- OB models-Personality: Concept-personality theories-determinants of personality-personality and behaviour-organizational applications of personality-perception: concept-perceptual process -perceptual selectivity-interpersonal perception-managerial applications of Perception.

UNIT-I

MANAGEMENT MEANING:

Management is the process of planning and organising the resources and activities of a business to achieve specific goals in the most effective and efficient manner possible. Efficiency in management refers to the completion of tasks correctly and at minimal costs. Effectiveness in management relates to the completion of tasks within specific timelines to yield tangible results.

Many years ago, Mary Parker Follett defined management as "the art of getting things done through people."

A manager coordinates and oversees the work of others to accomplish ends he could not attain alone. Today this definition has been broadened. Management is generally defined as the process of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling the activities of employees in combination with other resources to accomplish organizational objectives. In a broad sense, then, the task of management is to facilitate the organization's effectiveness and long-term goal attainment by coordinating and efficiently utilizing available resources. Management is effectively managing individuals, groups, or organizational systems to accomplish organizational objectives.

Management exists in virtually all goal-seeking organizations, whether they are public or private, large or small, profit-making or not-for-profit, socialist or capitalist. The mark of an excellent company or organization is the quality of its managers. Management includes the activities of setting the strategy of an organization and coordinating the efforts of its employees (or of volunteers) to accomplish its objectives through the application of available resources, such as financial, natural, technological, and human resources. Management is the process of planning and organising the resources and activities of a business to achieve specific goals in the most effective and efficient manner possible. Efficiency in management refers to the completion of tasks correctly and at minimal costs. Effectiveness in management relates to the completion of tasks within specific timelines to yield tangible results.

Management has been described as a social process involving responsibility for economical and effective planning & regulation of operation of an enterprise in the fulfilment of given purposes. It is a dynamic process consisting of various elements and activities. These

activities are different from operative functions like marketing, finance, purchase etc. Rather these activities are common to each and every manger irrespective of his level or status.

CHARACTERISTICS OF MANAGEMENT

Some of the fundamental characteristics of management are as follows:

1. Multi-dimensional

    Most management oversees and supervises a company or organisation's service or production cycle. Managers work closely with and provide guidance to the members of their team. A manager considers a staff member both as an individual with diverse needs and as a component of the larger group. To be effective, managers influence their team members to apply their unique strengths toward achieving the organisation's goals.

2. Dynamic

    Management is a dynamic function and evolves and adapts to changes in its environment, whether they are economic, socio-political or technological. For instance, a paper company could see a decline in sales because of the rapid adoption of screens and digital devices. Whether the company can still survive depends on how effectively its management can adapt to new market requirements.

3. Intangible

    Management is not a tangible product, but its presence can change the way an organisation functions. Management consists of ideologies, policies and human interaction. Good management helps improve a company's target achievement ratios, employee gratification levels and overall ease in the company's operation.

IMPORTANCE OF MANAGEMENT

Here are some reasons management is important:

1. Helps in achieving group goals: Effective management gives a common direction to individual efforts and guides them towards achieving the overall goals of an organisation.

2. Increases efficiency: Efficiency reduces costs and increases productivity in all spheres of an organisation's work.

3. Creates a dynamic organisation: Management helps its personnel in adapting to change so that the organisation continues to maintain its competitive edge. How well an

organisation can respond and adapt to change can mean the difference between its success and failure.

4. Helps in achieving personal objectives: Effective management fosters team spirit, cooperation and commitment to achieve the organisational goals as a group, which helps each term member achieve their personal objectives.

LEVELS OF MANAGEMENT

Management roles come in three levels:

1. Top management

Typically, the senior-most executives in a company are the chairman, chief executive officer, chief operating officer, president and vice-president. Their role lies in integrating diverse components of the company and coordinating activities of different departments. They also analyse the business environment and its implications to formulate goals in order to ensure the survival of the company and the welfare of its stakeholders.

2. Middle management

Mostly composed of division heads, the middle management links the operational management to the top management. Division/department heads receive guidance from top managers and are leaders to operational managers. Their job is to understand the policies framed by the top management and relay them to their respective divisions/departments to ensure that they follow through with company policies and decisions.

3. Operational management

Supervisors, section leads or forepersons directly oversee the efforts of the workforce. They are responsible for quality control and ensure that the work meets deadlines. The top management draws out the plans that define the authority and responsibility of supervisors.

FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT

Different experts have classified functions of management. According to George & Jerry, "There are four fundamental functions of management i.e. planning, organizing, actuating and controlling".

According to Henry Fayol, Management is "To manage is to forecast and plan, to organize, to command, & to control".

Whereas Luther Gullick has given a keyword 'POSDCORB' for the functions of Management where P stands for Planning, O for Organizing, S for Staffing, D for Directing, Co for Co-ordination, R for reporting & B for Budgeting.

But the most widely accepted functions of management was given by KOONTZ and O'DONNEL i.e. Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing and Controlling.

For theoretical purposes, it may be convenient to separate the function of management but practically these functions are overlapping in nature i.e. they are highly inseparable. Each function blends into the other & each affects the performance of others.

FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT

PLANNING

It is the basic function of management. It deals with chalking out a future course of action & deciding in advance the most appropriate course of actions for achievement of pre-determined goals.

According to KOONTZ, "Planning is deciding in advance - what to do, when to do & how to do. It bridges the gap from where we are & where we want to be". A plan is a future course of actions. It is an exercise of problem solving & decision making.

Planning is determination of courses of action to achieve the desired goals. Thus, planning is a systematic thinking about ways & means for accomplishment of pre-determined goals.

Planning is necessary to ensure proper utilization of human & non-human resources. It is all pervasive, it is an intellectual activity and it also helps in avoiding confusion, uncertainties, risks, wastages etc.

ORGANIZING

It is the process of bringing together physical, financial and human resources and developing productive relationship amongst them for achievement of organizational goals.

According to Henry Fayol, "To organize a business is to provide it with everything useful or its functioning i.e. raw material, tools, capital and personnel's". To organize a business involves determining & providing human and non-human resources to the organizational structure.

Organizing as a process involves:

- Identification of activities.

- Classification of grouping of activities.

- Assignment of duties.

- Delegation of authority and creation of responsibility.

- Coordinating authority and responsibility relationships.

STAFFING

It is the function of manning the organization structure and keeping it manned. Staffing has assumed greater importance in the recent years due to advancement of technology, increase in size of business, complexity of human behaviour etc.

The main purpose of staffing is to put right man on right job i.e. square pegs in square holes and round pegs in round holes.

According to Kootz & O'Donell, "Managerial function of staffing involves manning the organization structure through proper and effective selection, appraisal and development of personnel to fill the roles designed in the structure".

Staffing involves:

- Manpower Planning (estimating man power in terms of searching, choose the person and giving the right place).

- Recruitment, Selection & Placement.

- Training & Development.

- Remuneration.

- Performance Appraisal.

- Promotions & Transfer.

DIRECTING

It is that part of managerial function which actuates the organizational methods to work efficiently for achievement of organizational purposes. It is considered life-spark of the enterprise which sets it in motion the action of people because planning, organizing and staffing are the mere preparations for doing the work.

Direction is that inert-personnel aspect of management which deals directly with

influencing, guiding, supervising, motivating sub-ordinate for the achievement of organizational goals.

Direction has following elements:

- Supervision
- Motivation
- Leadership
- Communication

Supervision- implies overseeing the work of subordinates by their superiors. It is the act of watching & directing the work & the workers.

Motivation- means inspiring, stimulating or encouraging the sub-ordinates with zeal to work. Positive, negative, monetary, non-monetary incentives may be used for this purpose.

Leadership- may be defined as a process by which manager guides and influences the work of subordinates in desired direction.

Communications- is the process of passing information, experience, opinion etc from one person to another. It is a bridge of understanding.

CONTROLLING

It implies measurement of accomplishment against the standards and correction of deviation if any to ensure achievement of organizational goals. The purpose of controlling is to ensure that everything occurs in conformities with the standards. An efficient system of control helps to predict deviations before they actually occur.

According to Theo Haimann, "Controlling is the process of checking whether or not proper progress is being made towards the objectives and goals and acting if necessary, to correct any deviation".

According to Koontz & O'Donell "Controlling is the measurement & correction of performance activities of subordinates in order to make sure that the enterprise objectives and plans desired to obtain them as being accomplished"

Therefore controlling has following steps:

- Establishment of standard performance.
- Measurement of actual performance.

- Comparison of actual performance with the standards and finding out deviation if any.
- Corrective action.

PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

Henry Fayol, also known as the 'father of modern management theory' gave a new perception of the concept of management. He introduced a general theory that can be applied to all levels of management and every department.

Fayol theory is practised by the managers to organize and regulate the internal activities of an organization. He concentrated on accomplishing managerial efficiency.

The fourteen principles of management created by Henri Fayol are explained below.

1. Division of Work-

Henri believed that segregating work in the workforce amongst the worker will enhance the quality of the product. Similarly, he also concluded that the division of work improves the productivity, efficiency, accuracy and speed of the workers. This principle is appropriate for both the managerial as well as a technical work level.

2. Authority and Responsibility-

These are the two key aspects of management. Authority facilitates the management to work efficiently, and responsibility makes them responsible for the work done under their guidance or leadership.

3. Discipline-

Without discipline, nothing can be accomplished. It is the core value for any project or any management. Good performance and sensible interrelation make the management job easy and comprehensive. Employees' good behaviour also helps them smoothly build and progress in their professional careers.

4. Unity of Command-

This means an employee should have only one boss and follow his command. If an employee has to follow more than one boss, there begins a conflict of interest and can create confusion.

5. Unity of Direction-

Whoever is engaged in the same activity should have a unified goal. This means all the persons working in a company should have one goal and motive which will make the work easier

and achieve the set goal easily.

6. Subordination of Individual Interest-

This indicates a company should work united towards the interest of a company rather than personal interest. Be subordinate to the purposes of an organization. This refers to the whole chain of command in a company.

7. Remuneration-

This plays an important role in motivating the workers of a company. Remuneration can be monetary or non-monetary. However, it should be according to an individual's efforts they have made.

8. Centralization-

In any company, the management or any authority responsible for the decision-making process should be neutral. However, this depends on the size of an organization. Henri Fayol stressed on the point that there should be a balance between the hierarchy and division of power.

9. Scalar Chain-

Fayol on this principle highlights that the hierarchy steps should be from the top to the lowest. This is necessary so that every employee knows their immediate senior also they should be able to contact any, if needed.

10. Order-

A company should maintain a well-defined work order to have a favourable work culture. The positive atmosphere in the workplace will boost more positive productivity.

11. Equity-

All employees should be treated equally and respectfully. It's the responsibility of a manager that no employee faces discrimination.

12. Stability-

An employee delivers the best if they feel secure in their job. It is the duty of the management to offer job security to their employees.

13. Initiative-

The management should support and encourage the employees to take initiatives in an organization. It will help them to increase their interest and make then worth.

14. Esprit de Corps-

It is the responsibility of the management to motivate their employees and be supportive

of each other regularly. Developing trust and mutual understanding will lead to a positive outcome and work environment.

These 14 principles of management are used to manage an organization and are beneficial for prediction, planning, decision-making, organization and process management, control and coordination.

CONCEPT AND NATURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR:

Organizations are termed social systems because it consists of several inter-connected sub-systems. If a person wants to be a part of the organization or control the mechanism of an organization, he needs to understand the working of an organisation. The organization combines both people and science together i.e., it links technology with humanity. This is because technology cannot create likely results in the absence of capable employees. The behaviour of employees in organizations is quite unexpected because it results from their inherent desires and principles. But to some extent, it can be understood in the context of management, behavioural science, and other disciplines.

Organizational Behaviour (OB) is the study of human behaviour in organizational settings, the interface between human behaviour and the organization, and the organization itself. It is the field of study dedicated to understanding and utilization of information about the behaviour of people and groups in an organisation.

Organizational Behaviour researchers study the behaviour of individuals primarily in their organizational roles.

One of the main goals of organizational behaviour is to revitalize organizational theory and develop a better conceptualization of organizational life.

"Organizational behaviour is directly concerned with the understanding, prediction, and control of human behaviour in organizations." — Fred Luthans.

Organizational behaviour is the study of both group and individual performance and activity within an organization.

This area of study examines human behaviour in a work environment and determines its impact on job structure, performance, communication, motivation, leadership, etc.

It is the systematic study and application of knowledge about how individuals and groups act within the organizations where they work. OB draws from other disciplines to create a unique

field.

For example, when we review topics such as personality and motivation, we will again review studies from the field of psychology. The topic of team processes relies heavily on the field of sociology.

When we study power and influence in organizations, we borrow heavily from political sciences.

Even medical science contributes to the field of Organizational Behaviour, particularly in the study of stress and its effects on individuals. There is increasing agreement as to the components or topics that constitute the subject area of OB.

Although there is still considerable debate as to the relative importance of change, there appears to be general agreement that OB includes the core topics of motivation, leader behaviour, and power, interpersonal communication, group structure and processes, learning, attitude development and perception, change processes, conflict, work design, and work stress.

Organisational behaviour also helps in explaining the relationship between employees and organisations in terms of the group, people, organisation, and the entire system. The goal is to accomplish organisational, human, and social objectives by building better relationships inside the organisation.

NATURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organisational behaviour can be defined as the arrangement, working, and performance of organisations, and the conduct of individuals and groups in the organisation. In short, the assessment of people within an organisational setup is termed organisational behaviour. It includes examination, motivation, attitude, forecasting, and management of human behaviour.

Organizational behaviour thus has emerged as a separate field of study. The nature of organisational behaviour is as follows :

A Separate Field of Study and not a Discipline Only

By definition, a discipline is an accepted science that is based on a theoretical foundation.

But, O.B. has a multi-interdisciplinary orientation and is, thus, not based on a specific theoretical background. Therefore, it is better reasonable to call O.B. a separate field of study rather than a discipline only.

An Interdisciplinary Approach

Organizational behaviour is essentially an interdisciplinary approach to study human behaviour at work. It tries to integrate the relevant knowledge drawn from related disciplines like psychology, sociology and anthropology to make them applicable for studying and analysing organizational behaviour.

An Applied Science

The very nature of O.B. is applied. What O.B. basically does is the application of various researches to solve the organizational problems related to human behaviour. The basic line of difference between pure science and O.B. is that while the former concentrates of fundamental researches, the latter concentrates on applied researches. O.B. involves both applied research and its application in organizational analysis. Hence, O.B. can be called both science as well as art.

A Normative Science

Organizational Behaviour is a normative science also. While the positive science discusses only cause effect relationship, O.B. prescribes how the findings of applied researches can be applied to socially accepted organizational goals. Thus, O.B. deals with what is accepted by individuals and society engaged in an organization. Yes, it is not that O.B. is not normative at all. In fact, O.B. is normative as well that is well underscored by the proliferation of management theories.

A Humanistic and Optimistic Approach

Organizational Behaviour applies humanistic approach towards people working in the organization. It, deals with the thinking and feeling of human beings. O.B. is based on the belief that people have an innate desire to be independent, creative and productive. It also realizes that people working in the organization can and will actualize these potentials if they are given proper conditions and environment. Environment affects performance or workers working in an organization.

A Total System Approach

The system approach is one that integrates all the variables, affecting organizational functioning. The systems approach has been developed by the behavioural scientists to analyse human behaviour in view of his/her socio-psychological framework. Man's socio-psychological framework makes man a complex one and the systems approach tries to study his/her complexity and find solution to it.

O.B. AND EXPERIMENTS

What Is the Hawthorne Effect?

The Hawthorne Effect is the inclination of people who are the subjects of an experimental study to change or improve the behaviour being evaluated only because it is being studied and not because of changes in the experiment parameters or stimulus.

How the Hawthorne Effect Works

The Hawthorne Effect refers to the fact that people will modify their behaviour simply because they are being observed. The effect gets its name from one of the most famous industrial history experiments that took place at Western Electric's factory in the Hawthorne sburb of Chicago in the late 1920s and early 1930s.

However, subsequent analysis of the effect by the University of Chicago economists in 2009 revealed that the original results were likely overstated.

The Hawthorne experiments were originally designed by the National Research Council to study the effect of shop-floor lighting on worker productivity at a telephone parts factory in Hawthorne. However, the researchers were perplexed to find that productivity improved, not just when the lighting was improved, but also when the lighting was diminished. Productivity improved whenever changes were made in other variables such as working hours and rest breaks.

The researchers concluded that the workers' productivity was not being affected by the changes in working conditions, but rather by the fact that someone was concerned enough about their working conditions to conduct an experiment on it.

The Hawthorne Effect and Modern Research

Research often relies on human subjects. In these cases, the Hawthorne Effect is the intrinsic bias that researchers must take into consideration when studying their findings. Although it can be challenging to determine how a subject's awareness of a study might modify their behaviour, researchers should nevertheless strive to be mindful of this phenomenon and adapt accordingly.

While there is no universally agreed-upon methodology for achieving this, experience and keen attention to the situation can help researchers prevent this effect from tarnishing their results.

The Hawthorne Effect in Practice

As an example of the Hawthorne Effect, consider a 1978 study conducted to determine if cerebellar neurostimulators could reduce the motor dysfunction of young cerebral palsy sufferers. The objective testing revealed that the patients in the study claimed that their motor dysfunctions decreased and that they embraced the treatment. But this patient feedback countered the quantitative analysis, which demonstrated that there was scant increased motor function.

Indeed, the increased human interaction with doctors, nurses, therapists, and other medical personnel during these trials had a positive psychological impact on patients, which consequently fostered their illusion of physical improvements to their conditions. When analyzing the results, researchers concluded that the Hawthorne Effect negatively impacted the data, as there was no evidence that the cerebellar neuro stimulators were measurably effective.

HUMAN BEHAVIOR APPROACH :

Human behaviour approach is the outcome of the thoughts developed by behavioural scientists who look at organization as a collection of people for certain specified objectives.

Since management involves getting things done by people, the study of management must revolve around human behaviour. The approach, also known as "leadership", "behavioural science" or "human resource" approach brings to bear the existing and newly-developed theories and methods of the relevant behavioural sciences upon the study of human behaviour. In contrast to human relations approach which assumes that happy workers are the productive workers, human behaviour approach has been goal and efficiency-oriented and considers the understanding of human behaviour to be the major means to the end. The human behaviour approach emphasises human resources in an organization more as compared to physical and financial resources. Since this approach studies human behaviour ranging from personality dynamics of individuals at one extreme to the relations of culture at the other, this can be divided into two groups: interpersonal behaviour approach, which is heavily oriented towards individual psychology and group behaviour approach which rely on social psychology and emphasize organizational behaviour.

Among the many individual and social psychologists who have contributed to management are Maslow (Need Hierarchy), Herzberg (Motivational-hygiene Theory and Job

Enrichment), McGregor (Theory X and Theory Y), Likert (Management systems and Linking Pin Model), Argyris (Immaturity-Maturity Theory, Integration of Individual and Organizational goals and Pattern of A B Analysis), Blake and Mouton (Managerial Grid), Sayles (Interpersonal Behaviour), Bennis (Organizational Development), Fielder (Contingency Model of Leadership Style) and Tannenbaum & others (Continuum Approach of Leadership). Besides, notable contributions have come from those who have expanded a particular concept formulated earlier to make it more practicable. They include Leavitt, Stogdill, Vroom, Reddin etc. Thus, we can say that the concept of human behaviour approach is a very vital concept in the field of management and has an universal appeal.

MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR - OB

OB Models: Organisational behaviour and models of organisation behaviour guide and direct the management about how to achieve the organisational goals effectively by giving importance to human factors.

There are four models of organisational behaviour which are described as follows:

1. Autocratic Model
2. Custodial Model
3. Supportive Model
4. Collegial Model

Models of organisational behaviour with examples are described as follows:

1.Autocratic Model

Autocratic model of OB: The autocratic model of organisational behaviour is a model in which power, formal authority, and strength are located at the top. Decision-making power in the model lies with top authorities and managers. Low-level employees do not have any power to participate in decision-making. Employees work for their employers, and they follow their directions. Their ideas are not taken into consideration by authorities under the model. In the organization following the autocratic model, the manager has the authority to order the employees to perform a specific task. Management considers itself as the supreme authority to tell what is to be done and what is right or wrong for the organization and thus employees must obey their orders and commands. This model results in over-dependence of employees on their bosses and management every time they are forced to go to their boss if they need any advice on

what to do instead of making a decision of their own, it results in reduced employee morale, poor decision-making ability, and high turnover. Employees start expressing their hatred towards the company at home and in society but not on the premises. Another drawback of this model is its lack of trust towards its leaders.

Autocratic model of organizational behaviour example is Defence team, because here officer holds authority and power to obey them and thus soldiers are obedient to execute officer's orders.

Five major features of the autocratic model of organizational behaviour are as follows:

i) Management itself decides Right or Wrong:

The power of decision-making lies only with the top management and if the employees don't follow their orders they may get punished for this. The autocratic model theory believes that only management has the power to decide what is right or wrong. Employees are assumed to be obedient and resistant to the requirements and needs of the organization. This model is similar to McGregor's Theory X and Y in nature.

ii) Power Based:

As per the autocratic model the power lies only with the management. The person who is in command has the right to issue orders and all the employees have to obey the command or else they will have to face the consequences.

iii) Formal by Nature:

Organisations that follow the autocratic model have a formal managerial attitude and have official authority. People are forced to follow all the instructions.

iv) Obedient Orientation of Employees:

Under this model, the employee does not respect their manager, but they are dutiful towards their boss.

v) Employees are Dependent on Boss:

The boss has complete power over their employees in such organizations. Thus, employees do not feel valued and part of the overall team. This results in a low level of work performance.

2.Custodial Model

The custodial model of organisational behaviour focuses on providing security to

employees. Once that's in place, employees are relieved of the indecision or chaos of the autocratic model. The focus of this model is on the satisfaction, security, and welfare needs of the employees, thus leading the employee to depend on the organization rather than the boss.

This model creates employee loyalty and motivation to employees. The employees get frequent economic rewards and recognitions which make them happy but it does not lead to high motivation. Employees are happy and satisfied under this model, as it provides economic benefits by way of wages and several other programs from the company.

Example of custodial model: Garments factory, because it is based on the economical resource. Here labourers perform their job for money, security and benefits; if an organization does well then employees get better benefits

The salient features of custodial models of organizational behaviour are:

i) Resource Based:

For a successful custodial approach, the presence of economic resources is essential.

ii) Monetary Affiliations:

The major focus of the management is to provide economic security to employees through payment of salary, wages, and financial benefits to the employees.

iii) Focuses on Employee Security:

Employees' security needs are given much importance to motivate them for better results and performance. An organization can follow the custodial model only when it is in a good financial condition to provide timely payment of salaries, pensions, wages, and other benefits to the employees.

iv) Employee Dependence on the Organisation:

The monitory benefits that the employees gain from this model make them dependent on the organization rather than on the employer.

v) Employee Focuses only on monetary benefits:

In a custodial environment, the employees focus only on the financial benefits that are provided by the organization and their performance becomes dependent on the rewards and remunerations that they receive. The employees feel well maintained and contented but not essentially motivated as they sometimes feel trapped because the benefits are too good to leave. As a result, some employees do not perform well and retain low performance as they would

perform under an autocratic approach.

3.Supportive Model

This supportive model of organisational behaviour focuses on getting work done through proficient leadership than power, control, authority, and money. It believes in forming an environment that helps both the employees and the organization to develop mutually. It provides the employees with a chance to take responsibility and contribute towards the goals of the organization and develop themselves. The supportive model of organizational behavior is different from the custodial approach as it focuses on employees' growth and performance rather than on the financial benefits of employees. The psychological result is that the employee develops a sense of belongingness towards the organization as he participates in its growth and development.

Example of supportive model: A software company, because here leaders support their employees to fulfil their project or their tasks.

Three major features of supportive models of organisational behaviour are as follows:

i) Based on Leadership:

This model believes in good leadership instead of emphasizing power and money to achieve results. The organization allows the employees to develop and give their best and contribute to the growth of the organization using effective leadership.

ii) Leader Supports Employees:

Leaders have the essence of bringing out the best in their associates. They understand that employees are not lazy or resistant towards their work but improper working conditions make them so. If an opportunity is given to them, then they can take responsibility for that work, but efforts to contribute and improve their performance. The management's focus in this model is to improve the performance of employees by providing them opportunities rather than offering benefits as done in the custodial model.

iii) Increases Participation:

A sense of belongingness towards the organization develops in the employee because an opportunity to participate is provided to employees by management.

iv) Strongly Motivated Employees:

Employees in the organization with the supportive model are more directed towards work

because their need for money, status, and recognition is completely fulfilled. Thus, employees work with strength and passion.

4. Collegial Model

The collegial model refers to a group of people sharing a common goal. This model is related to teamwork. According to this model, the management works to develop a better team and acts as a mutual contributor and not as a boss. A manager is a 'coach' who guides and directs his team members to perform well rather than focusing on his own performance. The psychological result of this approach is that the employees feel a sense of self-discipline as they own the responsibility of the work. This condition makes the employees feel that they are important and hold a place in the organization. Therefore they are inspired towards performing better in their workplace.

This can be understood better with a collegial model example.

Example of collegial model: Social organization such as willingly blood donation organization. Here every employee work as a team and each member takes responsibility for accomplishing the organizational goal.

Features of the collegial model are as follows:

i) Based on Employee Cooperation:

In the collegial model, the management builds a sense of partnership with the employee and the employee feels his value and importance in the organization. Since the manager is also contributing towards the task, the employees begin to respect their job as well. The manager acts as an active participant rather than an authority.

ii) Focuses on Teamwork:

The management acts as a trainer and emphasizes teamwork. Management trains and tries to create a team spirit among the employees.

iii) Employees Feel Responsible:

Employees when provided with trust and dignity, react in a very responsible manner. For example, employees produce good quality products not because they are afraid of management, termination, or the quality inspector but because they feel responsible for the organization. They feel responsible towards the quality standard of their product and services which in turn will be beneficial to both the employees and organization. This self-discipline that the collegial model

inculcates in the employee's behaviour results in a better quality of work.

iv) Employees Feel Satisfied:

This type of approach acts as a motivation for the employee's self-esteem. They feel a sense of importance and self-awareness by contributing to the success of the organization. This leads to appropriate improvement in employee performance.

PERSONALITY

MEANING

The word personality is derived from a Greek word "persona" which means "to speak through". Personality is the combination of characteristics or qualities that forms a person's unique identity. It signifies the role which a person plays in public. Every individual has a unique, personal and major determinant of his behaviour that defines his/her personality.

PERSONALITY DEFINITION

Personality Definition by Authors: No common definition of personality has so far been arrived at. Every individual defines personality in a different way which includes trait factors and physical appearance.

Gordon Allport has defined personality as "The dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment".

"Personality is how people affect others and how they understand and view themselves, as well as their pattern of inner and outer measurable traits and the person situation interaction" Fred Luthans

Personality was defined "as the most adequate conceptualisation of an individual's behaviour in all its details which the scientist can provide at a moment of time" by McClelland

Personality is a broad, amorphous designation relating to fundamental approaches of persons to others and themselves. To most psychologists and students of behaviour, this term refers to the study of the characteristic traits of an individual, relationships between these traits and the way in which a person adjusts to other people and situations.

Personality is a very diverse and complex psychological concept. The word 'personality' may mean something like outgoing, invigorating interpersonal abilities, but we must also

recognize and explain the fact that development results in man acquiring a distinctiveness or uniqueness which gives him identity which enables him and us to recognize him as apart from others. These distinguishing characteristics are summarized by the term 'personality'.

Personality is how people affect others and how they understand and view themselves, as well as their pattern of inner and outer measurable traits and the person situation interaction as the most adequate conceptualisation of an individual's behaviour in all its details which the scientist can provide at a moment of time.

PERSONALITY IN ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR (OB)

Personality in Organisational Behaviour of an individual plays an extremely important role in assessing the behaviour of a person at an organization. In case an individual who is holding a senior position in an organization has a wrong type of personality, it may lead to a very bad impact on the relationship and ultimately it may lead to protests and unrest at the workplace.

Sometimes the personality difficulties are the root cause of labour strikes. No matter how good the superior is in technical knowledge or other behavioural characteristics, it is the 'temperament' of the superior that is crucial in ensuring a cordial interaction with subordinates. Many businesses have realized the importance of leadership in an organization in shaping the personality of employees.

THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Over time, researchers have developed a number of personality theories and no theory is complete in itself.

The theories of personality can be conveniently grouped under four types:

1. Psychoanalytic Theory

2. Type Theories

3. Trait Theories

4. Self-theory

Psychoanalytic Theory

Psychoanalytic theory emphasizes that the human organism is constantly, though slowly, changing through perpetual interactions, and that, therefore, the human personality can be conceived of as a locus of change with fragile and indefinite boundaries.

It attends to emphasizes three main issues i.e. the id, the ego and the superego. Psychoanalysts say that all human personality is comprised of these closely integrated functions.

Freud believed than an individual's personality has three parts and thus is often called as tripartite personality.

Id

Ego

Superego

Id - refers to irrational needs and demands, something which has nothing to do with the reality of the situation. Freud believed that Individuals seek immediate pleasure in order to satisfy their biological and physiological needs without taking into consideration the reality.Id gives immediate pleasure to individuals and is often irrational.

Ego - Ego develops when individuals start interacting with people around. Ego helps in the fulfilment of id, taking into consideration the reality of the situation.

Super Ego - Super ego is often the third stage which includes the moral constraints imposed on an individual by his parents or family.

Type Theories

The type theories represent an attempt to put some degree of order into the chaos of personality theory. The type theory represents an attempt to scientifically describe personality by classifying individuals into convenient categories.

Two categories of type theories are explained below:

Sheldon's Physiognomy Theory: William Sheldon has presented a unique body-type temperamental model that represents a link between certain anatomical features and psychological traits with distinguishing characteristics of an individual and his behaviour.

Carl Jung's Extrovert-introvert Theory: In Psychological Types, Jung described how extraverts engage with external stimuli (Jung, 1921). He believed that extraverts direct their energy outwards - towards other people - and gain energy from such encounters. Introverts, meanwhile, focus their energy inwards, towards more solitary, thoughtful activities.

Trait Theories

Trait theory (also called dispositional theory) is an approach to the study of human personality. Trait theorists are primarily interested in the measurement of traits, which can be defined as habitual patterns of behaviour, thought, and emotion. According to this perspective, traits are aspects of personality that are relatively stable over time, differ across individuals (e.g. some people are outgoing whereas others are not), are relatively consistent over situations, and influence behaviour. Traits are in contrast to states, which are more transitory dispositions.

Gordon Allport's Personality Traits:

He categorized the traits into three levels

Cardinal traits: Allport suggested that cardinal traits are rare and dominate, usually developing later in life. They tend to define a person to such an extent that their names become synonymous with their personality. Examples of this include the following descriptive terms: Machiavellian, narcissistic, Don Juan, and Christ-like.

Central traits: These general characteristics form basic personality foundations. While central traits are not as dominating as cardinal traits, they describe the major characteristics you might use to describe another person. Terms such as "intelligent," "honest," "shy," and "anxious" are considered central traits.

Secondary traits: Secondary traits are sometimes related to attitudes or preferences. They often appear only in certain situations or under specific circumstances. Some examples include public speaking anxiety or impatience while waiting in line.

Raymond Cattell's 16 Personality Factors:

Raymond Cattell considered personality to be a pattern of traits providing the key to understanding and predicting a person's behaviour. Cattell (1957) identified 16 factors or dimensions of personality: warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, dominance, liveliness, rule-consciousness, social boldness, sensitivity, vigilance, abstractedness, privateness, apprehension, openness to change, self-reliance, perfectionism, and tension ([link]).

Self-theory

The Self Theory emphasises on the set of perceptions an individual has for himself and

the perceptions of the relationships he has with others and the other aspects of life. Carl Rogers and his associates have developed this personality theory that places emphasis on the individual as an initiating, creating, influential determinant of behaviour within the environmental framework.

According to Rogers basic ingredients of personality:

Self Actualization: Carl Rogers believed that humans have one basic motive that is the tendency to self-actualize – i.e. to fulfil one's potential and achieve the highest level of 'human-beingness' we can.

Self-concept: Self-concept is defined as "the organized, consistent set of perceptions and beliefs about oneself".

Rogers identified five characteristics of the fully functioning person:

1. Open to experience: both positive and negative emotions accepted. Negative feelings are not denied, but worked through (rather than resorting to ego defense mechanisms).

2. Existential living: in touch with different experiences as they occur in life, avoiding prejudging and preconceptions. Being able to live and fully appreciate the present, not always looking back to the past or forward to the future (i.e., living for the moment).

3. Trust feelings: feeling, instincts, and gut-reactions are paid attention to and trusted. People's own decisions are the right ones, and we should trust ourselves to make the right choices.

4. Creativity: creative thinking and risk-taking are features of a person's life. A person does not play safe all the time. This involves the ability to adjust and change and seek new experiences.

5. Fulfilled life: a person is happy and satisfied with life, and always looking for new challenges and experiences.

DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

The determinants of personality can be grouped in five broad categories:

- Biological Factors
- Cultural Factors
- Family Factors
- Social Factors
- Situational Factors

Biological Factors

The study of the biological contributions to personality may be studied under four heads:

Heredity

Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception. Physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are considered to be inherent from one's parents.

The heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual's personality is the molecular structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes.

Brain

The second biological approach is to concentrate on the role that the brain plays in personality. The psychologists are unable to prove empirically the contribution of the human brain in influencing personality. Preliminary results from the electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) research give an indication that a better understanding of human personality and behaviour might come from the study of the brain.

Biofeedback

Until recently, physiologists and psychologists felt that certain biological functions such as brainwave patterns, gastric and hormonal secretions, and fluctuations in blood pressure and skin temperature were beyond conscious control.

Now some scientists believe that these involuntary functions can be consciously controlled through biofeedback techniques. In BFT, the individual learns the internal rhythms of a particular body process through electronic signals that are feedback from equipment that is wired to the body.

Physical Features

A vital ingredient of the personality, an individual's external appearance, is biologically determined. The fact that a person is tall or short, fat or skinny, black or white will influence the person's effect on others and this in turn, will affect the self-concept.

Cultural Factors

Among the factors that influence personality formation is the culture in which we are raised, early conditioning, norms prevailing within the family, friends and social groups and other miscellaneous experiences that impact us.

The culture largely determines attitudes towards independence, aggression, competition,

cooperation and a host of other human responses.

According to Paul H Mussen, "each culture expects, and trains, its members to behave in ways that are acceptable to the group. To a marked degree, the child's cultural group defines the range of experiences and situations he is likely to encounter and the values and personality characteristics that will be reinforced and hence learned."

Family Factors

Whereas the culture generally prescribes and limits what a person can be taught, it is the family, and later the social group, which selects, interprets and dispenses the culture. Thus, the family probably has the most significant impact on early personality development. A substantial amount of empirical evidence indicates that the overall home environment created by the parents, in addition to their direct influence, is critical to personality development. The parents play an especially important part in the identification process, which is important to the person's early development.

According to Mischel, the process can be examined from three different perspectives.

- Identification can be viewed as the similarity of behaviour including feelings and attitudes between child and model.
- Identification can be looked at as the child's motives or desires to be like the model.
- It can be viewed as the process through which the child actually takes on the attributes of the model.

From all three perspectives, the identification process is fundamental to the understanding of personality development. The home environment also influences the personality of an individual. Siblings (brothers and sisters) also contribute to personality.

Social Factors

There is increasing recognition given to the role of other relevant persons, groups and especially organisations, which greatly influence an individual's personality. This is commonly called the socialization process.

Socialization involves the process by which a person acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioural potentialities that are open to him or her, those that are ultimately synthesized and absorbed.

Socialization starts with the initial contact between a mother and her new infant. After

infancy, other members of the immediate family – father, brothers, sisters and close relatives or friends, then the social group: peers, school friends and members of the work group – play influential roles.

Socialization process is especially relevant to organisational behaviour because the process is not confined to early childhood, taking place rather throughout one's life. In particular, the evidence is accumulating that socialization may be one of the best explanations for why employees behave the way they do in today's organisations.

Situational Factors

Human personality is also influenced by situational factors. The effect of the environment is quite strong. Knowledge, skill and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behaviour.

An individual's personality, while generally stable and consistent, does change in different situations. The varying demands of different situations call forth different aspects of one's personality.

According to Milgram, "Situation exerts an important press on the individual. It exercises constraints and may provide a push. In certain circumstances, it is not so much the kind of person a man is, as the kind of situation in which he is placed that determines his actions".

PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOUR

Personality is the psychological growth and development within the ambit of change. Hubert Bonner underlines six propositions to clarify the nature of personality. These propositions are relevant to decision making by an administrator.

- Totality of acts
- Personality and Environment
- Personality Depicts consistency
- Personality is goal-oriented behavior
- Time Integrating structure
- Personality Structure

Totality of acts

In an organisation, human behaviour is the point of culmination which is preceded by a number of acts. It is the totality of these acts in the form of responded behaviour which is

relevant to both individual and the organisation. The isolated psychological or physiological aspect of individual in personality is of no use for administrative decision or action.

Personality and Environment

Personality and environment are two interdependent variables of human behaviour. Personality gets moulded according to the environment, it is also a fact that it is the environment which stimulates personality to action.

Personality Depicts consistency

Normal personality is dynamic due to the environmental setting around him. Personality can be flexible to the point of consistency in a different environmental setting.

Personality is goal-oriented behaviour

Every individual seeks to achieve the desired goal through his personality. The process of goal selection is in itself a dynamic quality of personality which also forges unity between personality and goal-directed behaviour.

Time Integrating structure

Personality provides a synthesis of the retrospect and the prospect because the future is as much related to past as the past is to future.

Personality Structure

Personality structure consists of three dimensions – determinants, stages and traits.

Brand Personality

We can divide or study the personality of a brand in five dimensions:

- Sincerity of the brand
- Excitement
- Competence
- Sophisticated
- Rugged

Sincerity of the brand

Brands that are sincere always fulfil their promises. Consumers do get the desired benefits out of them. The image of the brand is being down to earth, very honest and cheerful. Some brands like Raymond and Hero Honda Passion are viewed as sincere brand as people trust these brands and they never disappoint the consumers.

Excitement

There are some brands that show their image as being daring, imaginative and spirited. These brands target adventurous people, people with hedonic motives and people who want to experiment.

Brands like Mountain Dew and Bajaj Pulsar are related to this personality type where people are shown doing amazing stunts that pump excitement in consumers.

Competence

These are the types that are reliable, intelligent and successful. These brands are most trusted and they have an association with the consumers. They are said to be very consumer-oriented and they know what their consumers want. They are promoted in such a way that their core competencies and success story come out in between the consumers.

Example: Airtel and LIC of India are reliable and they are successful also.

Sophisticated

These brands have an upper-class feeling attached to them. They are charming and everyone dreams of owning such brands. These brands have an image that is classy and glamorous.

Brands such as Mercedes and Tommy Hilfiger are considered as upmarket and charming.

Rugged

These are the brands which have a very western and masculine image. They are considered to be tough and outdoorsy. They are connected with men or in some cases with women,

Personality in Consumer Behaviour

Harold H Kassarjian and Mary Jane Sheffet reviewed more than 300 studies on personality and have concluded that the results are "equivocal." Few studies seem to show a definite relationship between consumers' personality and behaviour, other studies are indicative of no relationship.

The majority of studies indicate that if at all there is any relationship between personality and behaviour, it is too weak to have any practical value to marketers.

Certain types of personality traits may be more related to consumer behaviour than others, such as

- Optimal Stimulation Level (OSL)

- Need for Cognition (NFC)

- Dogmatism

- Susceptibility to influence

- Self-monitoring behaviour

Optimal Stimulation Level

Some activities have more potential to provide individuals with some sort of physiological arousal. There are others who prefer a calm, simple and uncluttered life, while some others prefer novel, complex, exciting existence.

Research in this area indicates that high optimum stimulation levels are associated with more willingness to take risks; to be innovative, try new products and actively seek purchase-related information.

Need for Cognition

Need for cognition refers to the degree of an individual's desire to think and enjoy getting engaged in information processing. Such individuals tend to seek information that requires thinking. Opposite to this would be those who shy away from such information and focus on peripheral information (ELM model).

For instance, a consumer high in need for cognition (NC) and looking at an ad for Apple computer is more likely to study and concentrate on the information contained in the ad.

On the other hand, a consumer low in need for cognition would be more inclined to look at the beautiful picture of iMac, ignoring the detailed information about the computer model.

Dogmatism

Consumers are also likely to vary in terms of how open-minded or closed-minded they are. Dogmatism is a personality trait that indicates the degree of an individual's rigidity toward anything that is contrary to her/his own established beliefs.

Apparently, the person is resistant to change and new ideas. One would expect highly dogmatic consumers to be relatively resistant to new products, promotions or advertising.

Susceptibility to Influence

Consumers differ in terms of their proneness to persuasion attempts by others, especially when these attempts happen to be interpersonal or face-to-face.

Consumers with lower social and information processing confidence show more

proneness to be influenced by ads compared to those who have higher self-confidence.

Self-monitoring Behaviour

Individual consumers differ in the degree to which they look to others for indications on how to behave. Those persons who are high-self monitors tend to look to others for direction and accordingly guide their own behaviour. They are more sensitive and responsive to image-oriented ads and willing to try such products. They are less likely to be consumer innovators.

On the other hand, individuals who are low self-monitors are guided by their own preferences or standards and are less likely to be influenced by others expectations.

Organisational Applications of Personality

The CEOs of Indian companies say, they retain the employees with originality, dependent, confident and self dramatizing traits even during recessionary periods as they perform better even in adverse situations. They also say, they fire the employees with self-doubting, responsibility, uncommunicative, rude and unassertive traits even in boom conditions as their behaviour does not match the organisational expectations.

Research findings indicate that personality has direct influence on behaviour and performance of the people. Hence, we should study the influence of personality on organisational behaviour. They are: locus of control,self-esteem, self monitoring risk taking etc..

Locus of Control

Locus of control is the center of control of an individual's code of conduct. People can be grouped into two categories i.e., internals and externals respectively. People who consider themselves as the masters of their own fates are known as internals, while, those who affirm that their lives are controlled by outside forces known as externals.

Before making any decision, internals actively search for information, they are achievement driven, and want to command their environment. Thus, internals do well on jobs that crave complex information processing, taking initiative and independent action.

Externals, on the other hand, are more compliant, more willing to follow instructions, so, they do well in structured, routine jobs.

Self-esteem

It is the extent up to which people either like or dislike themselves. Self-Esteem is directly related to the expectations of success and on-the-job satisfaction.

Individuals with high self-esteem think that they have what it takes to succeed. So,

they take more challenges while selecting a job.

On the other hand, individuals with low self-esteem are more susceptible to external distractions. So, they are more likely to seek the approval of others and to adapt the beliefs and behaviors of those they respect.

Self-Monitoring

Self-monitoring is the capability of regulating one's behavior according to social situations. Individuals with high self-monitoring skill easily adjust their behaviour according to external, situational factors. Their impulsive talents allow them to present public personae which are completely different from their private personalities.

However, people with low self-monitoring skills cannot cover themselves. Regardless of any situation, they are always themselves. They have an attitude of, "what you see is what you get."

The CEO of LG realised that the sales of the company were decline due to the cultural change. He immediately changed his leadership style and created empowered teams. This change in behaviour enabled the employees to develop a new refrigerator which could store the traditional Korean food. This product turned the company into a profit-making company. Adjustment of the behaviour of the CEO of LG is called self-monitoring.

Risk taking

Generally, managers are reluctant on taking risks. However, individual risk-taking inclination affects the bulk of information required by the managers and how long it takes them to make decisions.

Thus, it is very important to recognize these differences and align risk-taking propensity with precise job demands that can make sense.

Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism is being practical, emotionally distant, and believing that ends justify means.

Machiavellians always want to win and are great persuaders. Here are the significant features of a high-mach individuals −

☐ High-Machs prefer precise interactions rather than beating about the bush.

☐ High-Machs tend to improvise; they do not necessarily abide by rules and regulations all the time.

☐ High-Machs get distracted by emotional details that are irrelevant to the outcome of a project.

Work-related behaviour of people in an organization stems from both environmental and individual factors. From the environmental approach, interpersonal, group, and societal influences and individual factors extend across cognitive abilities, acquired expertise, personality styles, motivation, and physical attributes.

A common aspect of personality is the manner in which we think of its effect on behaviour. We tend to think of this in terms of a person with a particular set of traits. For example, we think of an aggressive, impatient person as one likely to act in an aggressive manner.

The direction of the relationship is thought to stem from personality trait and move to behaviour. That is to say, your personality greatly influences how you behave, not the other way around—that your behaviour would explain your personality.

For example, we usually assume that a shy person is not likely to go to parties, but we could also think that someone who does not go to parties or other social occasions is likely to become shy. The assumed relationship between personality and work-related behaviour is one of the key reasons why it is of interest to those who study and manage organizations.

PERCEPTION:

Perception is another most important aspect of life of organizations. Many problems of the organisation and that of its members may be traced to the distortion in perception. Perception means the ability to perceive i.e. understanding or knowledge, mental grasp of qualities by means of senses or awareness.

Communication is influenced by one's perception of individual. When we communicate with someone, the language we used, the tone of the language and gesture we make portray an individual's character and a kind of relationship he wants to develop.

Slephen P. Robbins — "A process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment."

B. Von Haller Gilmer — "Perception is the process of becoming aware of situations, of adding

meaningful associations to sensations."

Perception is essentially a psychological process whereby people select, organise and interpret sensory stimulations into meaningful information about their work environment.

PERCEPTUAL PROCESS:

PERCEPTUAL PROCESS (RSOICR)

According to H. Joseph Reitz, "perception includes all those process by which an individual receives information about his environment-seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling. The study of the perceptual process shows that their functioning is affected by three classes of variable- the objects or events being perceived, the environment in which perception occurs and the individual doing the perceiving."

It is clear from the above definition that the perceptual process includes the following stages:

 Receiving(R)

 Selecting (S)

 Organising (O)

 Interpreting (I)

 Checking(C) and

 Reacting(R)

There are three important stages involved in perception process, i .e,

(1)Perceptual Inputs, (2) Perceptual Mechanism, and (3) Perceptual Outputs.

I. Perceptual Inputs:

A number of stimuli are constantly confronting people in the form of information, objects, events, people etc. in the environment. These serve as the inputs of the perceptual process. A few of the stimuli affecting the senses are the noise of the air coolers, the sound of other people talking and moving, outside noises from the vehicular traffic or a street repair shop or a loud speaker playing somewhere plus the impact of the total environmental situation. Some stimuli do not affect the senses of a person consciously, a process called subliminal perception. The information we receive from the environment like objects, events and people are the perceptual inputs. These inputs are transformed through the perceptual mechanism like selection,

organisation and interpretation as the output. The transformation mechanism is called throughput. The output is the perception. The perception may be the opinion, feelings, values, attitudes, conclusion etc. These influence the decisions and behaviours.

II. Perceptual Mechanism:

When a person receives information, he tries to process it through the following sub processes of selection, organization and interpretation.
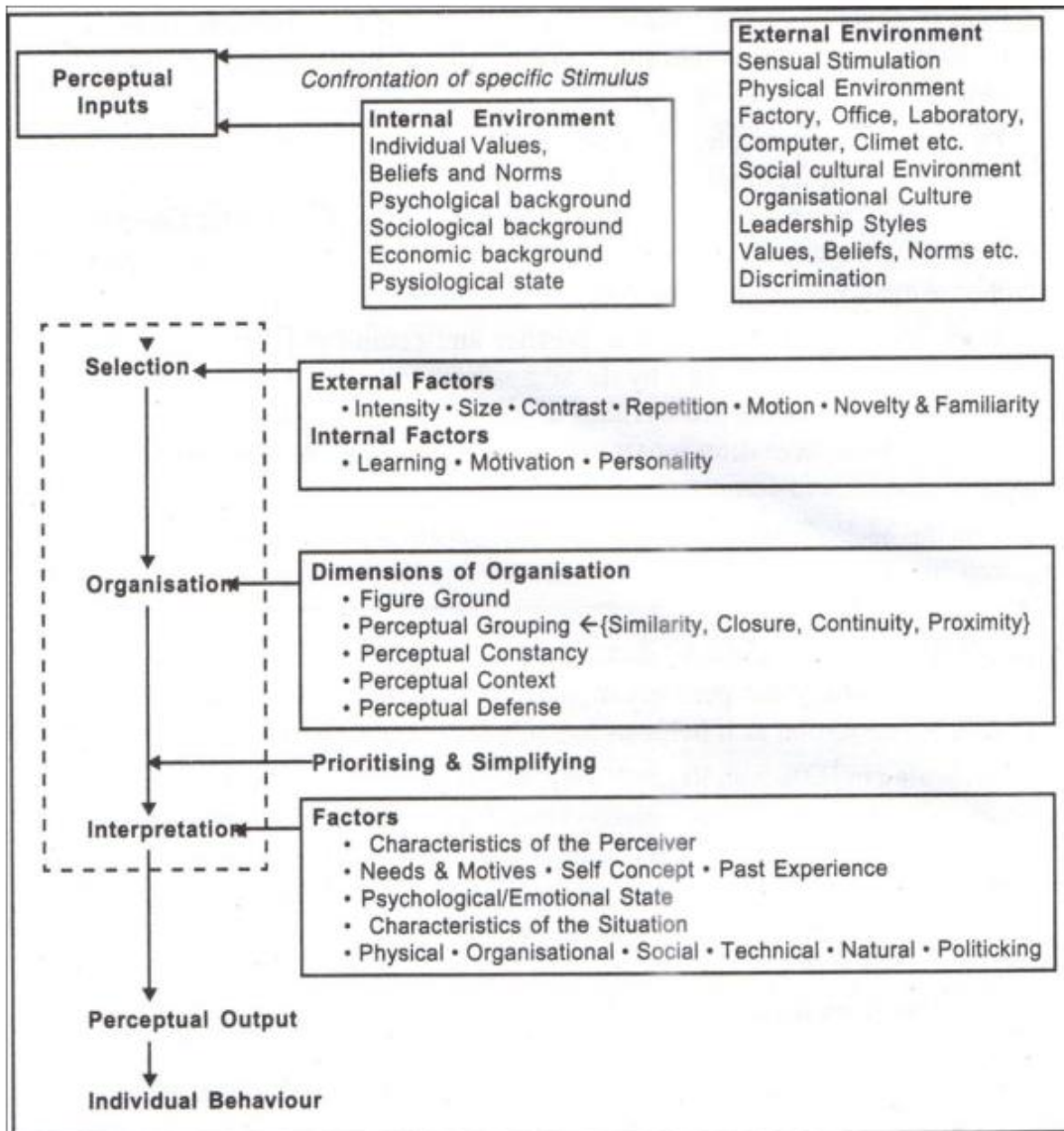
(A) Perceptual Selectivity:

Many things are taking place in the environment simultaneously. However, one cannot pay equal attention to all these things, thus the need of perceptual selectivity. Perceptual selectivity refers to the tendency to select certain objects from the environment for attention. The objects which are selected are those which are relevant and appropriate for an individual or those which are consistent with our existing beliefs, values and needs. For this, we need to screen or filter out most of them so that we may deal with the important or relevant ones.
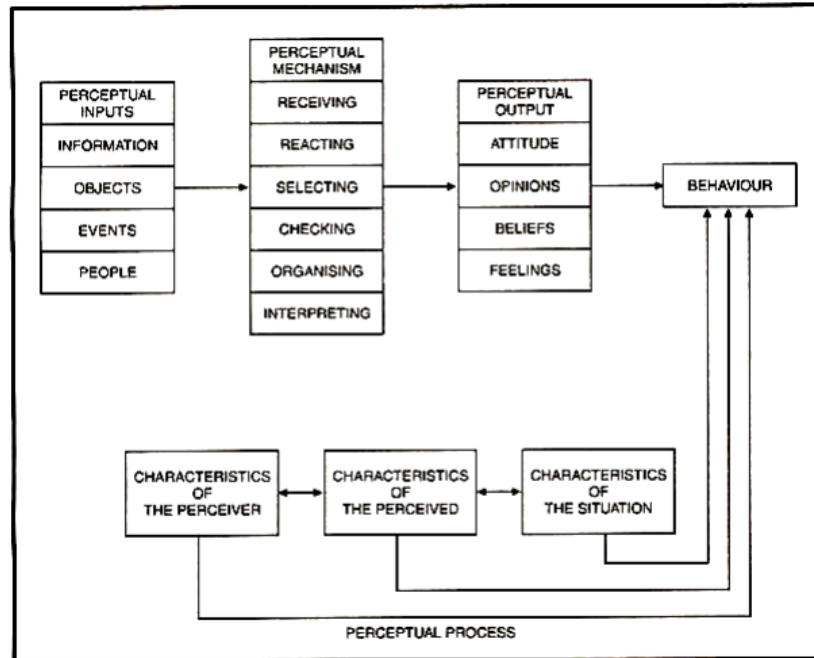
The following factors govern the selection of stimuli:

(i) External Factors

(ii) Internal Factors

Perceptual process model

Perceptual Inputs	*Confrontation of specific Stimulus*	**External Environment** Sensual Stimulation Physical Environment Factory, Office, Laboratory, Computer, Climet etc. Social cultural Environment Organisational Culture Leadership Styles Values, Beliefs, Norms etc. Discrimination

Internal Environment
Individual Values,
Beliefs and Norms
Psycholgical background
Sociological background
Economic background
Psysiological state

Selection

External Factors
• Intensity • Size • Contrast • Repetition • Motion • Novelty & Familiarity
Internal Factors
• Learning • Motivation • Personality

Organisation

Dimensions of Organisation
• Figure Ground
• Perceptual Grouping ←{Similarity, Closure, Continuity, Proximity}
• Perceptual Constancy
• Perceptual Context
• Perceptual Defense

Prioritising & Simplifying

Interpretation

Factors
• Characteristics of the Perceiver
• Needs & Motives • Self Concept • Past Experience
• Psychological/Emotional State
• Characteristics of the Situation
• Physical • Organisational • Social • Technical • Natural • Politicking

Perceptual Output

Individual Behaviour

PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

Various external and internal factors which affect our selection process are as explained below:

(i) External Factors:

(a) Size:

The bigger the size of the stimulus, the higher is the probability that it is perceived. Size always attracts the attention, because it establishes dominance. The size may be the height or weight of an individual, sign board of a shop, or the space devoted to an advertisement in the newspaper. A very tall person will always stand out in the crowd on the other hand; a very short person will also attract attention. A full page advertisement will always catch attention as compared to a few lines in the classified section.

(b) Intensity:

Intensity attracts to increase the selective perception. A few examples of intensity are yelling or whispering, very bright colours, very bright or very dim lights. Intensity will also include behavioural intensity. If the office order says "Report to the boss immediately," it will be more intense and effective as compared to the office order which says "Make it convenient to

meet the boss today."

(c) Repetition:

The repetition principle states that a repeated external stimulus is more attention drawing than a single one. Because of this principle, supervisors make it a point to give the necessary directions again and again to the workers. Similarly, the same advertisement or different advertisement but for the same product shown, again and again on the TV will have more attention as compared to an advertisement which is shown once a day.

(d) Status:

High status people ran exerts greater influence on the perception of the employees than the low status people. There will always be different reactions to the orders given by the foreman, the supervisor or the production manager.

(e) Contrast:

An object which contrasts with the surrounding environment is more likely to be noticed than the object which blends in the environment. For example, the Exit signs in the cinema halls which have red lettering on a black background are attention drawing or a warning sign in a factory, such as Danger, written in black against a red or yellow background will be easily noticeable. In a room if there are twenty men and one woman, the woman will be noticed first because of the contrast.

the advertisements like the following on TV's:

" Are you tired due to heavy mental work?" Yes!

" Do not use the foods like these as they are not enough for your child.

Our food is complete and planned. Therefore, use our food for your child."

" You are not expected to see, taste and use this product…."

Companies present this type of advertisement as the people perceive external stimuli which they do not expect.

Thus, the contrast principle states that, " external stimuli which stand out against the background or which are not what peple are expecting will receive their attention."
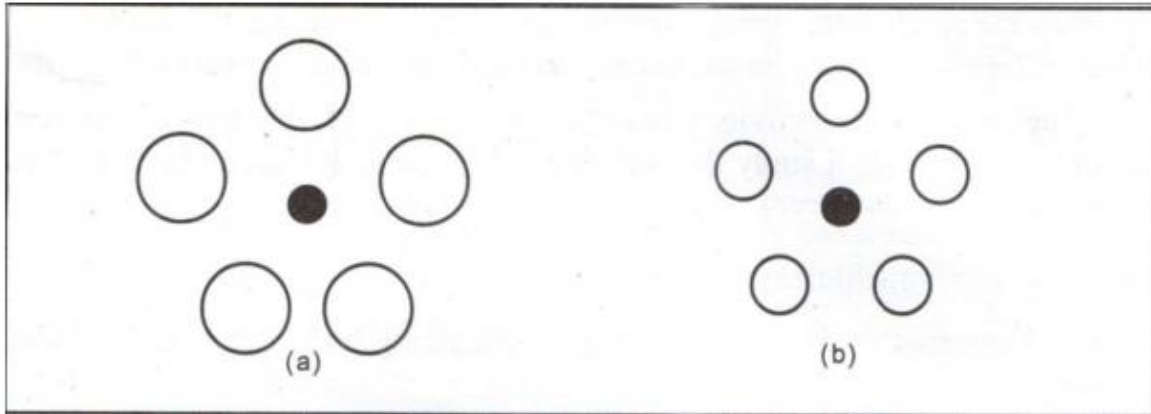
Perceptual principle: which black circle is larger?

Fig. presents the perceptual principle.

The black circle in Fig. (a) seems to be larger than that of Fig. (b) from a naked eye. But, in reality on measurement both the black circles in Fig. (a) and (b) are of the same size.

(f) Movement:

The principle of motion states that a moving object receives more attention than an object which is standing still. A moving car among the parked cars catches our attention faster. A flashing neon-sign is more easily noticed.

(g) Novelty and Familiarity:

This principle states that either a novel or a familiar external situation can serve as an attention getter. New objects in the familiar settings or familiar objects in new settings will draw the attention of the perceiver. A familiar face on a crowded railway platform will immediately catch attention. Because of this principle, the managers change the workers jobs from time to time, because it will increase the attention they give to their jobs.

(h) Nature:

By nature we mean, whether the object is visual or auditory and whether it involves pictures, people or animals. It is well known that pictures attract more attention than words. Video attracts more attention than still pictures. A picture with human beings attracts more attention than a picture with animals.

(ii) Internal Factors:

The internal factors relate to the perceiver. Perceiving people is very important for a manager, because behaviour occurs as a result of behaviour.

Following are the internal factors which affect perception:

1. Learning:

Although interrelated with other internal factors learning may play the single biggest role in developing perceptual set. A perceptual set is basically what a person expects from the stimuli on the basis of his learning and experience relative to same or similar stimuli. This perceptual set is also known as cognitive awareness by which the mind organizes information and forms images and compares them with previous exposures to similar stimuli. A number of illustrations have been used by psychologists to demonstrate the impact of learning on perception.

Some are as explained below:

(i) Learning creates expectancy in an individual and expectancy makes him see what he wants to see.

Take the following figure for example:
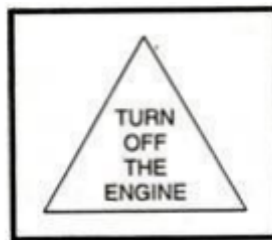
It takes a few seconds for the reader to realize that there is an extra "the" in the sentence. One tends to read the sentence, because of prior learning in the triangle as "turn off the engine

(ii) In this figure, the individual is caught in "Verbal Response Set." He is likely to read the last words "Mac-Hinery" instead of machinery
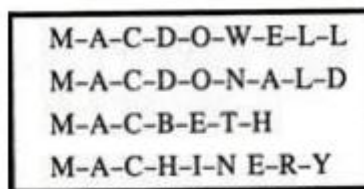
(iii) Another famous illustration of cognitive awareness is the young woman-old woman experiment.

According to this experiment, if a person is first shown a clear, and un-ambiguous picture of a young woman as in fig. (2), and then he is shown an ambiguous picture as in fig. (1), the person will perceive the second picture as that of a young woman.

However, if the person is shown the clear picture of an old woman first and then the ambiguous picture, he will perceive the ambiguous picture as that of an old woman.

Fig. (1) Ambiguous picture of young woman and an old woman

Fig. (2) Young woman

Fig. (3) Old woman

It is because of the cognitive awareness as the mind organizes information and forms images and compares them with previous exposure to Fig. (1) Ambiguous picture of young similar stimuli.

From the above illustration it is clear that our perceptions and interpretations of such illustrations would depend upon our previous exposure to such situations earlier.

2. Motivation:

Besides the learning aspects of the perceptual set, motivation also has a vital impact on perceptual selectivity. For example, a person who has a relatively high need for power, affiliation or achievement will be more attentive to the relevant situational variables. For example, when

such a person walks into the lunch room, he may go to the table where several of his co-workers are sitting, rather than a table which is empty or on which just one person is sitting.

Another example is that a hungry person will be more sensitive to the smell or sight of food than a non-hungry person. In one experiment people who were kept hungry for some time were shown some pictures and were asked to describe what they saw in them. Most of them reported more food items in such perceptions.

3. Personality.

Closely related to learning and motivation is the personality of the perceiving person. For example, the older senior executives often complain about the inability of the new young manager to take tough decisions concerning terminating or reassigning people and paying attention to details and paper work. The young managers, in turn, complain about the 'old guards' resisting change and using paper and rules as ends in themselves. Different perceptions in young and old are due to their age differences. Further, the generation gap witnessed in recent years definitely contributes to different perceptions.

In addition to the above two problems another problem is about the woman in the work place. Women are still not reaching the top levels of organisations. At least part of this problem can be attributed to perceptual barriers such as the established managerial hierarchy is not able to see (perceive) that qualified woman should be promoted into top level positions. Of course, there are individual differences in all age categories but the above examples show that how personalities, values and even age may affect the way people perceive the world around them.

 B. Perceptual Organisation:

 After having selectively absorbed the data from the range of stimuli we are exposed to at any given time, we then try to organize the perceptual inputs in such a manner that would facilitate us to extract meaning out of what we perceive. Or in other words, person's perceptual process organizes the incoming information into a meaningful whole. While selection is a subjective process, organizing is a cognitive process.

How we organize the stimuli is primarily based on the following principles:

(i) Figure and Ground:

Figure-Ground principle is generally considered to be the most basic form of perceptual organisation. This principle simply implies that the perceived object or person or event stands out distinct from its back ground and occupies the cognitive space of the individual. For

example, as you read this page, you see white as the background and black as the letters or words to be read. You do not try to understand what the white spaces amidst the black letters could mean.

Likewise, in the organisational setting, some people are more noticed or stand out than others. For example, an individual in the organisation might try to focus his entire attention on his immediate supervisor, trying to be in his good books, completely ignoring his colleagues and how they feel about his behaviour. According to this principle, thus, the perceiver tends to organize only the information which stands out in the environment which seems to be significant to the individual.

(ii) Perceptual Grouping:

Grouping is the tendency to curb individual stimuli into meaningful patterns. For instance, if we perceive objects or people with similar characteristics, we tend to group them together and this organizing mechanism helps us to deal with information in an efficient way rather than getting bogged down and confused with so many details. This tendency of grouping is very basic in nature and largely seems to be inborn.

Some of the factors underlying the grouping are:

(a) Similarity:

The principle of similarity states that the greater the similarity of the stimuli, the greater the tendency to perceive them as a common group. The principle of similarity is exemplified when objects of similar shape, size or colour tend to be grouped together. For example, if all visitors to a plant are required to wear white hats while the supervisors wear blue hats, the workers can identify all the white hats as the group of visitors. Another example is our general tendency to perceive minority and women employees as a single group.

(b) Proximity:

The principle of proximity or nearness states that a group of stimuli that are close together will be perceived as a whole pattern of parts belonging together. For example, several people working on a machine will be considered as a single group so that if the productivity on that particular machine is low, then the entire group will be considered responsible even though, only some people in the group may be inefficient. The following figure demonstrates the proximity principle.

The ten squares in the figure are seen as pairs of two, three, four or five depending on their nearness to each other:
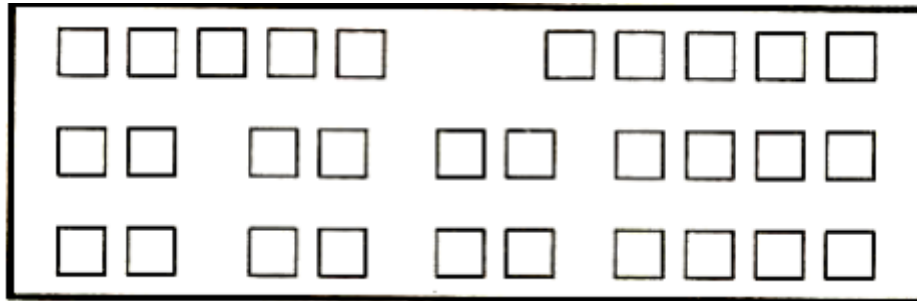
(c) Closure:

The principle of closure relates to the tendencies of the people to perceive objects as a whole, even when some parts of the object are missing. The person's perceptual process will close the gaps that are unfilled from sensory input.

For example, in the following figure the sections of the figures are not complete, but being familiar with the shapes we tend to close the gaps and perceive it as a whole:
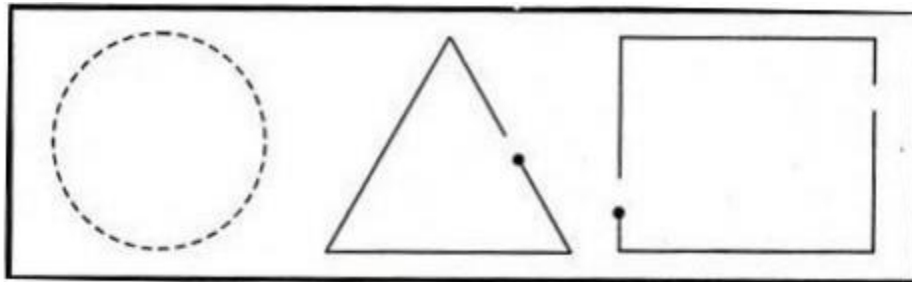
Speaking from the point of view of an organisation, if a manager perceives a worker, on the whole, a hard worker, sincere, honest, then even, if he behaves in a contradictory way sometimes (which is a kind of a gap), the manager will tend to ignore it, because it does not fit in with the overall impression, that he has about the worker.

(d) Continuity:

Continuity is closely related to closure. But there is a difference. Closure supplies missing stimuli, whereas the continuity principle says that a person will tend to perceive continuous lines of pattern. The continuity may lead to inflexible or non creative thinking on the part of the organisational participants. Only the obvious patterns or relationships will be perceived. Because of this type of perception, the inflexible managers may require that employers follow a set and step by step routine leaving no ground for implementation of out of

line innovative ideas.

(iii) Perceptual Constancy:

Constancy is one of the more sophisticated forms of perceptual organisation. This concept gives a person a sense of stability in this changing world. This principle permits the individuals to have some constancy or stability in a tremendously variable and highly complex world. If constancy were not at work, the world would be very chaotic and dis-organised for the individual.

There are several aspects of constancy:

(a) Shape Constancy:

Whenever an object appears to maintain its shape despite marked changes in the retinal image e.g. the top of a glass bottle is seen as circular whether we view it from the side or from the top.

(b) Size Constancy:

The size constancy refers to the fact that as an object is moved farther away from us we tend to see it as more or less un-variant in size. For example, the players in cricket field on the opposite side of the field do not look smaller than those closer to you even though their images on the retina of the eye are much smaller.

(c) Colour Constancy:

Colour constancy implies that familiar objects are perceived to be of the same colour in varied conditions. The owner of a red car sees it as red in the bright sunlight as well as in dim twilight. Without perceptual constancy the size, shape and colour of objects would change as the worker moved about and it would make the job almost impossible.

(iv) Perceptual Context:

The highest and most sophisticated forms of organisation are context. It gives meaning and value to simple stimuli, objects, events, situations and other persons in the environment. The organisational structure and culture provide the primary context in which workers and managers do their perceiving. For example, a verbal order, a new policy, a pat on the back, a raised eye brow or a suggestion takes on special meaning when placed in the context of the work organisation.

(v) Perceptual Defence:

Closely related to perceptual context is the perceptual defence. A person may build a

defence against stimuli or situational events in a particular context that are personally or culturally unacceptable or threatening. Accordingly, perceptual defence may play a very important role in understanding union-management and supervisorsubordinate relationship. Most studies verify the existence of a perceptual defence mechanism.

The general conclusions drawn from these studies are that people may learn to avoid certain conflicting, threatening or unacceptable aspects of the context. The various defenses may be denial of an aspect, by modification and distortion, by change in the perception, then the last but not the least is recognition but refusal to change.

C. Perceptual Interpretation:

Perceptual interpretation is an integral part of the perception process. Without interpretation, selection and organisation of information do not make any sense. After the information has been received and organised, the perceiver interprets or assigns meaning to the information. In fact, perception is said to have taken place only after the data have been interpreted. Several factors contribute towards the interpretation of data.

More important among them are perceptual set, attribution, stereotyping, halo effect, perceptual context, perceptual defence, implicit personality theory and projection. It may also be noted that in the process of interpretation, people tend to become judgmental. They may tend to distort what they see and even ignore things that they feel are unpleasant.

D. Checking:

After data have been received and interpreted, the perceiver tends to check whether his interpretations are right or wrong. One way of checking is for the person himself to indulge in introspection. He will put a series of questions to himself and the answers will confirm whether his perception about an individual or object is correct or otherwise. Another way is to check the validity of the interpretation with others.

E. Reacting:

The last stage in perception is the reaction. The perceiver shall indulge in some action in relation to the perception. The action depends on whether the perception is favourable or unfavourable. It is negative when the perception is unfavourable and the action is positive when the perception is favourable.

III. Perceptual Outputs:

Perceptual outputs encompass all that results from the throughout process. These would

include such factors as one's attitudes, opinions, feelings, values and behaviours resulting from the perceptual inputs and throughputs. Perceptual errors adversely affect the perceptual outputs. The lesser our biases in perception, the better our chances of perceiving reality as it exists or at least perceiving situations with the minimum amount of distortions.

This will help us to form the right attitudes and engage in appropriate behavioural patterns, which in turn will be beneficial for attaining the desired organisational outcomes. It is essentially important for managers who are responsible for organisational results to enhance their skills in order to develop the right attitudes and behaviours.

(iv)Repetition:

The repetition principle is that a repeated external stimulus is more attention getting than a single one. Trade unions include the significant demands in the agendas of the collective bargaining meeting frequently to draw the attention of the top management and the Human Resources Manager. Similar examples include frequent instructions by the superiors to the poor performers and frequent advertisement by the fast moving consumer goods manufacturing/marketing companies.

(v) Motion:

During the periods of strikes and agitations, agitators mostly destroy the moving buses and vehicles are moving objects draw the attention rather than stationery objects. Similarly, the moving processes of the production processes receive the worker`s attention very much rather than the stationary equipment and its maintenance. The principle here is that, moving objects receive more attention of the people in the field of vision than the stationary objects do.

The companies follow this principle in their advertisements and incorporate mostly moving parts in the advertisements.

(vi)Novelty and Familiarity:

Talapatra Paper Mills Employees` Union had been demanding the management for the payment of dearness allowance due to increase in cost of living since 1971. Management did not concede to this demand of workers despite the frequent demands until 1982. The Union resorted to a novel technique of representing the problem by the employees` wives in September 1982.

Then the issue had drawn the attention of the top management when their wives explained their problems in managing the family budgets. The management immediately accepted the demand and paid the dearness allowance.

Here, the novelty and familiarity principle is that either a novel or a familiar external situation can serve as an attention drawer. In this example, the demand of dearness allowance was familiar but representation of the demand by the employees` wives was novel which had drawn the attention of the management. It is said that the efficient managers do the same thing differently. Another example for novelty and familiarity is the job rotation. Here, employee is familiar one whereas the new job is the novel one. Computerisation of my jobs in commercial banks resulted in novelty in doing the familiar job.

Computer aided teaching also brings the novelty in teaching and learning the familiar courses and topics/subjects.

Internal Environmental Factors

So far we have discussed various external factors which influence perceptual selectively. Now shall we discuss the internal factors influencing the perceptual selectivity. Individual`s physiological and psychological makeup influence their learning, motivation and personality. Learning, personality and motivation of an individual, in turn, influence the perceptual selectivity. Internal factor include:

Learning and Perception

Dr. P. S. Rao had been teaching the course on 'Organisational Behaviour.' He used to write the following on the board.

"Which bind them to get her as a social entity."

Nearly 80 percent of the students used to read the sentence as

"Which bind them to get her as a social entity".

While remaining 20 percent of the students use to read the sentence correctly as

"Which bind them together as a social entity."

It took a few seconds for the 80 percent of the students to realize that there are two unnecessary gaps (in fact, it is something wrong).

The 20 percent of the students who got it right used to read it correctly as 'together' due to their familiarity with the sentence from prior learning. Thus, these students are perceptually set to read the three independent words as single word as: 'Together.'

Perceptual set in the workplace

Normally, different employees perceive either differently or on the same line from the same set of real things at the workplace. The chief executive officer of the newly established company

told the leaders of the three unions, "The company cannot pay the bonus to you."

The leaders of the three unions were cross-checked to know their perception.

Though the statement is unclear, ambiguous and indicating negative view, all the three leaders expressed positively that the company now pays good salaries through it cannot pay bonus as it is in the initial stage of establishment. Thus, perception may be favourable and positive but the statement seems to be negative. Further, all the people may perceive in the same way.

Personality and Perception

Information technology, computerization, office less offices, home-cumoffices, paperless offices and business process reengineering and enterprise resource planning brought redical changes in the line of thinking and personalities between the young managers and the senior managers.

The senior managers view that the young managers change at a fast rate unnecessarily resulting in wastage in resources and methods. Whilst the young managers perceive that the old managers resist change, if not, move very slowly resulting in becoming the back number in these days of severe competition.

Similar personality differences can also be perceived between male executives and female executives and between the old generation and the younger generation people. Thus, the people of different age groups, sex, backgrounds and values perceive the world around them quite differently.

Professional Experience and Knowledge:

Professional/occupational experience and knowledge also play a vital role in developing perceptual set.

Further, they also help in attracting the attention of the perceiver. For example, the chief medical officer of the chemical company went to the production department to see the production manager who is a friend of the former. The personal assistant of the production manage informed him that his boss is in the factory. He went into the factory and met the production manager. Later, the production manager was explaining the new technology that the company adapted recently to the Chief medical officer. He identified the areas in the new technology that would cause lung disease to the operators out of his professional knowledge. All the other employees could not identify this.

Paranoid Perception:

The person who is the victim of a situation or an event cannot perceive the events like most others who are not the parties to it. For example, the one who is denied promotion can perceive that injustice was done to him and his cognition won't select any other factor which would give him the indication that he is less qualified or less experienced or less efficient than the one who was promoted. Thus the perceptual field of the emotionally disturbed person differs from that of the others. The disturbed person suffers from excessive repression, projection, distortion of reality and highly individual based interpretation such persons behave in an inflexible manner due to the feeling of insecurity.

Perceptual Organisation

After selecting the inputs from the external environment, based on the influences of the internal environmental factors, we have to organize the inputs in a logical and sequential manner. Therefore, perceptual organisation is the next logical step in the perception process. The data and information have to be organised in a logical and sequential way in order to get a meaningful whole.

The dimensions of the perceptual organization include:

Figure – Ground

Information and data based are organised on the figure-ground principle. This principle states that the perceived object or person or event stands out distinct from its background and occupies the cognitive space of the individual. The perceived objects stand out as separable from their general background.

For example, the employees during their probation give top priority for their performance rating given by their superiors rather than on the other activities including their relations with their colleagues.

Perceptual Output

The information selected from the external environment through the stimuli is organised and interpreted by one cognitive process. This interpretation turns into the perceptual output. In other words, it is the perception. Perception is in various forms like attitude, opinion, view, feeling and the like. For example, a superior expresses his opinion regarding his subordinate. Employee express their view about their working conditions. Customers express their attitude towards the quality and utility of the products/services.

Individual Behaviour

Perception in the form of attitude, opinion, feeling etc. influences the behaviour. Employees who feel satisfies regarding their job contribute maximum to their jobs. Job satisfaction results in the maximum contribution to the job.

To sum up, perceptual process consists of the following steps:

1. Stimuli or Cue:

Every human being has five sensory organs; namely, vision, hearing, touch, smell and taste. Stimuli or cues are received by these organs. Written information is received through seeing; oral information is received through hearing. Once this cue in the form of information is received, communicate starts interpreting it. The different communicates have different interpretation of the information.

2. Selection of Stimuli or Cue:

Many types and kinds of cues or stimuli (information's for instance) are received but the communicate selects only that information which makes some sense to him. Why the selection? Because it is the most relevant information at that time.

Joseph A Litterer has rightly observed that "the reason is that we have thresholds or barriers which regulate outside information reaching our consciousness. When the barriers are high we remain oblivious to them but when they are low the information reaches our consciousness and thus becomes sensitized."

Selection of information is influenced by the factors — bold letters or underlined message, flagged with urgent sign, size of information, repetition or stressed words, physical attraction and the language of the information etc.

3. Filling the Gaps:

Perceiver will try to fill the gaps or complete the missing links in the information by supplementing it with relevant information. Perceiver again makes necessary efforts to maintain continuity in the information.

4. Proximity:

It means nearness or closeness of information may be perceived as a whole. It should be noted here that proximity is different than similarity.

PERCEPTUAL SELECTIVITY

Distortion in Perception:

Distortion in perception results in creating communication gap. It is a serious barrier to communication and a reason for communication failure. H Joseph Reitz has rightly pointed out that "communication may fail because the communicate perceptually ready to receive certain communication actually receives different communication.

"A halo effect also creates a distortion. It refers to perceiving people as good or bad or influential. Prof. K Aswathappa has observed, "A common phenomenon in communication is the tendency for a receiver to evaluate information on the basis of its source.

Information emanating from a VIP tends to be overrated and the same coming from an ordinary individual is likely to be discounted." The perceiver's personality, his values, needs and attitudes, environment in organisation etc. influence perception.

Managers must therefore understand the importance of perception in organisational behaviour and its effects on communication. They should realize the existence of perceptual differences at any time and in any given situation. They must be aware of all this and should confirm and seek information from various sources to make decisions.

(A) External Factors

These factors are related to the external environment or stimuli. These factors are in reality the characteristics of the stimuli. It is only these characteristics of the stimuli that attract a person and he selects them, otherwise he overlooks them. The following are the chief external factors that influence perceptual selectivity:

(1) Size: Size means the big or small size of the stimuli. Generally, it has been observed that stimuli which have a large size attract people quickly. There is a greater possibility of the perception of such stimuli being selected. For example, when we read a book, it has two types of written words, e.g., headings which are printed in big letters while their explanation is written in small letters. The moment we open a book our attention immediately goes towards the headings and not the explanation that follows them. In the context of business we find big sized

advertisement attracting people quicker than the small-sized advertisement.

(2) Intensity: Intensity means that some stimuli are brighter, louder, stronger in odour and more colourful than the others. Somebody gets attracted to a loud sound than a lower sound. Similarly brighter stimuli attract people more. For example, bright packing in business, loud advertisement, loud speaking by a supervisor- all these things are done so that the people get attracted to them.

(3) Repetition: Repetition factor indicates that the repetition of a stimuli has a particular attraction. It is on the basis of this principle that the businessmen display the advertisement of their products repeatedly. When a particular stimulus repeatedly appears before us, it is natural that we start taking interest in it. A person desirous of getting a job meets the personnel manager time and again.In this case we find this factor of repetition at work.

(4) Motion: This factor tells us that people get attracted more to the moving stimuli instead of The fixed stimuli. That is why there is a greater possibility of perception about the moving stimuli and their selection. We usually find flashing neon sign boards displayed in the market, at the cross-roads, etc. The advertising material remains in motion in these advertisements. People moving about during the night get attracted towards them. This is an attractive medium of advertisement.

5) Contrast:

Contrast means when a stimulus in its own group appears to be different. Every stimulus is looked at in the context of its background. Here background means the group of which the stimulus happens to be a part. If a member of a group appears to be different from the other members, the perceiver will be attracted towards it.

A stimulus (object, event or person) appears different in a different background. The use of background is made in order to make a stimulus attractive for the people.

(6) Novelty and Familiarity:

The factor of novelty and familiarity plays an important role in the selection of stimuli. Novelty means the presence of new stimuli in the existing environment. For example, if a foreign lecturer is appointed to teach Management Concept and Organisational Behaviour in a class, he will attract students' attention towards him. This is an example of creating novelty in an old environment in order to attract the attention of the perceivers.

Similarly, if a well known or familiar author goes to different colleges/universities to teach the same subject he will also attract students' attention. This is an example of attracting the attention of the perceivers by sending a known or familiar person in a new environment.

(B) Internal Factors of Perceptual Selectivity

External factors influencing the perceptual selectivity are connected with the stimuli while internal factors are connected with the perceivers. In fact, these factors are the characteristics of the perceivers. These characteristics of the perceivers attract them towards some particular stimulus. If a particular person gets attracted to some particular stimuli, he selects them, otherwise he ignores them.

The following are the internal factors influencing the perceptual selectivity:

(1) Self-Concept:

Self-concept of a person is the chief internal factor of perceptual selectivity Self-concept means as to what extent we know ourselves and how confident we are for ourselves. The of a person helps in formulating his concept about the stimuli. For example, if a person self-concept doubts his ability, he will fear the stimuli (his outer world). On the contrary, if he is confident about his self, he will accept the stimuli happily. In other words, the more we understand ourselves, the more easily we understand others. Therefore, correct self-concept influences accurate perception.

(2) Belief:

A person's belief in external environment/stimuli helps him in the selection of the stimuli. A person thinks about a stimulus as per his belief in it and not what it actually is. In other

words, a person accepts facts after duly censoring them so that his present belief in them remains intact.

(3) Needs:

The selection of the stimuli available in the environment is influenced by our needs. If a person wishes to attain some particular achievement he will get attracted towards only those stimuli which fulfil his wish. Similarly, if a person wishes an increase in his affiliation he will get attracted towards only those stimuli which help him in satisfying his wish for greater affiliation.

(4) Expectation:

Customers have an expectation of a particular behaviour from everybody. Customers select them on the basis of their expectation (or the behaviour expected out of them). Customers' expectation can be fully wrong or absolutely right. Expectation can also undergo a change.

(5) Response Disposition:

Response disposition means that a person gets attracted towards a known rather than an unknown object/person. A person gets attracted quickly towards things which he already knows, while he ignores other things about which he knows nothing. For example, there are two lectures going on before a religious man.

In one of the lectures religion is being taught while the second lecture is about the economic condition of the country, it is undoubted that the person will feel interested only in the religions discourse because he is familiar with the vocabulary of the discourse and he will easily understand everything. This happens only because of individual's response disposition.

(6) Interest:

Selection of stimuli available in the environment is influenced by the interest of the perceiver. For example, a plastic surgeon and not a lecturer, will get attracted towards an individual having an unusual nose. Similarly a lecturer will get attracted to the wrong pronunciation of words during the course of a lecture and not a plastic surgeon. This happens

only because of a special interest of the individual in a particular thing. A plastic surgeon rectifies the unusual looks or deformities of limbs. Therefore, he gets attracted to them. On the other hand, a lecturer's job is teaching and, therefore, he gets attracted towards the person pronouncing words wrongly.

(7) Learning: Some learned experience influences the perception of an individual. On the basis of learned experience whatever a person expects to see or hear, he sees or hears the same. The attraction of a person towards some stimuli depends on his learned experience. If we talk in the context of organisation, the learned experience of an employee influences his perception. For example, the decision making by an employee is affected by his specialisation.

INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTION

Perception is defined as process of one's ultimate experience of the world and involves further processing of sensory input. Sensation and perception are virtually impossible to separate, because they are part of one continuous process. Perception in human processes sensory stimulation and translates into organized experience. The world is full of stimuli that can attract our attention through various senses. Thus we are able to describe systematically the sights, sound, smell and taste that populate our conscious experience. It is a fundamental process in all interpersonal communications. Stimulation, organization, interpretation-evaluation, memory and recall (Devito, 2009). These are the five stages of how we perceive people and the processes that influence our perceptions. In Gestalt's theory, he believed that complex is very important in perception. As we perceive events, the brain actively selects, organizes and integrates sensory information to construct an event. Perception creates faces, melodies, and illusions of raw material of sensation.

The 5 Stages of Perception
1. Stimulation

The world is full of stimuli that can attract our attention through various senses. Thus we are able to describe systematically the sights, sound, smell and taste that populate our conscious experience. Stimulation includes selective attention and selective exposure. Selective attention occurs by anticipating needs (Rooks & Willson, 2000, Devito, 2009). For example, friends may

be talking to you but you were daydreaming. You won't hear what they are saying until they called out your name. Selective exposure occurs by exposing information that will confirm existing beliefs, contributing to objectives and having a state of satisfaction. As we are not able to percept everything that is happening around us simultaneously, we tend to engage in selective perception; perceiving only positive things. For example, after buying a laptop, one's tend to read more online or ask people around us that the product bought is good because we want to tell ourselves that we make the right decision and avoid negative feedback (Devito, 2009).

2. Organization

The capacity to identify and recognize objects and events is crucial for normal perception. Without that capacity, people cannot effectively use their senses. Perception is organized by rules, schemata and scripts. Organized by rules, people perceive things that are physically close together which constitute a unit. People developed schemata from actual experiences as well as vicarious experiences from daily activities or from television, reading or hearsay (Devito , 2009) Some familiarity represented in mind will be some kind of schema. This would help one's perception into number of categories. However, it may cause perception errors as it influences one to perceive non existence things or miss seeing things in presence. A script is a form of schema that focuses on action, event or procedure. It is a process of how we behaved and how we organized it with our own action which is organized by a pattern (Rookes & Willson, 2000; Devito, 2009).

3. Interpretation-Evaluation

In this interpretation-evaluation stage it is two process of stimuli by individual experiences, needs, wants, values, expectations, physical and emotional state, gender and beliefs meaning based on by individual's rules, schemata and scripts. For example meeting a new person who is a doctor, one tends to view this person as someone serious, successful, health conscious, academically strong. In other words, evaluating individuals depends on one's own script as to the way individual behave and perform the action which may be appropriate or inappropriate (Devito, 2009).

4. Memory

After undergoing the stages of stimulation, organization and interpretation-evaluation, this leads us to another stage called memory. It is a storage of both perception and interpretation-evaluation that are kept according to scripts and schemas. Events or experiences is not the objective of recollection but is more likely heavily influenced by individuals preconceptions and individuals schemata (Russell, 1976).

5. Recall

Individuals want to recall certain information that are stored in the memory. Recall stage reconstruct that what individual heard in a way are meaningful. Recall information are consistent with schemas. However failure to do so, it is inconsistent with schemas. Recall information drastically contradicts one's schema because it forces individual to think or even rethink (Devito,2009).

Reducing Uncertainty in Perception

Uncertainties in perception have many causes. Individuals do not make themselves thinking the best way to defend their own interpersonal processes. Individuals analyzed their own logical and critical thinking through their own emotional and physiological state to influence the depth meaning of their own perceptions. For better understanding of perception, they have to reduce the uncertainties to achieve greater accuracy in perception. There are various ways to reduce uncertainties. For example, having an informal social activity people are more likely to reveal their true selves or they have the tendency to monitor their behavior less than a formal activity. Through this, we can observe people while they interact with others. Through formal or informal activities, people can observe how they act and react, gathering up information. Having fear of people for no appropriate reasons or losing touch of reality would cause harmful to themselves (Berger & Bradac, 1982; Gudykunst, 1994; Devito,2009).

MANAGERIAL APPLICATIONS OF PERCEPTION
EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW

A major input into who is hired and who is rejected in any organization is the employment interview. Evidence indicated that interviewers often make inaccurate perceptual

judgements. Interviews generally draw early impressions that become very quickly entrenched. If negative information is exposed early in the interview, it tends to be more heavily weighted than if that same information comes out later. As a result, information elicited early in the interview carries greater weight than does information elicited later. A "good applicant" is probably characterized more by the absence of unfavourable characteristics than by the presence of favourable characteristics.

The employment interview is an important input into the hiring decision and a manager must recognize that perceptual factors influence who is hired. Therefore, eventually the quality of an organization's labour force depends on the perception of the interviewers.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

An employee's performance appraisal very much depends on the perceptual process. The performance appraisal represents an assessment of an employee's work. While this can be objective, many jobs are evaluated in subjective terms. Subjective measures are, by definition, judgemental.

The evaluator forms a general impression of an employee's work. What the evaluator perceives to be "good" or "bad" employee characteristics will, significantly influence the appraisal outcome. An employee's future is closely tied to his or her appraisal -promotions, pay raises and continuation of employment are among the most obvious outcomes.

PERFORMANCE EXPECTATIONS

A manager's expectations of an individual affect both the manager's behaviour towards the individual and the individual's response. An impressive amount of evidence demonstrates that people will attempt to validate their perceptions of reality, even when these perceptions are faulty. This is particularly relevant when we consider performance expectations on the job.

The term self-fulfilling prophecy or Pygmalion effect has evolved to characterize the fact that people's expectations determine their behaviour. Managers can harness the power of the Pygmalion effect to improve productivity in the organization. It appears that high expectations of

individuals come true. Managers can extend these high expectations of individuals to an entire group. When a manager expects positive things from a group, the group delivers. Similarly, if a manager expects people to perform minimally, they will tend to behave so as to meet these low expectations. Thus, the expectations become reality.

EMPLOYEE LOYALTY

Another important judgement that managers make about employees is whether they are loyal to the organization. Few organizations appreciate employees, especially those in the managerial ranks openly disparaging the firm.

BEHAVIOURAL APPLICATIONS OF PERCEPTION

Individual does not always perceive the events freely from the environment. She/ He selects the stimuli from the environment which can satisfy her/his needs, desires and expectations because of the dominance of needs in individual. Individual selects the stimuli on the basis of certain guidelines which are termed as principles of perceptual selection. Here, each principle is not significant alone in making perception.

Basic principles of perceptual selection are discussed below:

Principle of Intensity

According to intensity principle of perceptual selection, the more intense the external stimulus, the more likely it is to be perceived. Loud sound, dark color, strong smell, bold and italic letters etc. are perceived more easily and quickly in comparison to the soft sound, light color, soft smell. This principle is used frequently in advertisement like bright color in packaging, loud sound in television commercials. Supervisors sought loudly to get attention.

Principle of size

The size principle of perceptual selection states that the larger size of stimulus, the more likely it is to be perceived. This means that the stimulus with larger size is easily perceived than the stimulus having small size. Normally, supervisors and managers with large body size can command more strictly to their subordinates because of positive perception of subordinates towards them. Large billboards are used in advertisement to draw the attention of perceivers. Full page advertisement gets more attention of readers.

Principle of contrast

Contrast stands for dissimilarity or uniqueness against all other stimulus or objects standing out. This principle states that the stimulus which is different or unique in comparison to the nearby and common objects, that will be perceived easily and quickly. For example, person wearing different color dress in a group can perceive the attention. Employees with different sound or vision are perceived quickly. Likewise the word DANGER written with red letter on white background draws quick attention. Cricketers wear different color sun glasses to get attention.

Principle of Novelty and Familiarity

Novelty is newness and familiarity is commonness or known to the perceiver. This principle states that perceiver perceive easily and quickly to novel (new) or familiar stimulus depending upon circumstances. For instance, new person in locality draws more attention while familiar face can easily be recognized. New design of vehicle or machine or dress can be perceived fast.

Principle of repetition

Repetition or frequency plays vital role to select the perception. Highly repeated stimulus gets more attention than none repeating or single one. For example, producers or suppliers repeat advertising materials to their prospect customers to get attention. Supervisors and managers give directions again and again to their subordinates so that they can remember. Refreshment trainings are given to employee to refresh the knowledge or skill of employees.

Principle of Motion

This principle states that the moving objects draw more attention than the stationary objects. For instance, advertisement of a car or motorcycle uses the running (moving) state to attract perceivers. Likewise, trainers, teachers and supervisors keep on moving while instructing or observing their trainees, students and subordinates so that perceiver gets more attention in moving.

Principle of learning, motivation and personality

This principle states that individual perceive the stimulus which are compatible to their learning, motivation and personality. Learning creates certain expectancy so that individual perceive in certain manner. Motivation itself helps to draw attention towards stimulus and the personality affects the way of perceiving the stimulus.

Importance of Perception:

(i) Perception is very important in understanding the human behaviour, because every person perceives the world and approaches the life problems differently- Whatever we see or feel is not necessarily the same as it really is. It is because what we hear is not what is really said, but what we perceive as being said. When we buy something, it is not because it is the best, but because we take it to be the best. Thus, it is because of perception, we can find out why one individual finds a job satisfying while another one may not be satisfied with it.

(ii) If people behave on the basis of their perception, we can predict their behaviour 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.

(iii) With the help of perception, the needs of various people can be determined, because people's perception is influenced by their needs. Like the mirrors at an amusement park, they distort the world in relation to their tensions.

(iv) 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.

Thus, for understanding the human behaviour, it is very important to understand their perception, that is, how they perceive the different situations. People's behaviour is based on their perceptions of what reality is, not on reality itself. The world as it is perceived is the world that is important for understanding the human behaviour.

Perception not only creates our experience of the world around us; it allows us to act within our environment. Perception is very important in understanding human behavior because every person perceives the world and approaches life problems differently.

UNIT-II

COURSE CONTENT:

Learning: concept-nature-components of learning process -factors affecting learning reinforcement-concept -nature- Maslows need Hierarchy theory-Herzberbergs motivation Theory McGregor's theory X and Y -incentives - important elements of a sound motivational system Attitude: concept of attitude-attitudes and behaviour-factors in attitude formation.

UNIT - II

LEARNING

CONCEPT :

Learning is a process by which new behaviors are acquired. It is generally agreed that learning involves changes in behavior, practicing new behaviors and establishing permanency in the change. Learning is any permanent change in behavior of a person that occurs as result of experience. Learning has taken place if an individual behaves, reacts, respondents as a result of experience in a manner different from the way he formerly behaved. Since learning changes the behaviour of person, it comes to have a great importance in organisational behaviour.

If we compare the simple, crude ways of feeling and behaving in a child to the complex ways of behaving in an adult, his skills, habits, thoughts, feelings and so on- we will know what difference learning has made in the individual.

According to Ambrose :

- Learning is a process, not a product

- Learning is a change in knowledge, beliefs, behaviours or attitudes

There have been several attempts to describe the different areas of learning. The traditional distinction has been between learning knowledge and learning skills; but others have elaborated on this. Several point to the need to include attitudes as a third area. In the field of learning objectives, knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSA) is a well-worn path Kurst Lewin (1935) suggested.

Learning changes occur

- in skills,

- in cognitive patterns (knowledge and understanding),

- in motivation and interest, and

- in ideology (fundamental beliefs)

Robert M. Gagné (1972) identified the following five domains or types of learning outcomes: motor skills which require practice,

verbal information - facts, principles and generalizations which when organized into larger entities become knowledge,

intellectual skills - the discriminations, concepts and rules that help in using knowledge,

cognitive strategies - the way the individuals learns, remembers and thinks,

self-managed skills needed to define and solve problems, and attitudes .

Learning is the process by which an individual acquires knowledge, attitudes and skills that are necessary to meet the demands of life. While touching a burning candle, a child gets burnt and he withdraws the fingers. When he faces a similar situation again he withdraws his fingers faster. Gradually he learns to avoid not only the burning candle but also other burning things. The behaviour of an individual is thus changed through experiences. This change in behaviour brought about by experiences is commonly known as learning.

Thus, Learning means change in behaviour or behaviour potential that occurs as a result of experience. Learning can result from both vicarious and direct experiences. Vicarious means observing someone and learning from that observation and not being directly involved in the experience. For example, a child learns how to clap hands by seeing someone else doing it. Learning also takes place through direct experiences. For example, a child learns to write by practicing writing. A child normally learns from his parents, teachers and the environment. Learning can be defined as a permanent change in behaviour due to direct and indirect experience. It means change in behaviour, attitude, practice and experience due to education and training. This is accomplished by the acquisition of knowledge and skills, which are relatively permanent.

There are two primary elements to the meaning of learning in Organisational Behaviour:

The change must be relatively permanent: this means that our behaviour after "learning" must be better or worse than our behaviour before this learning experience. This comes after some kind of experience and practise. For example, you learn to drive a car or use a computer.

This learning is caused by biological maturation. For example, we do not learn to eat or drink, it is a natural biological phenomenon.

Definitions of Learning:

1. Gardener Murphy: "The term learning covers every modification in behaviour to meet environmental requirements."

2. Henry P. Smith: "Learning is the acquisition of new behaviour or the strengthening or weakening of old behaviour as the result of experience."

3. Crow & crow: "Learning is the acquisition of habits, knowledge and attitudes. It involves new ways of doing things and it operates in individuals attempts to overcome obstacles or to adjust to new situations. It represents progressive changes in behaviour. It enables him to satisfy interests to attain goals.

4. Stephen P. Robbins: – Learning is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience.

5. Munn N.L.: – Learning is the process of having one's behaviour modified, more or less permanently, by what he does and the consequences of his action, or by what he observes.

6. Steers and Porter: – Learning can be defined as relatively permanent change in behaviour potentially that results from reinforced practice or experience.

NATURE OF LEARNING

1. Learning is Universal. Every creature that lives learns. Man learns most. The human nervous system is very complex, so are human reactions and so are human acquisition. Positive learning is vital for children's growth and development.

2. Learning is through Experience. Learning always involves some kind of experience, direct or indirect (vicarious).

3. Learning is from all Sides: Today learning is from all sides. Children learn from parents, teachers, environment, nature, media etc.

4. Learning is Continuous. It denotes the lifelong nature of learning. Every day new situations are faced and the individual has to bring essential changes in his style of behaviour to be adopted to tackle them. Learning is birth to death.

5. It results in Change in Behaviour. It is a change of behaviour influenced by previous behaviour. It is any activity that leaves a more or less permanent effect on later activity.

6. Learning is an Adjustment. Learning helps the individual to adjust himself adequately to the new situations. Most learning in children consists in modifying, adapting, and developing their original nature. In later life the individuals acquire new forms of behaviour.

7. It comes about as a result of practice. It is the basis of drill and practice. It has been proven that students learn best and retain information longer when they have meaningful practice and repetition. Every time practice occurs, learning continues.

8. Learning is a relatively Permanent Change. Learning is what is permanent. If after getting training to work it is forgotten it cannot be called learning. It will be called learning only when the information or knowledge obtained through training is brought into use for a long time. A change happening only for a short time does not fall in the category of learning.

9. Repetition is a Must in learning: A thing learnt once has got to be repeated time and again in order to make it permanent. If it is not done, the acquired learning gets destroyed. In an organisation in order to help the acquired learning getting permanent some sort of reward can be instituted, e.g., the employees can be told if they give better results with the help of their new learning they will be rewarded. The desire to get rewarded will help the employees to repeatedly utilize their newly acquired learning.

10. Learning as Growth and Development. It is never ending growth and development. At reach stage the learner acquires new visions of his future growth and news ideals of achievement in the direction of his effort. According to Woodworth, "All activity can be called learning so far as it develops the individual."

11. Learning is not directly observable. The only way to study learning is through some observable behaviour. Actually, we cannot observe learning; we see only what precedes performance, the performance itself, and the consequences of performance.

12. Learning is an Intangible Activity Learning is an activity which is not visible but can only be felt in the behaviour of an individual. Therefore, learning is not a tangible object. Suppose a person has learnt the art of teaching. Learning of teaching by him cannot be seen but it can be felt while he is teaching.

COMPONENTS OF LEARNING

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

   Drive: Learning frequently occurs in the presence of drive – any strong stimulus that impels action. Drives are basically of two types -primary (or physiological); and secondary (or

psychological). These two categories of drives often interact with each other. Individuals operate under many drives at the same time. To predict a behavior, it is necessary to establish which drives are stimulating the most.

Cue Stimuli: Cue stimuli are those factors that exist in the environment as perceived by the individual. The idea is to discover the conditions under which stimulus will increase the probability of eliciting a specific response. There may be two types of stimuli with respect to their results in terms of response concerned: stimulus generalization and stimulus discrimination.

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

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

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

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

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

FACTORS AFFECTING THE LEARNING PROCESS

Some of the important factors which may affect the learning process are as follows:

1. Mental factors:

Attitude falls under mental factors attitudes are made up of organic and kinaesthetic elements. They are not to be confused with emotions that are characterized by internal visceral disturbances. Attitudes are more or less of definite sort. They play a large part in the mental organization and general behaviour of the individual.

Attitudes are also important in the development of personality. Among these attitudes aw interest, cheerfulness, affection, prejudice, -open mindedness, and loyalty. Attitudes exercise a stimulating effect upon the rate of learning and teaching and upon the progress in school.

The efficiency of the work from day to day and the rapidity with which it is achieved are influenced by the attitude of the learner. A favorable mental attitude facilitates learning. The factor of interest is very closely related in nature to that of symbolic drive and reward.

2. Emotional and social factors:

Personal factors, such as instincts and emotions, and social factors, such as cooperation and rivalry, are directly related to a complex psychology of motivation. It is a recognized fact that the various responses of the individual to various kinds of stimuli are determined by a wide variety of tendencies. Some of these innate tendencies are constructive and others are harmful. Unwholesome attitude affects the learning process to a considerable degree.

3) Sensation and Perception:

Learning is affected by two primary psychological factors i.e., sensation & perception. The sensation is the basis of perception. Human beings have 5 sense organs i.e., ears, tongue, skin, eyes and nose. These sense organs act as the receptors of human understanding. They usually help in the understanding of stimuli received from the environment. The malfunctioning

of any of these organs will surely have an overall effect on learning and eventually act as a barrier to the increase of a person's knowledge. For example, there are many defects of eyesight such as hypermetropia, astigmatism, myopia, etc., which have a considerable effect on the human body and result in redness of eyes, pain in the spinal cord, doubt and stress while studying, tension, headache, etc.

4) Fatigue and Boredom:

Fatigue is a mental or physical form of tiredness, but it has its effect on the overall efficiency and competency of work, whereas, boredom is a demotivation or deep disliking or hatred towards work. If such disliking keeps on arising in the person's mind, the person might have a feeling of weariness or fatigue, but in reality, he may not be so tired. A person is more irritated by boredom as compared to fatigue.

5) Age and Maturation:

Age and adulthood have an exceptional impact on the process of learning. If the person is not in the right frame of mind or lacks intelligence, the learning will not happen at all. Some learners can infuse information quickly into their minds while others might take time to learn the same. Chronological age and mental age increase together, and when the person reaches the age of sixteen, it discontinues to develop further. So, intellectual adulthood is an increase in age, through which a person can apply the mind to solve difficult problems or tasks.

6) Emotional Conditions:

The speed and quality of the learning process can be increased when the responsive surroundings concerning to them are favourable. Satisfaction, happiness, and joy are important for any type of learning, while adverse emotional conditions work as a barrier to the process of learning. Many types of researches have been done and it is a well-established fact that psychological disorders such as emotional anxiety, exertion, pressures, hindrances, etc., are not at all suitable for pursuing any approach that is theoretical in nature.

7) Needs:

All human beings have different kinds of needs. The accomplishment of these needs results in the achievement of some purposes of life. After the ambitions are accomplished, the specific need is satisfied for a short time. Ultimately, an urge comes out from inside, and these tendencies occur again sooner or later and pave the way for further activities to get fulfilled. There are some physiological needs in human beings such as the need for food, oxygen, air, shelter, water, etc. Some needs may be collective such as acceptance, love, recognition and self-interest, etc. The collective needs are entirely distinguishable from the physiological needs. Social needs normally come up after the fulfilment of physiological needs. These needs normally have a complex structure and can have a far-reaching impact on the individual's behaviour. The needs such as security, love, affection, and self-esteem, act as powerful physiological needs in the means of learning.

8) Interests:

An interest is a person's reason for choosing specific behaviour from among several alternatives. Activities in which the learner is interested will promote the process of learning.

8) Attitude:

The mental approach of the learner plays an important role and has a notable impact on the learning process. If the learner is enthusiastically prepared, possesses attention and interest towards the matter, which he ought to learn; the learner will certainly have a positive attitude about it. This attitude will allow the learner to control the learning process thoroughly, with a relaxing state of mind and with a lot of efficiencies.

CONCEPT OF REINFORCEMENT

Reinforcement is the attempt to develop or strengthen desirable behaviour. There are two types of reinforcement in organizational behaviour: positive and negative.

Positive reinforcement strengthens and enhances behaviour by the presentation of positive reinforce. There are primary reinforce and secondary reinforce. Primary reinforce satisfy

basic biological needs and include food and water. However, primary reinforce do not always reinforce. For instance, food may not be a reinforce to someone who has just completed a five course meal. Most **behaviours in organizations** are influenced by secondary reinforce. These include such benefits as money, status, grades, trophies and praise from others. These include such benefits as money, status, grades, trophies and praise from others. These become positive reinforce because of their associations with the primary reinforce and hence are often called conditioned reinforce.

It should be noted that an event that functions as a positive reinforce at one time or in one context may have a different effect at another time or in another place. For example, food may serve as a positive reinforce for a person who is hungry, but not when the person, as stated above, has already a large meal. Clearly, a stimulus that functions as a positive reinforce for one person may fail to operate in a similar manner for another person.

Within itself, positive reinforcement has several principles.

- The principle of contingent reinforcement states that the reinforce must be administered only if the desired behaviour has occurred. A reinforce administered when the desired behaviour has not been performed becomes ineffective.
- The principle of immediate reinforcement states that the reinforce will be most effective if administered immediately after the desired behaviour has occurred. The more time that elapses after the behaviour occurs, the less effective the reinforce will be.
- The principle of reinforcement size stated that the larger the amount of reinforcement delivered after the desired behaviour, the more effect the reinforce will have on the frequency of the desired behavior. The amount or size of reinforce is relative. A reinforce that may be insignificant to one person may be significant to another person. Thus, the size of the reinforce must be determined in relation both to the behaviour and the individual.
- The principle of reinforcement deprivation states that the more a person is deprived of the reinforce, the greater effect it will have on the future occurrence of the desired behaviour. However, if an individual recently has had enough of a reinforce and is satisfied the reinforce will have less effect.

In **negative reinforcement**, an unpleasant event that precedes a behavior is removed when the desired behavior occurs. This procedure increases the likelihood that the desired behavior will occur. Just as there are positive reinforcers, there are the stimuli that strengthen responses that permit an organism to avoid or escape from their presence. When we perform an action that allows us to escape from a negative reinforcer that is already present or to avoid the threatened application of one, our tendency to perform this action in the future increases. Some negative reinforcers such as intense heat, extreme cold, or electric shock, exert their effects the first time they are encountered, whereas others acquire their impact through repeated association.

We see negative reinforcement in organizations and in personal life. Supervisors apply negative reinforcement when they stop criticizing employees whose poor performance has improved. By withholding the criticism, employees are more likely to repeat behaviors that enhance their performance. Negative reinforcement also occurs when parents give in to their children's tantrums- especially in public places, such as restaurants and shopping malls. Over time, the parent's tendency to give in may increase, because doing so stops screaming.

Thus, both positive and negative reinforcement are procedures that strengthen or increase behavior. Positive reinforcement strengthens and increase behavior by the presentation of desirable consequences. Negative reinforcement strengthens and increases behavior by the threat of and the use of an undesirable consequence or the termination or withdrawal of an undesirable consequence.

Negative reinforcement is sometimes confused with punishment, because both use unpleasant stimuli to influence behavior. However, negative reinforcement is used to increase the frequency of a desired behavior, where as punishment is used to decrease the frequency of an undesired behavior.

SCHEDULES OF REINFORCEMENT

Reinforcement, positive or negative, needs to be properly scheduled. Schedules of reinforcement determine when reinforcers are applied. Psychologists have identified several different schedules of reinforcement. When reinforcement is administered uninterruptedly, it is called continuous reinforcement. Instead, in organizations, reinforcers are administered

following partial reinforcement schedules. Four varieties of partial reinforcement schedules have great relevance to organizations. They are

- **Fixed interval schedule:** It means providing reinforcement on a predetermined, constant schedule. The first desired behavior to occur after the interval has elapsed is reinforced. Eg: monthly pay cheque.
- **Variable interval schedule:** It also uses time as the basis for applying reinforcement, but it varies the intervals between reinforcements.
- **Fixed ratio schedule:** Reinforcement is administered after the desired behaviors occur a specified number of times. Eg: Piece rating.
- **Variable ratio schedule:** In this a certain number of desired behaviors must occur before the reinforcer is delivered, but the number of behaviors varies around some average. This type of reinforcement schedule provokes most interest and is preferred by employees for some tasks. It tends to be the most powerful of all the reinforcement schedules. Slot machines and a number of gambling devices operate on a variable ratio schedule. Most of the time when people put a coin into the slot they lose. But, after some unknown number of plays, the machine will pay off.

Nature of Reinforcement

Reinforcement can be used to teach new skills, teach a replacement behavior for an interfering behavior, increase appropriate behaviors, or increase on-task behaviour.

Reinforcement Increases self-confidence, bolstered by continuous reinforcement, inspires people to do their best work, enabling them to make a dramatic and lasting impact on the organization.

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

Abraham Maslow first introduced the concept of a hierarchy of needs in his 1943 paper titled "A Theory of Human Motivation," and again in his subsequent book, *Motivation and Personality*. This hierarchy suggests that people are motivated to fulfil basic needs before moving on to other, more advanced needs.

While some of the existing schools of thought at the time—such as psychoanalysis and behaviourism—tended to focus on problematic behaviours, Maslow was more interested in learning about what makes people happy and the things they do to achieve that aim.

As a humanist, Maslow believed that people have an inborn desire to be self-actualized, that is, to be all they can be. To achieve this ultimate goal, however, a number of more basic needs must be met. This includes the need for food, safety, love, and self-esteem.

Maslow believed that these needs are similar to instincts and play a major role in motivating behavior. There are five different levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, starting at the lowest level known as physiological needs.

PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS

The physiological needs are fairly apparent and include the needs that are vital to our survival. Some examples of physiological needs include:

- Food
- Water
- Breathing
- Homeostasis

In addition to the basic requirements of nutrition, air, and temperature regulation, physiological needs also include such things as shelter and clothing. Maslow included sexual reproduction in this level of the hierarchy as well since it is essential to the survival and propagation of the species.

SECURITY AND SAFETY NEEDS

As we move up to the second level of Maslow's hierarchy, the needs start to become a bit more complex. At this level, the needs for security and safety become primary.

People want control and order in their lives. So, the need for safety and security contributes largely to behaviors at this level. Some of the basic security and safety needs include:

- Financial security

- Health and wellness

- Safety against accidents and injury

Finding a job, obtaining health insurance and health care, contributing money to a savings account, and moving into a safer neighbourhood are all examples of actions motivated by security and safety needs.

SOCIAL NEEDS

The social needs in Maslow's hierarchy include such things as love, acceptance, and belonging. At this level, the need for emotional relationships drives human behavior. Some of the things that satisfy this need include:

- Friendships

- Romantic attachments

- Family

- Social groups

- Community groups

- Churches and religious organizations

In order to avoid problems such as loneliness, depression, and anxiety, it is important for people to feel loved and accepted by others. Personal relationships with friends, family, and lovers play an important role, as involvement in groups—such as religious groups, sports teams, book clubs, and other group activities.

ESTEEM NEEDS

At the fourth level in Maslow's hierarchy is the need for appreciation and respect. Once the needs at the bottom three levels have been satisfied, the esteem needs begin to play a more prominent role in motivating behavior.

At this level, it becomes increasingly important to gain the respect and appreciation of others. People have a need to accomplish things, then have their efforts recognized. In addition to

the need for feelings of accomplishment and prestige, esteem needs include such things as self-esteem and personal worth.

People need to sense that they are valued by others and feel that they are making a contribution to the world. Participation in professional activities, academic accomplishments, athletic or team participation, and personal hobbies can all play a role in fulfilling the esteem needs.

People who are able to satisfy esteem needs by achieving good self-esteem and the recognition of others tend to feel confident in their abilities.[3] Conversely, those who lack self-esteem and the respect of others can develop feelings of inferiority.

SELF-ACTUALIZATION NEEDS

At the very peak of Maslow's hierarchy are the self-actualization needs. Self-actualizing people are self-aware, concerned with personal growth, less concerned with the opinions of others, and interested in fulfilling their potential.

"What a man can be, he must be," Maslow explained, referring to the need people have to achieve their full potential as human beings.

According to Maslow's definition of self-actualization, "It may be loosely described as the full use and exploitation of talents, capabilities, potentialities, etc. Such people seem to be fulfilling themselves and to be doing the best that they are capable of doing. They are people who have developed or are developing to the full stature of which they capable."

Different Types of Needs

Different Types of Needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs can be separated into two types of needs: deficiency needs and growth needs.

- **Deficiency needs**: Physiological, security, social, and esteem needs are deficiency needs, which arise due to deprivation. Satisfying these lower-level needs is important to avoid unpleasant feelings or consequences.

- **Growth needs**: Maslow termed the highest level of the pyramid as growth needs. These needs don't stem from a lack of something, but rather from a desire to grow as a person.

While the theory is generally portrayed as a fairly rigid hierarchy, Maslow noted that the order in which these needs are fulfilled does not always follow this standard progression.

For example, he noted that for some individuals, the need for self-esteem is more important than the need for love. For others, the need for creative fulfilment may supersede even the most basic needs.

Criticisms of Maslow's Theory

Maslow's theory has become wildly popular both in and out of psychology. The fields of education and business have been particularly influenced by the theory.

While popular, Maslow's concept has not been without criticism. Chief among the long-held complaints are:

- **Needs don't follow a hierarchy**: While some research has shown support for Maslow's theories, most of the research has not been able to substantiate the idea of a needs hierarchy. Wahba and Bridwell (researchers from Baruch College) reported that there was little evidence for Maslow's ranking of these needs and even less evidence that these needs are in a hierarchical order.
- **The theory is difficult to test**: Other criticisms of Maslow's theory note that his definition of self-actualization is difficult to test scientifically. His research on self-actualization was also based on a very limited sample of individuals, including people he knew as well as biographies of famous individuals who Maslow believed to be self-actualized.

Some of the more recent critiques suggest that Maslow was inspired by the belief systems of the Blackfoot nation, with several lectures given by tribal members theoretically connected with his pyramid of needs, and resulted in misattributions.

Others add to this critique by indicating that Maslow's original study of the Northern Blackfoot tribe was conducted as an anthropologist. However, this foundational basis disappeared over time, causing him to misuse the concepts he was originally there to assess.

Impact of Maslow's Hierarchy

Regardless of these criticisms, Maslow's hierarchy of needs represents part of an important shift in psychology. Rather than focusing on abnormal behavior and development, Maslow's humanistic psychology was focused on the development of healthy individuals.

There has been relatively little research supporting Maslow's theory, yet the hierarchy of needs is well-known and popular both in and out of psychology. And in a study published in 2011, researchers from the University of Illinois set out to put this hierarchy to the test.[9]

What they discovered is that, while the fulfillment of the needs was strongly correlated with happiness, people from cultures all over the world reported that self-actualization and social needs were important even when many of the most basic needs were unfulfilled.

Such results suggest that while these needs can be powerful motivators of human behavior, they do not necessarily take the hierarchical form that Maslow described.

HERZBERG'S THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Herzberg's motivation theory is one of the content theories of motivation. These attempt to explain the factors that motivate individuals through identifying and satisfying their individual needs, desires and the aims pursued to satisfy these desires.

This theory of motivation is known as a two factor content theory. It is based upon the deceptively simple idea that motivation can be dichotomised into hygiene factors and motivation factors and is often referred to as a 'two need system'.

These two separate 'needs' are the need to avoid unpleasantness and discomfort and, at the other end of the motivational scale, the need for personal development. A shortage of the factors that positively encourage employees (the motivating factors) will cause employees to focus on other, non-job related 'hygiene' factors.

The most important part of this theory of motivation is that the main motivating factors are not in environment but in the intrinsic value and satisfaction gained from the job itself. It follows therefore that to motivate an individual, a job itself must be challenging, have scope for enrichment and be of interest to the jobholder.

Motivators (sometimes called 'satisfiers') are those factors directly concerned with the satisfaction gained from a job, such as:

- the sense of achievement and the intrinsic value obtained from the job itself
- the level of recognition by both colleagues and management
- the level of responsibility
- opportunities for advancement and
- the status provided

Motivators lead to satisfaction because of the need for growth and a sense of self-achievement.

A lack of motivators leads to over-concentration on hygiene factors, which are those negative factors which can be seen and therefore form the basis of complaint and concern. Hygiene factors (often referred to as maintenance factors) lead to dissatisfaction with a job because of the need to avoid unpleasantness.

They are referred to as hygiene factors because they can be avoided or prevented by the use of 'hygienic' methods. The important fact to remember is that attention to these hygiene factors prevents dissatisfaction but does not necessarily provide positive motivation.

Hygiene factors are also often referred to as 'dissatisfiers'. They are concerned with factors associated with the job itself but are not directly a part of it. Typically, this is salary, although other factors which will often act as dissatisfiers include:

- perceived differences with others
- job security
- working conditions
- the quality of management
- organisational policy
- administration
- interpersonal relations

Understanding Herzberg's theory recognises the intrinsic satisfaction that can be obtained from the work itself. It draws attention to job design and makes managers aware that problems of motivation may not necessarily be directly associated with the work. Problems can often be external to the job.

IMPROVED MOTIVATION

Managers' understanding that factors which demotivate can often be related to matters other than the work itself, can lead to improved motivation, greater job satisfaction and improved organisational performance by the entire workforce.

Understanding individual goals, coupled with wider skills and abilities, can lead to greater opportunities. Individuals are seen as valuable to organisations and can acquire new skills useful in the future.

Improving skills, opportunities and increasing employee knowledge will, in the longer term, increase the value of an organisation's human assets. Most importantly, it can lead to greater staff commitment, understanding and loyalty.

MCGREGOR'S THEORY X AND THEORY Y

The idea that a manager's attitude has an impact on employee motivation was originally proposed by **Douglas McGregor**, a management professor at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology during the 1950s and 1960s. In his 1960 book, The Human Side of Enterprise, McGregor proposed two theories by which managers perceive and address employee motivation. He referred to these opposing motivational methods as Theory X and Theory Y management. Each assumes that the manager's role is to organize resources, including people, to best benefit the company. However, beyond this commonality, the attitudes and assumptions they embody are quite different.

Theory X

According to McGregor, Theory X management assumes the following:

- Work is inherently distasteful to most people, and they will attempt to avoid work whenever possible.

- Most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility, and prefer to be directed.

- Most people have little aptitude for creativity in solving organizational problems.

- Motivation occurs only at the physiological and security levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

- Most people are self-centered. As a result, they must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organizational objectives.

- Most people resist change.

- Most people are gullible and unintelligent.

Essentially, Theory X assumes that the primary source of employee motivation is monetary, with security as a strong second. Under Theory X, one can take a hard or soft approach to getting results.

The hard approach to motivation relies on coercion, implicit threats, micromanagement, and tight controls— essentially an environment of command and control. The soft approach, however, is to be permissive and seek harmony in the hopes that, in return, employees will cooperate when asked. However, neither of these extremes is optimal. The hard approach results in hostility, purposely low output, and extreme union demands. The soft approach results in a growing desire for greater reward in exchange for diminished work output.

It might seem that the optimal approach to human resource management would lie somewhere between these extremes. However, McGregor asserts that neither approach is appropriate, since the basic assumptions of Theory X are incorrect.

Drawing on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McGregor argues that a need, once satisfied, no longer motivates. The company uses monetary rewards and benefits to satisfy employees' lower-level needs. Once those needs have been satisfied, the motivation disappears. Theory X management hinders the satisfaction of higher-level needs because it doesn't acknowledge that those needs are relevant in the workplace. As a result, the only way that employees can attempt to meet higher-level needs at work is to seek more compensation, so, predictably, they focus on monetary rewards. While money may not be the most effective way to self-fulfilment, it may be the only way available. People will use work to satisfy their lower needs and seek to satisfy their higher needs during their leisure time. However, employees can be most productive when their work goals align with their higher-level needs.

McGregor makes the point that a command-and-control environment is not effective because it relies on lower needs for motivation, but in modern society those needs are mostly satisfied and thus are no longer motivating. In this situation, one would expect employees to dislike their work, avoid responsibility, have no interest in organizational goals, resist change, etc.—creating, in effect, a self-fulfilling prophecy. To McGregor, a steady supply of motivation seemed more likely to occur under Theory Y management.

Theory Y

The higher-level needs of esteem and self-actualization are ongoing needs that, for most people, are never completely satisfied. As such, it is these higher-level needs through which employees can best be motivated.

In strong contrast to Theory X, Theory Y management makes the following assumptions:

- Work can be as natural as play if the conditions are favorable.

- People will be self-directed and creative to meet their work and organizational objectives if they are committed to them.

- People will be committed to their quality and productivity objectives if rewards are in place that addresses higher needs such as self-fulfillment.

- The capacity for creativity spreads throughout organizations.

- Most people can handle responsibility because creativity and ingenuity are common in the population.

- Under these conditions, people will seek responsibility.

Under these assumptions, there is an opportunity to align personal goals with organizational goals by using the employee's own need for fulfilment as the motivator. McGregor stressed that Theory Y management does not imply a soft approach.

McGregor recognized that some people may not have reached the level of maturity assumed by Theory Y and may initially need tighter controls that can be relaxed as the employee develops.

If Theory Y holds true, an organization can apply the following principles of scientific management to improve employee motivation:

- **Decentralization and delegation**: If firms decentralize control and reduce the number of levels of management, managers will have more subordinates and consequently need to delegate some responsibility and decision making to them.
- **Job enlargement**: Broadening the scope of an employee's job adds variety and opportunities to satisfy ego needs.
- **Participative management**: Consulting employees in the decision-making process taps their creative capacity and provides them with some control over their work environment.
- **Performance appraisals**: Having the employee set objectives and participate in the process of self-evaluation increases engagement and dedication.

If properly implemented, such an environment can increase and continually fuel motivation as employees work to satisfy their higher-level personal needs through their jobs.

SOUND MOTIVATIONAL SYSTEM

A sound system of motivation should have the following essential features.

1. A sound motivation system should satisfy the needs and objectives of both organization and employees.
2. Motivational system should change with the changes in the situation.
3. Jobs should be designed in such a way as to provide challenge and variety.
4. Managers should recruit the active co-operation of subordinates in improving the organization's output. Subordinates should be made to realize that they are stakeholders in the organization.
5. The motivational system should satisfy the different needs of employees. It should be directly related to the efforts of the employers.
6. The motivational system should be simple so that it is easily understood by the workers.

INCENTIVES

Incentive is an act or promise for greater action. It is also called as a stimulus to greater action. Incentives are something which are given in addition to wagers. It means additional remuneration or benefit to an employee in recognition of achievement or better work. Incentives provide a spur or zeal in the employees for better performance. It is a natural thing that nobody acts without a purpose behind. Therefore, a hope for a reward is a powerful incentive to motivate employees. Besides monetary incentive, there are some other stimuli which can drive a person to better. This will include job satisfaction, job security, job promotion, and pride for accomplishment. Therefore, incentives really can sometimes work to accomplish the goals of a concern.

The need of incentives can be many:-

1. To increase productivity,
2. To drive or arouse a stimulus work,
3. To enhance commitment in work performance,
4. To psychologically satisfy a person which leads to job satisfaction,
5. To shape the behavior or outlook of subordinate towards work,
6. To inculcate zeal and enthusiasm towards work,
7. To get the maximum of their capabilities so that they are exploited and utilized maximally.

Therefore, management has to offer the following two categories of incentives to motivate employees:

1. **Monetary incentives**- Those incentives which satisfy the subordinates by providing them rewards in terms of rupees. Money has been recognized as a chief source of satisfying the needs of people. Money is also helpful to satisfy the social needs by possessing various material items. Therefore, money not only satisfies psychological needs but also the security and social needs. Therefore, in many factories, various wage plans and bonus schemes are introduced to motivate and stimulate the people to work.

2. **Non-monetary incentives-** Besides the monetary incentives, there are certain non-financial incentives which can satisfy the ego and self- actualization needs of employees. The incentives which cannot be measured in terms of money are under the category of "Non- monetary incentives". Whenever a manager has to satisfy the psychological needs of the subordinates, he makes use of non-financial incentives. Non- financial incentives can be of the following types:-

    a. **Security of service**- Job security is an incentive which provides great motivation to employees. If his job is secured, he will put maximum efforts to achieve the objectives of the enterprise. This also helps since he is very far off from mental tension and he can give his best to the enterprise.

    b. **Praise or recognition**- The praise or recognition is another non- financial incentive which satisfies the ego needs of the employees. Sometimes praise becomes more effective than any other incentive. The employees will respond more to praise and try to give the best of their abilities to a concern.

    c. **Suggestion scheme**- The organization should look forward to taking suggestions and inviting suggestion schemes from the subordinates. This inculcates a spirit of participation in the employees. This can be done by publishing various articles written by employees to improve the work environment which can be published in various magazines of the company. This also is helpful to motivate the employees to feel important and they can also be in search for innovative methods which can be applied for better work methods. This ultimately helps in growing a concern and adapting new methods of operations.

    d. **Job enrichment**- Job enrichment is another non- monetary incentive in which the job of a worker can be enriched. This can be done by increasing his responsibilities, giving him an important designation, increasing the content and nature of the work. This way efficient worker can get challenging jobs in which they can prove their worth. This also helps in the greatest motivation of the efficient employees.

    e. **Promotion opportunities**- Promotion is an effective tool to increase the spirit to work in a concern. If the employees are provided opportunities for the

advancement and growth, they feel satisfied and contented and they become more committed to the organization.

The above non-financial tools can be framed effectively by giving due concentration to the role of employees. A combination of financial and non- financial incentives help together in bringing motivation and zeal to work in a concern.

Positive Incentives

Positive incentives are those incentives which provide a positive assurance for fulfilling the needs and wants. Positive incentives generally have an optimistic attitude behind and they are generally given to satisfy the psychological requirements of employees. For example-promotion, praise, recognition, perks and allowances, etc. It is positive by nature.

Negative Incentives

Negative incentives are those whose purpose is to correct the mistakes or defaults of employees. The purpose is to rectify mistakes in order to get effective results. Negative incentive is generally resorted to when positive incentive does not works and a psychological set back has to be given to employees. It is negative by nature. For example- demotion, transfer, fines, penalties.

ATTITUDE

MEANING

Attitude is an individual's characteristic way of responding consistently in a favourable or unfavourable manner to objects, people, or events in his environment. It is based on the individual's experience and his interpretation of it and leads to certain behaviours or opinions.

Attitude reflects how an individual feels about something. Attitude provides a predetermined set of responses, so that a person's behaviour or opinions can often be forecast in specific circumstances. Attitudes reflect settled behaviour and settled mode of thinking as well as feeling.

Attitudes can be defined variously as readiness to act; mental postures, guide for conduct, feelings, desires, fears, convictions, a state of readiness! a cumulative perception; a tendency to

act for or against an object in the environment; frames of reference that influence behaviour; and so on.

ATTITUDE – DEFINITION

A layman may describe an attitude as the way people feel about something. Attitudes form an important foundation of individual behaviour in organization. Quite often people say things like "I don't like her attitude" or "Our staff people have a poor attitude". Therefore, systematic knowledge of attitudes greatly contributes to an understanding of the reactions of people. It helps in describing people and explaining their behaviour.

Attitudes may be defined in two ways conceptual and operational. Even there is a quite difference in the conceptual definition of the term attitude. The term attitude first entered in the field of social phenomenon, it was natural to conceive of attitude as a tendency, set, or readiness to respond to some social objects.

Some authors define attitude as a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related. From this point of view, attitude implies a heightened responsiveness to certain stimuli. Many researchers have defined attitude in terms of effect and evaluation.

For example, Krech and Crutchfield define attitude as an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual, and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual's world. Thus, attitudes are beliefs imbued with emotional and motivational properties and are expressed in a person's favourability towards an object.

The evaluative nature of attitude is also emphasized by Katz and Scotland when they define attitude as a tendency or predisposition to evaluate an object or symbol of that object in a certain way. Evaluation consists of attributing goodness-badness or desirable-undesirable qualities to an object.

In addition to conceptual approach, there is operational approach in defining the term attitude. The concept of attitude is operationalized in a number of ways; but in most cases,

studies rely on some kind of questionnaire to measure attitudes. Taking attitudes from this point of view, only evaluative aspect of attitudes has been taken into account.

For example, Fishbein has noted that most measures of attitudes tap an underlying dimension of favourability-unfavourability and, therefore, attitudes should be regarded as synonymous with evaluating meaning. Thus, in practice, the term attitude often is used in a generic sense to any reports of what people think or feel or the ways in which they intend to acts.

CHARACTERISTICS OF ATTITUDE

Attitudes are predispositions

Attitudes are predispositions of purpose, interest or opinion of the person to assess some objects in a favourable or an unfavourable manner.

Attitudes are different from values

Attitudes are different from values: Values are the ideals, whereas attitudes are narrow, they are our feelings.

Attitudes are evaluative statement

Attitudes are evaluative statements: either favourable or unfavourable concerning the objects, people or events.

Attitude influence human behavior

A positive attitude towards a thing will influence human behavior towards the thing favorably and vice-versa.

Attitudes have intensity

It refers to the strength of the effective component. For example, we may dislike an individual but the extent of our disliking would determine the intensity of our attitude towards the person.

Attitudes are learnt

Attitude is not inborn phenomenon. Attitude are learnt through social interaction and experience.

ATTITUDE AND BEHAVIOUR:

Attitude

Definition: An attitude is a way of thinking or feeling about something, a certain state of mind at the time.

Behaviour

Definition: Behaviour is defined as the way one acts towards themselves and others around them. To link the two we could say that due to the attitude a person has towards spiders, he/she may behave differently.

Individual's behaviour is not a simple and direct stimulus-response relationship; rather it is affected by the individual concerned. The work situation is interpreted by individual, and attitudes play an important part in which the situation is interpreted. Only after individual's interpretation and comparison does the response occur.

This means that response expected of a purely objective and rational consideration of the work situation and its characteristics may not be the actual response of the individual. His response depends completely on how he interprets the situation and on his own personal attitudes towards the situation.

Obviously, attitudes are an important consideration because of their central position in the process transforming work requirements into effort.

FACTORS AFFECTING ATTITUDE FORMATION

The attitudes are learned. Though there are different approaches as how learning works and is acquired by individuals, generally it is held that individuals learn things from the environment in which they interact. Thus, for attitude formation, all those factors must be taken into account from which people learn.

Such factors may be analyzed in term of group, then to larger starting from the family as a group, an individual moves in a close group, then to larger groups, and finally to the society as a whole.

Apart from these groups the individual's psychological make-up, particularly his personality, is also responsible for shaping his behaviour and attitudes; thus in order to understand the various factors and how they affect the attitudes, both these category of factors should be analyzed.

1. Group Factors:

The influence of groups on the attitudes of individuals is inversely proportional to the distance of the group from the individual, from this point of view, three types of groups have different types of effect on the attitudes of a person:

i. Family:

The term family may be used in a variety of ways – it may include a nuclear family which means the immediate group of father, mother, and children; an extended family which includes nuclear family and other relatives. Both these types of family have influence on the attitudes of individuals. In fact, when a person starts learning anything about the world, he learns it through his mother which is known as the process of socialization.

In this socialization process, he learns and forms attitudes also. Gradually, when the child grows up he comes in contact with others in the family but does not make significant contact with persons outside his family. Family has two important roles. First, other family members have certain personality characteristics, evaluative criteria, and attitudes, and the family as a whole has certain attitudes and values, which are shared by all other persons. Second, family mediates the influence of larger social systems on the individual's attitudes, values, and personality characteristics.

As an individual interacts with other family members, he simultaneously both influences the personality characteristics and attitudes of others and in turn is influenced by others. Since a family is a primary group, the attitudes of family members tend to converge and are typically more homogeneous than would be the case if they were not in the family.

ii. Reference Groups:

The awareness and learning of behaviour alternatives is accomplished efficiently through the influence of reference groups. A reference group is any interacting aggregation of people that influences an individual's attitudes of behaviour. This group may include family or other types of groupings, either primary or secondary groups.

Reference groups serve important inputs to an individual's learning of his attitudes and awareness of alternative behaviours and lifestyle. This happens through the process of socialization. Socialization, is a process by which a new member learns the value system, the norms, and the required behaviour patterns of the society, organizations, or groups in which he is entering.

Though all groups with which an individual makes contact have influence on his attitudes, the values and norms of the primary groups play a very important role in influencing attitudes, opinions, and beliefs of the members of the group.

iii. Social Factors:

The social classes have important influence on individual's attitudes. They have the important task of transmitting cultural behaviour patterns to specific groups and families. They define the expectations of society for groups of people and for families within the groups. The family then transits these cultural expectations to the individual.

Thus, social classes restrict behaviour between individuals of differing social classes, especially in intimate relationships. People have their close relationships with people of similar classes, which tend to restrict attitude formation in similar patterns of other members. This is so because attitudes and values provide goals, which aid alternative evaluation and provide motivation for research and evaluation. These are transmitted differently among social classes.

2. Personality Factors:

Personality factors are important in attitude formation. However, many personality characteristics themselves are determined by group and social factors.

Personality differences between individuals are very important Concomitant of the discussion of attitudes. This area has been the subject of great interest of research and study, particularly with respect to broader area of prejudice and social functioning.

Various studies show that there is positive relationship between different personality factors and attitudes. Adrono et al. show that there was a coherent pattern of ethnocentric attitudes including anti-semitism among persons having authoritarian personality. The ethnocentric stuck to the straight and narrow, holding conventional values, not being able to

accept certain socially unacceptable impulses and, therefore, in the main, projecting these on others.

McClosky has found a relationship between personality correlates of conservatism and liberalism. He found that the conservative attitudes characterized these at the lower end of the intelligence scale with less education and with less awareness of current events.

Various other research studies also show positive relationship between personality variables and particular attitudes. Since personality itself is influenced by various group and in understanding attitude formation, these factors, particularly former ones, must be analyzed.

Employees with a positive attitude will create a healthy atmosphere in the organization, develop positive relations with sub-ordinates, their supervisors, managers and top management. A positive attitude has significant benefits for an individual in many aspects.

Positive work attitude is extremely important because it fosters productive thinking and leads to productive working. A positive person is more approachable and easily builds constructive relationships, which are essential in building cohesive teams.

UNIT-III:

COURSE CONTENT:

Stress: concept -features causes of stress effects of stress .Interpersonal behaviour - nature- levels of self-awareness -Group dynamics definition -concept of group-type of group - formal group-committee-reasons for use of committees - measures for making committee effective - informal group -causes- working problems-group behaviour-group norms-group decision making process-brainstorming.

UNIT – III

STRESS

CONCEPT

Our basic human functions, breathing, blinking, heartbeat, digestion, and other unconscious actions, are controlled by our lower brains. Just outside this portion of the brain is the semiconscious limbic system, which plays a large part in human emotions. Within this system is an area known as the amygdala. The amygdala is responsible for, among other things, stimulating fear responses. Unfortunately, the amygdala cannot distinguish between meeting at 10:00 a.m., marketing deadline and escaping a burning building.

Human brains respond to outside threats to our safety with a message to our bodies to engage in a "fight-or-flight" response (Cannon, 1915). Our bodies prepare for these scenarios with an increased heart rate, shallow breathing, and wide-eyed focus. Even digestion and other functions are stopped in preparation for the fight-or-flight response. While these traits allowed our ancestors to flee the scene of their impending doom or engage in a physical battle for survival, most crises at work are not as dramatic as this.

Hans Selye, one of the founders of the American Institute of Stress, spent his life examining the human body's response to stress. As an endocrinologist who studied the effects of adrenaline and other hormones on the body, Selye believed that unmanaged stress could create physical diseases such as ulcers and high blood pressure, and psychological illnesses such as depression. He hypothesized that stress played a general role in disease by exhausting the body's immune system and termed this the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS).

In the alarm phase of stress, an outside stressor jolts the individual, insisting that something must be done. It may help to think of this as the fight-or-flight moment in the individual's experience. If the response is sufficient, the body will return to its resting state after having successfully dealt with the source of stress.

In the resistance phase, the body begins to release cortisol and draws on reserves of fats and sugars to find a way to adjust to the demands of stress. This reaction works well for short periods of time, but it is only a temporary fix. Individuals forced to endure the stress of cold and hunger may find a way to adjust to lower temperatures and less food. While it is possible for the

body to "adapt" to such stresses, the situation cannot continue. The body is drawing on its reserves, like a hospital using backup generators after a power failure. It can continue to function by shutting down unnecessary items like large overhead lights, elevators, televisions, and most computers, but it cannot proceed in that state forever.

In the exhaustion phase, the body has depleted its stores of sugars and fats, and the prolonged release of cortisol has caused the stressor to significantly weaken the individual. Disease results from the body's weakened state, leading to death in the most extreme cases. This eventual depletion is why we're more likely to reach for foods rich in fat or sugar, caffeine, or other quick fixes that give us energy when we are stressed.

Selye referred to stress that led to disease as distress and stress that was enjoyable or healing as eustress.

Stress – It refers to the bodily strain that an individual feels as a result of coping with some environmental factors.

Stress management – Stress management refers to the process through which stress can be controlled. It must, however, be kept in mind that the stress management never talks of eliminating stress thoroughly.

DEFINITION OF STRESS

In Human Resource Management, Stress is defined as a state of mental and emotional pressure or strain, caused by challenging or unfavourable circumstances. It is an outside force that rules an individual's feelings and behaviour.

It is a person's response to an external factor (stimulus, known as the stressor) in the environment and the outcome of such reaction. The **stressor** can be unreasonable or extreme pressure, placed on the employees, which can be a disturbing one.

Stress occurs due to discrepancies between situational demand and the employee's ability to fulfil those demands, in essence, it is the imbalance between the perceived state and desired state, resulting in psychological, physiological and behavioural deviations. It is an inseparable part of work life.

CLASSIFICATION ON STRESS

1. **Eustress**: It refers to positive stress, wherein the situation offers an opportunity to the individual to gain something. It is seen as a motivator that encourages people to meet challenges and, without which an individual lacks the spark needed to raise their level of performance.

2. **Distress**: It is described as negative stress, in which an individual experiences insecurity or inadequacy because of helplessness, disappointment. Distress can cause cardiovascular diseases, alcoholism, marital breakdown, drug abuse, and much more.

Stressors – Sources of Stress

The basic sources of stressors are divided into four categories:

Individual-level stressors: Stressors which are associated directly with an individual's personality and job responsibility.

1. **Personality type**: How a person experience stress depends largely on the type of personality he/she possesses. There are two types of personality, which are **Type A** and **Type B**.

2. **Role overload**: Excess workload, increased pressure and tension ultimately results in stress.

3. **Role Conflict**: In an organisation, role conflict occurs where people experience competing demands. It can be an **inter-role conflict** which is caused when an employee has two opposing roles and **personal role conflict**, occurs due to the differences between personal values and organisational goals.

4. **Role ambiguity:**

   When the employees are unaware of their responsibilities, authorities, powers, functions and performance expectations, it is known as role ambiguity.

5. **Task Characteristics** also causes individuals to face stress, especially when it involves activities like decision-making, information exchange and monitoring work.

6. **Group level Stressors**: The stress resulting from group dynamics and managerial behaviour are covered under this category. It can be due to the following reasons:

   1. Lack of cohesiveness

2. Managerial Behavior

3. Workplace violence

4. Intragroup conflict

5. Sexual Harassment

6. Status Incongruence

Organisational level Stressors: These stressors influence almost all the employees working in the organisation.

1. **Organisational climate**: If the environment of the organisation puts excessive pressure of work on employees, causes high stress to employees.

2. **Organisational structure**: The structure of organisation explains the level of authority and rules and regulations where decisions are taken. If in an organisational design the rules are more and the participation is less, then the structure of the organisation works as a stressor to employees.

3. **Organisational leadership**: Managerial style plays a crucial role in the development of employees. If there is a culture of the organisation to create tension, fear or anxiety, or work for long hours to complete the delegated work in a short time, otherwise they will be fired, will create unrealistic pressure on the employees.

4. **Organisational Lifecycle**: As everything has a life cycle, organisations, too passes through various stages of life, i.e. birth, growth, policy, procedure, theory, religion, ritual and last rites. The early phases of the life of the organisation are exciting while the latter ones are stress-prone.

   5. **Extra organizational Stressor**: Those sources to stress, which are outside the organisation are included in this category. This covers stress caused by family, economy, status or lack of mobility.

Stress is linked to constraints and demands. Constraints stop an individual from doing something desired by him while demands imply the loss of something which an individual desires.

All people do not feel stressed with the same intensity. Some are easily prone to stress, as they over-react to the factors causing stress while others have the capability to overcome any

stressors. Therefore, it is a person's perception, experience, attitude and social support; that determines how a person experience stress.

Effects of Stress may include:

Physical

- Sleep disturbances

- Headaches

- Gastrointestinal upset

- Raised blood pressure/cardiovascular disease

Emotional

- Anxiety and irritability

- Depression

- Labile emotions

Intellectual

- Loss of concentration

- Lack of motivation

- Difficulty with thought process

- Loss of memory

- Poor decision-making

Behavioural

- Substance (including alcohol) misuse

- Decreased libido

- Inappropriate display of behaviour

- Isolation

- Unpunctuality

Effects on the organisation may include:

- High absenteeism

- High labour turnover

- Poor time keeping

- Poor performance and productivity

- Low morale

- Poor motivation

- Increased employee complaints

- Increased ill-health, accidents and incidents reports

INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOUR

Interpersonal behaviour is **the behaviour and actions that are present in human relationships**. The way in which people communicate, and all that this entails, is considered interpersonal behaviour. Interpersonal behaviour may include both verbal communication and nonverbal cues, such as body language or facial expressions.

Interpersonal behaviour is the behaviour and actions that are present in human relationships. The way in which people communicate, and all that this entails, is considered interpersonal behaviour.

Interpersonal behaviour may include both verbal communication and nonverbal cues, such as body language or facial expressions. Verbal interpersonal behaviour consists of joking, relating to one another via the art of storytelling, and taking or following orders. Interpersonal skills are highly desirable in many situations, specifically careers that rely on personal relationships such as the health care industry or sales.

Interpersonal Behaviour is basically how "two persons" interact in any setting. It is extremely important in organizations or even schools and other education institutions to strengthen interpersonal relationships. When at a basic level, that is, between two people the relationship is strong and pleasant, it will lead to proper behaviour. This behaviour will result in

productive work which is ultimately what organizations are looking for. At the employee level if trust and passion for work exists, the unity between them can achieve great results. These results would be in terms of reduction in the time lag, better quality work, and excellence in working procedures. Even in an educational institution such behaviours have a chain reaction. If two people do not get together and are forced together in a group assignment, it might just be completed half-heartedly by the two and not achieve desired results. This will have two consequences. First, it will affect the other group members and their grades. Second, it will foster hatred and mistrust within which will have long term effects on those two and those surrounding them.

Intrapersonal communication is a type of communication that a person carries with him or herself. That does not mean talking loudly and crazily in the literary context but figuratively it is a methodology of communicating to oneself that is important in the psychological development of a person, for developing openness to his/ her ideas and gaining access into the psychodynamic dimension of the personality. Its purpose is to think, reason, analyze and reflect the thought procedure.

The skills that are required for effective intrapersonal communication are include enhancing self-esteem, along with increasing the extent of self-awareness (meaning knowing yourself well enough and being sensitive to your attributes). It also requires improving problem-solving skills and analyzing abilities. Moreover the need for increasing self-control and reducing the level of stress is a vital one. Lastly the effective management of intrapersonal conflicts (quagmires in general) is important in the carriage of a smooth intrapersonal communication.

Interpersonal behaviour is a topic that is widely studied by many academics. Basically, the term 'interpersonal' focuses on the bond between two people, and the behaviour between these two individuals will depend on the context of their relationship. For example, the way that a boyfriend and a girlfriend behave with one another will be different to the communication between a mother and a daughter.

Of course, interpersonal behaviour isn't just explored in the environment of friends and family, as it is widely believed that a strong partnership between an employer and their staff can result in higher levels of efficiency in the workplace. This is why character building courses have become a key part of business, as it allows interpersonal behaviour to become stronger as co-

workers trust one another further.

There are different theories that surround interpersonal behaviour, and it's widely believed that the more people collaborate with each other, the better they will be at appreciating each other's skills. It doesn't just benefit the results that companies can publish, but it improves levels of happiness in the workplace. Because people are working with their friends and enjoying one another's company, they are going to be chirpier and less likely to get involved with conflict that can damage overall productivity.

INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

Interpersonal skills are the qualities and behaviours a person uses to interact with others properly. In the business domain, the term refers to an employee's ability to work well with others while performing their job. Interpersonal skills range from communication and listening to attitude and deportment. Strong interpersonal skills are a prerequisite for many positions in an organization.

Interpersonal skills cannot be learned solely from a textbook. They come naturally to some people, while other people have to work at cultivating them. In many organizations, employees with strong interpersonal skills are valued for their pleasant demeanor and positive, solution-oriented attitude. These employees are team players, who work well with others to achieve a goal.

Interpersonal skills relate to the knowledge of social expectations and customs. Individuals with these skills consider others' reactions to adjust tactics and communication as needed. Some describe interpersonal skills as social intelligence, which relies on paying attention to the actions and speech of others and interpreting them correctly as part of forming a response. While these skills are based, in part, on an individual's personality and instincts, they also develop with experience and knowledge.

NATURE OF INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOUR :

In interpersonal relationships, two participants are interdependent, where the behaviour of each affects the outcomes of the other. Additionally, the individuals interact with each other in a series of interactions that are interrelated and affect each other.

SELF AWARENESS :

"Self-awareness is the ability to focus on yourself and how your actions, thoughts, or emotions do or don't align with your internal standards. If you're highly self-aware, you can objectively evaluate yourself, manage your emotions, <u>align your behaviour with your values</u>, and understand correctly how others perceive you."

Put simply, those who are highly self-aware can interpret their actions, feelings, and thoughts objectively.

It's a rare skill, as many of us spiral into emotion-driven interpretations of our circumstances. Developing self-awareness is important because it allows leaders to assess their growth and effectiveness and change course when necessary.

Two states of self-awareness

There are two distinct kinds of self-awareness, public and private.

Public self-awareness: Being aware of how we can appear to others. Because of this consciousness, we are more likely to adhere to social norms and behave in ways that are socially acceptable.

While there are benefits to this type of awareness, there is also the danger of tipping into self-consciousness. Those who are especially high in this trait may spend too much time worrying about what others think of them.

Private self-awareness: Being able to notice and reflect on one's internal state. <u>Those who have private self-awareness are introspective</u>, approaching their feelings and reactions with curiosity.

For example, you may notice yourself tensing up as you are preparing for an important meeting. Noticing the physical sensations and correctly attributing them to your anxiety about the meeting would be an example of private self-awareness.

When self-awareness tips into self-consciousness, we are reluctant to share certain aspects of ourselves. We develop a persona that lacks authenticity.

Benefits of self-awareness:

- It gives us the power to influence outcomes

- It helps us to become better decision-makers It gives us more self-confidence — so, as a result, we communicate with clarity and intention

- It allows us to understand things from multiple perspectives

- It frees us from our assumptions and biases

- It helps us build better relationships

- It gives us a greater ability to regulate our emotions

- It decreases stress

- It makes us happier

MASLOW'S LEVELS OF SELF AWARENESS:

Unconscious incompetence :

We are unaware of our own incompetence. We don't know what we know.

Conscious incompetence :

At this level. We become aware or conscious that we are not competent. We know what we don't know.

Conscious competence :

We are aware that we know or can do something, but it has not yet become an integrated skill of habit.

Unconscious competence :

At this level, skill become second nature. You know or can do something but don't have to concentrate to be able to act upon that knowledge or draw upon that skill.

SEVEN LEVELS OF SELF AWARENESS :

- Mastery - Respond vs. React

- Experience - Real Learning

- Discipline - Give self a command & keep it.

- Individual - Express Uniqueness

- Aspiration - Desire without Action

- Mass- Follow the crowd- Conform

- Animal - Flight or fight, React vs. Respond

GROUP DYNAMICS

Group dynamics deals with the attitudes and behavioural patterns of a group. It can be used as a means for problem-solving, teamwork, and to become more innovative and productive as an organization. The concept of group dynamics will also provide you with the strengths, success factors and measures along with other professional tools.

Meaning and Definitions of Group Dynamics

The term 'group dynamics' means the study of <u>forces</u> within a group. Since human beings have an innate desire for belonging to a group, group dynamism is bound to occur. In an organization or in a society, we can see groups, small or large, working for the well-being.

The social process by which people interact with one another in small groups can be called group dynamism. A group has certain common objectives & goals. Because of which members are bound together with certain values and culture.

Importance of Group Dynamism

1. Firstly, a group can influence the way the members think. The members are always influenced by the interactions of other members in the group. A group with a good leader performs better as compared to a group with a weak leader.

2. The group can give the effect of synergy, that is, if the group consists of positive thinkers then its output is more than double every time.

3. Group dynamism can furthermore give job satisfaction to the members.

4. The group can also infuse the team spirit among the members.

5. Even the attitude, insights & ideas of members depend on group dynamism. For example, negative thinkers convert to positive thinkers with the help of the facilitator.

6. Also, if the group works as a cohesive group, the cooperation and convergence can result in maximization of productivity

7. Furthermore, group dynamism can reduce labor unrest. Lastly, it reduces labor turnover due to emotional attachment among the group members.

Stages of Group Development

The following are the five stages of group development

1. Forming

2. Storming

3. Norms

4. Performing

5. Adjourning

FORMING :

- Little Agreement

- Unclear Purpose

- Guidance & Direction

STORMING :

- Conflict

- Increased clarity of Purpose

- Power Struggles

NORMS :

- Agreement & Consensus

- Clear Roles and Responsibility

- Facilitation

PERFORMING :

- Clear Vision and Purpose

- Focus on Goal Achievement

- Delegation

ADJOURNING :

- Task Completion

- Good feeling about Achievement

- Recognition

GROUPS

There are many ways to define a group. Most of the people defining this term agree on one thing: Groups are created because of people becoming linked to each other by a type of relationship.

Groups are never the same and are defined as: (1) two or more individuals (2) connected (3) by and within social relationships.

1. Two or more individuals. There is not standard group size but there are always at least two people in a group. Within larger groups you might find subgroups, whereas people within a dyad (2 people) or a triad (3 people) can often get along with everyone in the group.

2. Connected**.** People within a group must be connected. This connection can both be strong (families) or weak and easily broken. Some bonds are task related (such as committees) and others are more based on a relation (such as friends). Relations might not always be mutual.

The larger the group the more ties it takes to connect its members. The maximum amount of ties can be calculated by the formula: $n(n-1)/2$. The number of people within the group is represented by the "n". Whenever the connection is mutual two ties are required, and groups might also have indirect connections.

3. By and within social relationships. There must be social relationships within a group. When people are connected to one another, they can become interdependent and may influence each other. A social relationship suggests a bond created by the presence of others. Membership: people within a group connected to one another due to their being part of the group. A social network is different from a group because the boundaries of members and non-members are less clear. A social network is a collection of inter-personal connected people. To become a member you'll only need to form a bond with any member of this social network, a bond with one member is sufficient for being a member yourself.

The definition of groups, as explained, would suggest a clear division between non-group members and group members. However in reality the boundary between group member and non-group member is quite vague. Also the definition is limited: the requirements of a group are clear, but it does not provide the answers to the other questions concerning groups.

ONLINE AND OFFLINE GROUPS

An online group is a group of two or more individuals who interact solely or primarily online, for example by e-mail or instant messaging. An offline group interacts primarily/ solely in face-to-face situations.

DESCRIBING GROUPS

There are some similarities to be found in groups, such as:

1) Interaction: Groups are a great setting for interpersonal actions. There are two types of group interaction:

- Task-interaction = interaction focused on a task, goal or project such as a committee or a jury.

- Relation-interaction = interaction focused on an inter-personal relationship.

2) Goals: Most groups exist due to a goal they wish to achieve.

There are several approaches to classify these goals. One of the approaches suggests the intellectual and the judgmental tasks. Another approach is that of the production, discussion and problem-solving goals. A final approach suggests the generating of ideas, choosing options, negotiating solution and executing performance tasks.

3) Interdependence: members depend on one another which means that their actions, experiences, thoughts et cetera are (partially) determined by other members of the group. This interdependence can occur in the following settings:

- Symmetric interdependence: where two or more members can influence each other equally and with reciprocity.

- Hierarchical interdependence without reciprocity: for example when a boss influences its employees but not the other way around.

- Hierarchical interdependence with reciprocity: when employees can influence their boss and the other way around, even when effects are unequally divided.

  4) Structure: Group structure consists out of the group roles, norms and inter-member relations. A role is an expected behaviour pattern belonging to a specific position in a group. Examples are the roles of the leaders and the followers. Norms are consensual standards describing various appropriate and inappropriate behaviours in a given context. .

5) Cohesiveness: group cohesiveness concerns the power of the bond between members of the group. Group cohesion is the solidarity, integrity and unity of the group.

TYPES OF GROUPS

Primary groups: small intimate clusters of close associates. Examples of such primary groups are families, good friends and cliques of peers. Members spend much time interacting with each other. The members have a high amount of influence on one another. Many individuals become group members involuntarily; because they are born into a family, which is a primary group.

Examples of non-primary groups are the following:

1. Social group: a relatively large and formally organized group. Membership is usually shorter and less emotionally involved. It is also more conventional to join and leave groups than it is with primary groups. Social groups are often task-oriented.

2. Collectives: A collective can be defined as: any form of association amongst people who have a similar behaviour at some point. An example of a collective is an aggregation of people waiting on a bus together.

3. Categories: Categories are groups of individuals similar to one another in some specific way. For example everyone living in the same city or everyone with the same hobby. This category can turn into a group when a social connection is formed

Groups (primary and social ones) and social categories influence the behaviour of its members. Group members share an identity. They know who is in their category and who is not. They are aware of the aspects typical for in and outsiders. Social identity consists out of the self-concept of an individual deriving from the knowledge of membership to a group. A sense of "we" and "them" is created.

Perceiving groups

Entitavity is a term used to "describe the extent to which a group seems to be a single unified entity/ unity" (or a real group). Campell has used principles from the Gestalt psychology for its analysis of group entitavity. These principles described the cues people used when organising objects into unified, organised unities in their perception. These principles are common fate, similarity and proximity.

Common fate: when individuals have a similar idea on their preferred outcome.

Similarity: when individuals have similar kinds of behaviours.

Proximity: how close individuals within a group are to one another.

The nature of Group Dynamics

Cartwright and Zander suggest group dynamics is "a field of inquiry dedicated to advancing knowledge about the nature of groups, the laws of their development, and their interrelations with individuals, other groups and large institutions".

At the end of the 19th century, both sociologists and psychologists started to examine groups. While sociology emphasised the role of groups in maintaining social order, psychology focussed on the difference between behaviour of an individual alone and behaviour of an individual within a group.

Some assumptions are made in the paradigm of group dynamics:

- Focus on individual or group level? The level of analysis is disagreed upon by theorists. Usually psychologists prefer the individual level whereas sociologists prefer the group-level.

Group fallacy= when people explain social phenomena in terms of the group instead of the individuals within the group.

- Is there a group mind? Group mind: "a hypothetical unifying mental force linking its group members together."

Furthermore the law of interactionism is quite important in Lewin's field theory: Each person's behaviour (B) is a function of his personal qualities (P), the social environment (E) and the interaction between the latter two (P and E).

- Which group processes are real?

Allport presumed a group mind did not exist, and seems to be correct in that, since no evidence for this phenomenon was found. There is however proof for the existence of group norms, this was verified by Muzafer Sherif.

- Groups are living systems: Tuckman has developed a theory of group development suggesting that a group most likely passes through five specific stages in its development. These five stages are: Forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning.

Forming: orientation phase, Storming: conflict phase; member search status and group sets its goals, norming: group becomes structured, Performing: group concentrates on the work, adjourning: dissolution phase.

Classification of Groups

A person becomes a part of a group, knowingly or unknowingly; for a purpose or as a choice; and for short-term or long-term. Groups can be differentiated into the following nine major categories:

Primary and Secondary Groups

In terms of face to face or indirect interaction between the parties, groups can be bifurcated as follows:

Primary Group: The group where an individual directly interacts with other members is termed as the primary group. It is responsible for the initial learning and social behaviour of an individual.

Secondary Group: When a person in a group is indirectly associated with or influenced by other members, he/she is said to be in a secondary group.

FORMAL AND INFORMAL GROUPS

We can categorize the groups into two major classes according to the purpose it serves, whether it is for fulfilling an organizational objective or for meeting the self-interest of the members.

Formal Groups

When people collaborate to attain the organizational goals or objectives, they are said to form a formal group.

Following are the three major types of formal groups existing in an organization:

Command Group: As a result of hierarchical arrangement in an organization, a command group is made of the superiors and their subordinates representing the flow of command or orders from top to bottom level.

Task Group: A group which includes individuals with different skills and knowledge, to successfully carry out the assigned project, is called as a task group.

Committees: For the special assignments or projects, a group is formed by appointing the specialists or people with superior knowledge; which is termed as a committee. After the project responsibilities are executed successfully, the members can disassociate from the committee.

Informal Groups

When the individuals associate with one another to serve their common interest or for self-satisfaction, they are known to form an informal group. Some of the most common informal groups are:

Interest Groups: The individuals who join hands for a common purpose (related to self-interest) create an interest group.

Friendship Groups: The group which is formed as a result of personal choice by the individuals who are already familiar and feel comfortable with one another, is called a friendship group.

Cliques: In a workplace, few colleagues join hands to form a small group (usually with two to six members) to share ideas and thoughts on their mutual interest.

Sub-cliques: When a clique comprises of few organizational employees along with some non-employees (who are associated with the other members in either way), it termed as a sub-clique.

FORMAL GROUPS :

Definition: The **Formal Groups** are formed deliberately and consciously collectively to direct the efforts of group members, especially the employees towards the accomplishment of organizational objectives.

The formal groups are formed to fulfill any of the following purposes:

- To capitalize the expertise of each individual towards the accomplishment of complex tasks.

- To make use of synergy, i.e. collective efforts of group members yields better results than an individual working separately.

- To facilitate a proper decision-making, as with many people in a group the conflicting ideas and thoughts arise that could be considered to formulate a better decision.

- To help others in the group to learn new skills and to know about the details of the organizational environment.

  - To satisfy the personal needs of social affiliations, i.e. need to get accepted by others.

The several groups are formed to serve the specific needs of the organization and can be in any of the following forms:

1. <u>Committees</u>

2. <u>Task Force</u>

3. <u>Quality Circle</u>

The formal groups, mostly relate to the organizational missions and can either be permanent or temporary. The permanent formal groups are in the form of top management team such as the board of directors, management committees, several departments within the organization etc. The temporary formal groups are created to fulfill the specified set of objectives.

Committees

Definition:

The **Committees** are the association of organizational people who come together to analyze, investigate and discuss the issues of concern and reach to the final conclusion. The committees are usually formed at different levels in the organization.

The power and authority of the committee members are restricted to the extent delegated by the appointer. Also, there is a maximum limit on the number of members a committee can have because, if it increases, then the communication tends to become centralized, and each member does not get an adequate opportunity to speak out his mind.

The committee is required to deal only with those problems that are assigned to it and cannot act on the activities which are beyond the defined jurisdiction. Each member has the authority to study the problem in depth and can exercise this through the voting power given to each.

The committees can be formed at any organizational level and any individuals, irrespective of their positions in the hierarchy, can become a member of it. Thus, there can be

several types of committees such as finance committee, budget committee, welfare committee, marketing committee, grievance redressal committee etc.

The major purpose behind the use of the committee is to pool the knowledge and experience of each member such that effective decision is made. But however, certain problems hamper the processing of the committees such as high cost involved in forming the committee, slow decision making due to major conflicts among the members, splitting of responsibility, etc.

FIVE STRATEGIES THAT MAKE COMMITTEES EFFECTIVE

A committee can be one of the most productive tools that an association has for goal achievement. But committees are also indispensable to the work of an association, enabling work to get done in the most efficient manner. But committees can also be incredible time sucks, eating up countless hours while not accomplishing much. According to Bain and Company, "At their best, committees are an efficient way of assembling people. They facilitate debate on important issues, and the can be effective forums for decision making. So the challenge is to manage committees well; to get the most out of them while nipping their dysfunctional traits in the bud.

When Committees Don't Work

Committees don't work well when there is:

1. Lack of long-term agenda.

2. Reliance on bad information.

3. Inability to focus on the right issues.

4. Poor involvement by one or more member

5. Lack of clear purpose

As Bain and Company so aptly put it, "Committees can benefit from many of the same approaches that make board meetings more effective: an overview by the committee chair at the beginning of each meeting, a strategic focus for discussions, prioritized agendas, annual calendar of committee meetings and major decisions, consent agendas, and evaluation of committee meetings".

When Committees Do Work

There are at least five elements to ensure committee effectiveness:

1. Written Committee Description. There should be a written description of what is expected of each committee to guide the chair and members. The description should summarize the purpose of the committee, its composition and selection procedure, and the specific duties of the committee.

2. An Effective Committee Chair. A good committee chair needs to understand the content of the committee and have experience relevant to the work of the committee as well as proven leadership and people skills that will be essential if the committee is to work effectively. You want a good leader of people and process, someone who feels confident in guiding committee members to accomplish the task in a timely manner. The committee chair must also have confidence in the members, and put the committee's success over his or her own goals. The good chair is one who can work with people, who can excite them to work together and draw out each members best skills.

3. Effective Members Appointed

You need members who have been thoughtfully appointed. They should be recruited with the following question in mind: What tasks are the committee responsible for and who among our members possess the skills and experience needed to complete those tasks? Match the needs and requirements of the committee and the skills, knowledge and interests of prospective committee members.

4. Accountability to the Central Organization.

Committees must have clear accountability. This begins with the written committee function that describes what is expected from the committee.

5. Well-run Meetings.

If a committee meets the above four factors, then the meetings will likely be well run. "In a sense, if a committee reflects the first five indicators of effectiveness — a clear description of its work, a chair that knows how to lead, a solid match between the interests, skills and experience of individual members on the one hand, and the needs and requirements of the committee on the other, a good mix of members, and direct accountability to the board –we will have the makings

of excellent committee meetings. It will still be important to provide for meeting space that matches the needs of the group, a written meeting agenda and any necessary information mailed out to members in advance of the meeting."

But just to ensure a meeting is well run, the following factors must to be achieved:

a. Set the agenda. The agenda provides a road map for the conversation so make sure the leader has a clear agenda before the meeting starts. That agenda needs to be communicated on a handout in advance of the meeting, and any other necessary information should be e-mailed out to members in advance of the meeting.

b. Clarify the decision making process. The chair must clarify its decision making process at the outset. Is it by majority vote? Is it that the chair gathers input and then he or she makes the decision? Make it clear from the outset how decisions will be made. As the CEO of Autodesk put it, "We're very clear at the beginning of every meeting whether it's one person's decision or whether it's more of a discussion to reach consensus. I think it's a really valuable thing to understand because otherwise people can feel frustrated that they gave out their opinions but they don't understand the broader context for the final decision."

c. Start on time and end on time. " A definitive end time will help ensure that you accomplish what's on your agenda and get people back to work promptly"

d. Make sure the leader lets people speak. As the CEO of Honeywell stated, "Your job as a leader is to flush out all the facts, all the opinions, and at the end make a good decision.

e. End with an action plan. Determine who is responsible for what and what the timelines are. The secretary must record all time frames to make sure all action items are taken care of and followed up on.

f. Do a meeting audit every few months. The chair should examine the results of each meeting and determine whether they are effective. Review the meetings that worked and didn't, and determine if you need every meeting you've held.

Other Factors

1. Make sure an evaluation process of the committee meetings is in place. Immediate feedback is a huge factor in gauging the success of the meeting, and making changes so meetings are efficient and effective.

2. Post an annual calendar at the beginning of the year. Make sure your committee members know when meetings are and what is expected of them right from the outset.

3. Provide an orientation for new committee members.

4. Provide regular recognition to active committee member.

5. The chair should privately meet with lack luster members to find out what is happening and why work isn't being performed.

6. Involve committee members in developing an annual committee plan of work and make sure that the committee plans are in alignment with the overall strategic plan of the association.

Reasons for Using Committee

1. Superior Judgment

The most important reason for the use of the committee is to arrive at a superior judgment through group deliberations. It is increasingly being recognized that most problems of modern business require more experience, knowledge, and judgment than any individual possesses. Committees may help the clarification of problems and the development of new ideas. Group interactions through committees have been found to be especially enlightening in policy matters. In complex business situations, however, group interactions may be superior to individual judgment.

2. Motivations through participation

Membership of committees permits wider participation in decision-making. There are people who seem to be against every move unless they have been previously consulted. Committee membership may help improve the situation.

Persons who take part in decision-making through committee membership usually feel more enthusiastic about accepting and executing it.

3. Avoiding the concentration of authority in a single person

The use of a committee can help avoid the concentration of authority in a single person. There may also be a committee to make recommendations on a problem because the manager does not wish to take full responsibility for making a decision.

Major financial and capital investment policies are also often developed by committees, partly because of unwillingness to give a single individual complete authority to make each important decision.

4. Sharing and transmitting of information

Another reason for using the committee is sharing and transmitting the information. All the members of a committee can learn about a project or problem simultaneously.

Moreover, decisions and instructions can be received uniformly with opportunities for clarification. This may help avoid misunderstanding and save time.

5. Achieving co-ordination

Committees are very useful for coordinating activities among various organizational units. The dynamics of modern organizations place a heavy burden on the mangers to integrate plans and activities.

Committees can help a lot in this direction by co-ordinating plans and policies as well as their implementation.

6. Representation of interested groups

Committees are often formed with membership from different interested groups. Members of the board of directors are often selected on the basis of groups interested in the company and, perhaps more often, on the basis of groups in which the company has an interest.

When top executives have internal problems involving, for example, heads of various departments, they may choose committee members in such a way as to give these departments representation.

7. Delaying or avoiding action

It is well known that committees are often appointed by managers when they want to delay or avoid action. At times, committee members are chosen in a way aimed at delaying action.

Careful managers know that one of the surest ways to delay the handling of a problem, and even to postpone a decision indefinitely, is to appoint a committee to study the matter.

How do Informal groups form?

Informal groups are created in the organization because of operation of social and psychological forces operating at workplace. Informal groups develop apart from officially prescribed plan of the organization. Informal groups arise rapidly on the basis of friendship or some common interest which may or may not be work related. There are informal groups of operatives. Informal organization tends to develop when formal organization proves to be inefficient or when it fails to satisfy important psychological and social wants and aspirations of the members in the work environment.

Types of Informal Groups

According to their characteristics, they can be classified into four groups namely,

1. Apathetic groups

2. Erratic groups

3. Strategic groups, and;

4. Conservative groups.

1. Apathetic groups are least active, have fewest grievances and do not engage in concerted action against management. They are characterized by dispersal and unaccepted leadership, lack of cohesiveness, internal disunity and conflict and suppressed dissatisfaction.

2. Erratic groups are characterized by rapid inflammability, poor control, inconsistent behavior, centralized autocratic leadership and union formation activities.

3. **Strategic groups** are characterized by well-planned and consistent grievances. They act as shrewd, calculating groups that put continuous pressure on management in order to attend to their problems.

4. **Conservative groups** are characterized by moderate internal unity, limited pressure for highly specific objectives and a sense of self-assurance.

Dalton has classified **informal groups into three categories** namely, horizontal, vertical and mixed.

- **Horizontal groups** comprise of members who belong more or less to the same rank and are in lateral relationship with one another.

- **Vertical groups** have members who belong to the one and the same department and are in superior-subordinate relationship.

- Membership of **Mixed groups** is drawn from people working in various departments and at various levels of hierarchy.

Functions of Informal groups

Informal organizations exist because they perform certain desired functions for their members. Informal groups help their members in fulfilling the following requirements through their groups membership

1. Affiliation need,

2. Needs to establish a sense of identity and enhance self-respect,

3. Security need

4. Need to validate their beliefs and values,

5. Need for help in solving work problems,

6. Need to get information, and

7. Need for support for individual innovation and originality.

Advantages of Informal groups

The different advantages of informal groups may be outlined as follows:

1. Informal Groups create pleasant work environment for its members.

2. All the needs and desires of the members are easily satisfied.

3. Work performance becomes easier on account of mutual cooperation.

4. They provide psychological support to their members.

5. Communication is facilitated.

6. It establishes group standards of performance.

7. Need for close supervision is also minimized.

8. Groups lead to organization and development, and facilitate research and innovation.

9. Group cohesiveness reduces employee turnover and absenteeism.

10. It develops group spirit and pride.

11. Members of highly cohesive groups feel less nervous.

12. Grapevine complements and supplements official communication, and

13. Groups helps to safeguard their members from outside pressure.

Disadvantages of Informal Groups

Some of the disadvantages of informal organizations are as below:

1. Informal Groups often establish production norms below the physical capabilities of their members.

2. Groups insist on the observation of the groups norms.

3. Groups cohesiveness impedes acceptance of new employees.

4. Groups often hide their innovations from management and adopt them in their own interest.

5. Groups often oppose the management policies and procedures.

6. Groups often spread rumours affecting the smooth functioning of the organization.

7. Groups often demand a price for co-operation.

8. Jurisdictional disputes among groups create problems for management.

PROBLEMS CREATED BY INFORMAL GROUPS

Negative attitude of informal leaders: The informal leaders may turn out to be a troublemaker for the organization. In order to increase his influence, he may work against the policies of management and manipulate the behavior of his followers. Thus, he can be a source of conflict

between the management and the workers. He may induce the followers to work against the interests of the organization. If such a leader is promoted to the rank of an executive, he may turn out to be a work shirker and an arrogant and autocratic boss.

Conformity: The informal group exerts strong pressure on its members for conformity. The members may become so loyal to their group that following the group norms becomes a part of their life. This implies that members become subject to willful control of the group leader who may lead the group towards selfish ends.

Resistance to change: Informal group generally have a tendency to resist change. Change requires group members to make new adjustments and acquire new skills. But groups want to maintain status quo. Sometimes, groups react violently to the proposed changes being brought by the management

Rumor: Informal communication may give rise to rumors. This is not desirable from organization's point of view. Rumors originate for a number of reasons. Maliciousness, employee's anxiety and insecurity are the prominent reasons.
Role Conflict: Every member of the informal group is also a member of the formal organization. Sometimes, there may be role conflict. In such a situation, group members may conform to their social norms. And if an individual member wants to follow the formal instructions of his boss, he may be snubbed by the informal leader and compelled to conform informal group norms.

MEANING OF GROUP BEHAVIOUR:

Individuals form groups. They live in groups. They move in groups. They work in groups. Groups are important. They influence work and work behaviour. They cannot be ignored. They exert significant influence on the organisation. They are inseparable from organisation. They are useful for the organisation. They form foundation of human resources. The study of group behaviour is important. Individual and group behaviour differs from each other. Group behaviour affects productivity.

The importance of group behaviour has been realized from time to time. Elton Mayo and his associates way back in 1920 conducted the famous Hawthorne experiments and came to know that the group behaviour have major impact on productivity.

Human resources comprise individuals and individuals move in groups. Every manager must possess the knowledge of group behaviour along with individual behaviour. He must understand group psychology. He should understand individual behaviour in the context of group behaviour. Individual behaviour is influenced by the group behaviour.

An individual's work, job satisfaction and effective performance is influenced by the group in which he moves. At lower level of the organisation it is the small groups of employees work as a team. They have the responsibility to finish a task assigned to them within a stipulated period of time.

If they come across a problem they tackle it by themselves. They get guidance from senior fellow workers in solving the problem and accomplishing it. It is needless to say that groups are important in employee's life. They spend increasing proportion of time with the group at workplace.

M.E. Shaw defined a group "as two or more people who interact and influence one another." Viewers in a theatre, passengers in a train are not a group unless they interact for long and exert some influence on each other. Such people's gatherings are referred to as collection.

They interact at a very low level nor they get influenced with each other but enjoy being in collection. The collection of people may get-converted into a group temporarily if they are caught up in a dangerous situation like fire, robbery etc. They will come over a problem fighting as a group united.

Reasons for Group:

Man is a social animal and he lives in groups, he moves in groups. So, group is inherent to human beings.

Group Norms:

Norm refers to group behaviour standard, beliefs, attitudes, traditions, expectations shared by group members. According to Michael Argyle, "Group norms are rules or guidelines of accepted behaviour which are established by a group and used to monitor the behaviour of its members."

The group norms determine how members of group should behave. They determine the behaviour of group. Group norms regulate the behaviour of group. Group norms help in understanding the group behaviour.

Norms cannot be violated. Any violation of group norms by any member invites criticism and imposing of sanctions. Group norms are framed to achieve objectives of the group. Norms enhance social interaction. Group norms establish role relationships. The high profile members have to play a leading role in a group.

Group norms can be social, ethical in nature. Group norms portray certain image of its members. Norms provide a base for controlling behaviour of group members. Norms applied to all the members uniformally and all members are expected strictly adhere to them.

Norms in certain companies prescribe for a typical kind of dress for its members. Individual members and group benefit from the norms. They make the members to identify themselves with the group. Norms play a significant role in disciplining the members of a group so that they work regularly; attend the plant or office daily. This reduces absenteeism and employee turnover. Norms control work behaviour, the term came to be known since famous Hawthorne experiments conducted by Elton Mayo and associates. Norms are formed in respect of consequences. The members of the group are expected to stick up to norms strictly. This will make the group more cohesive, increase satisfaction. The members get more support from the group. According to Rensis Likert, "group forces are very important in influencing the behaviour of an individual, and the members of an informal group conform to group norms."

The development of norms takes place because of experience of some senior members of the group. The behaviour of the members also plays an important role in setting norms. Norms are developed through decisions, supervisors instructions to his subordinates and some critical incidents in member's life. Norms need to be enforced strictly because they ensure survival of

group. For regulation of behaviour of group member's strict enforcement of norms become necessary.

Group Behaviour:

Management must understand the group behaviour because it affects productivity, day-to-day administration, communication etc. Management cannot free itself from the influence of group. A supervisor is the link between management and group.

He communicates the decisions of top management to the employees at lower level and the feeling of the staff at lower level reaches top management through supervisor. He is at the key position. He must therefore understand group behaviour and make use of the group for achievement of organisational goals.

He makes use of their energy for attaining those tasks which were lying unattended so far. Supervisor can easily obtain the cooperation of the group leader in task accomplishment that can yield results. He can develop good relationship with group by providing good working environment. Group behaviour can be task oriented and human relations oriented.

Through group various tasks can be accomplished and better human relations can be developed. Moreno has developed a socio-metric analysis to study work group behaviour. Under this method self reports from group members are obtained indicating likes and dislikes of working with other members of group. A socio-gram is prepared on the basis of information. This analysis helps in comparing results with formal requirement. Group behaviour can be effectively utilized for implementing change.

GROUP DECISION MAKING

Group decision-making (also known as **collaborative decision-making** or **collective decision-making**) is a situation faced when individuals collectively make a choice from the alternatives before them. The decision is then no longer attributable to any single individual who is a member of the group. This is because all the individuals and social group processes such as social influence contribute to the outcome. The decisions made by groups are often different from those made by individuals. In workplace settings, collaborative decision-making is one of the most successful models to generate buy-in from other stakeholders, build consensus, and

encourage creativity. According to the idea of <u>synergy</u>, decisions made collectively also tend to be more effective than decisions made by a single individual. In this vein, certain collaborative arrangements have the potential to generate better net performance outcomes than individuals acting on their own.[1] Under normal everyday conditions, collaborative or group decision-making would often be preferred and would generate more benefits than individual decision-making when there is the time for proper deliberation, discussion, and dialogue. This can be achieved through the use of committee, teams, groups, partnerships, or other collaborative social processes.

However, in some cases, there can also be drawbacks to this method. In extreme emergencies or crisis situations, other forms of decision-making might be preferable as emergency actions may need to be taken more quickly with less time for deliberation. On the other hand, additional considerations must also be taken into account when evaluating the appropriateness of a decision-making framework. For example, the possibility of <u>group polarization</u> also can occur at times, leading some groups to make more extreme decisions than those of its individual members, in the direction of the individual inclinations. There are also other examples where the decisions made by a group are flawed, such as the <u>Bay of Pigs invasion</u>, the incident on which the <u>groupthink</u> model of group decision-making is based.

Factors that impact other social <u>group behaviours</u> also affect group decisions. For example, groups high in <u>cohesion</u>, in combination with other antecedent conditions (e.g. ideological homogeneity and insulation from dissenting opinions) have been noted to have a negative effect on group decision-making and hence on group effectiveness. Moreover, when individuals make decisions as part of a group, there is a tendency to exhibit a bias towards discussing shared information (i.e. <u>shared information bias</u>), as opposed to unshared information.

BRAINSTORMING

Brainstorming is a popular idea invention and problem solving technique. Brainstorming is a method that is used by leaders and managers when they need to deal with complex problems. Brainstorming helps when there is need to manifest the next steps in difficult situations.

Brainstorming is a group creativity technique that is often used to find a solution to a specific problem. This is accomplished by gathering and recording new ideas from team members in a free-flowing manner. Brainstorming sessions are usually made up of a handful of core team members, and typically are led by a director or facilitator.

Brainstorming originated from an advertising executive named Alex F. Osborne, and dates back to around 1939. Frustrated with his employees' inability to generate creative new ideas, Osborne began developing new methods for problem solving that focused on a team-based approach to work. He began hosting group-thinking sessions, and discovered that this approach led to a significant boost in the quality and quantity of new ideas. Osborne coined these group meetings "brainstorm" sessions, and wrote about the technique in later publications.

During these brainstorming sessions, ideas are collected and recorded using whatever tool is available to the team. Modern businesses have begun to adopt digital brainstorming tools to speed up the process and make the review phases faster and more productive. Quantity of ideas is usually emphasized over quality, with the goal of generating as many new suggestions as possible. Once all ideas have been collected, the team then evaluates each of them and focuses on the ones that are most likely to solve the problem.

STEPS TO BRAINSTORMING:

1. **Plan Brainstorming Session:** Plan the activities you want to cover in the session. You can brainstorm individually or this can take place in-group. It is good to have 4 to 6 people at most. Make a Plan who is going to participate and let them know in advance. It will make sure that everyone has already done some research. Choose a peaceful place. Have a pen, paper and documents/tools having pitch of the problem. Set a fixed timeline such as half or one hour. Stay away from mails and Silent your phone. Make sure no distraction is there during the session.

2. **Prepare a Graph or Structure:** Write down the problem and available options. This is the most important thing. Prepare an Activity chart or Affinity Diagrams. Affinity diagrams are my favourite way to organize information. They help sort out common ideas into one theme. It helps when multiple activities are messing with each other.

3. **Discuss the problem, but Focus on the solution:** Now discuss about the problem and available options. Focus on a single set of theme or ideas that is most important first. Consider everyone's opinion. Let each of them brainstorms. Make a <u>List</u> of the pros and cons of each choice. It helps appropriate decision-making later.

4. **Take a break and open up minds:** A short break of 5 minutes refreshes mind and helps us to <u>detach</u> from the problem. It helps us to come up with an efficient solution. Cool down and Take a glass of water.

5. **Focus on Priorities:** Draw the relationship between various tasks. Classify the dependent and independent tasks. Keep independent task at different place and draw dependent tasks into an organized chart together as displayed in the <u>Wiki</u>. It assists us assigning priority to task on which other tasks are dependent.

6. **Finalize the solution:** You should be good to take a decision based on the priorities, pros and cons of various options available. I believe you will be able to find some new ideas in the brainstorming session as well. Choose the creative one. As Salvador Dali said, "Have no fear of perfection, you'll never reach it". Therefore, finalize the optimal solution.

7. **Action Steps:** Write down the next action steps. Assigning some timeline ensures faster process in execution. If you are not able to conclude a decision, you have a clear and reasonable perspective now. Therefore, do some more research and plan another session to brainstorm. Yeah, it is worth it.

The four principles of brainstorming

While brainstorming has evolved over the years, Osborne's four underlying principles are a great set of guidelines when running your own sessions. These principles include:

- **Quantity over quality.** The idea is that quantity will eventually breed quality as ideas are refined, merged, and developed further.

- **Withhold criticism.** Team members should be free to introduce any and all ideas that come into their heads. Save feedback until after the idea collection phase so that "blocking" does not occur.

- **Welcome the crazy ideas.** Encouraging your team members to think outside of the box, and introduce pie in the sky ideas opens the door to new and innovative techniques that may be your ticket for success.

- **Combine, refine, and improve ideas.** Build on ideas, and draw connections between different suggestions to further the problem solving process.

Brainstorming techniques and processes helps your team innovate and work collaboratively. There's no single right way to hold a brainstorming session. In fact, holding individual or reverse brainstorming sessions can both be helpful activities for generating new ideas. Your goal should always be to use the process that works best for you and your team.

Why is brainstorming important?

If you've ever held a brainstorming session, you likely know that they can be very effective for generating new ideas, and finding solutions to a problem. This is largely due to the many advantages of brainstorming that helps teams work more collaboratively towards a common goal.

Some of the advantages of brainstorming for businesses and individual productivity include:

1. Brainstorming allows people to think more freely, without fear of judgment.

2. Brainstorming encourages open and ongoing collaboration to solve problems and generate innovative ideas.

3. Brainstorming helps teams generate a large number of ideas quickly, which can be refined and merged to create the ideal solution.

4. Brainstorming allows teams to reach conclusions by consensus, leading to a better-rounded and better informed path forward.

5. Brainstorming helps team members feel more comfortable bouncing ideas off one another, even outside of a structured session.

6. Brainstorming introduces different perspectives, and opens the door to out-of-the-box innovations.

7. Brainstorming helps team members get ideas out of their heads and into the world, where they can be expanded upon, refined, and put into action.

8. Brainstorming is great for team building. No one person has ownership over the results, enabling an absolute team effort.

In summary, the core advantages of brainstorming are its ability to unlock creativity by collaboration. It's the perfect technique to use for coming together as a team, and can help to generate exciting new ideas that can take your business to a new level.

UNIT-IV

COURSE CONTENT:

Power -concept-importance -types-power distribution -Organisational factors in power distribution-concentration of power -tactics to gain power -authority :concept -authority Vs power-major qualities essential for leadership styles.

UNIT - IV

CONCEPT OF POWER

The concept of power refers to the capacity that a person has to influence the behaviour of another person. The influencing person influences another person to make them act in accordance with the influencing persons' wishes. Moreover, in other words, power exists as a potential or fully actualizing influence over a dependent relationship. Many may be unaware of casual trivia that organizational power is also known as power politics.

Definition of 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.

IMPORTANCE OF POWER

Existence and use of power are endemic to every organization. So it is very important from the organization's point of view. The importance of power in an organization can be judged from the following points:

It is necessary for survival and growth: There are so many jobs in an organization and each job has its different value to the organization. Some jobs are more important for organizational survival and growth than others. The importance of the job itself brings power to those jobholders regardless of the individual and their leadership qualities. Such job holders influence decisions.

The organization itself allocates power: The importance of power lies in the fact that the organization itself allocates power to the persons. It does so in two ways:

- by creating hierarchical levels, i.e., structural power, and

- By dividing work among members resulting in specialization, i.e., functional power.

The organization gives the authority to personal having structural power in order to enable him to play his role assigned to him in that hierarchical chain. The higher the hierarchical level the greater the amount of authority.

Structural power is institutionalized power. But simply holding the power does not make the position-holder powerful unless he makes use of it. If he does not question the erosion of his power, it will weaken.

IMPORTANCE OF POWER IN AN ORGANIZATION

Functional power is derived from the fancies one performs, i.e., the jobs that one does. The division of labour and specialization provides dependence upon one another. That dependence creates power. The important job an individual does; the greater is his power. The power is increased by the scarce skill, experience, access to higher authorities, and information. Thus, the power position in an organization is very important from the organizational point of view. The organization must consider the power centres before taking any decision.

TYPES OF POWER

Formal Power

Formal power is based on an individual's position in an organization. Formal power can come from the ability to coerce or reward, from formal authority, or the control of information.

The formal power is based on rank—for example, the fire chief or the captain.

Legitimate Power

In the formal groups and organizations, probably the most frequent access to one or more of the power bases is one's structural position. This is called legitimate power.

Legitimate power is also known as positional power. It's derived from the position a person holds in an organization's hierarchy.

Job descriptions, for example, require junior workers to report to managers and give managers the power to assign duties to their juniors. For positional power to be exercised effectively, the person wielding it must be deemed to have earned it legitimately.

An example of legitimate power is held by a company's CEO.

Expert Power

Expert power is influence wielded as a result of expertise, special skill, or knowledge. Expert power is derived from possessing knowledge or expertise in a particular area.

Such people are highly valued by organizations for their problem-solving skills.

People who have expert power perform critical tasks and are therefore deemed indispensable. The opinions, ideas, and decisions of people with expert power are held in high regard by other employees and hence greatly influence their actions.

Possession of expert power is normally a stepping stone to other sources of power such as legitimate power.

For example, a person who holds expert power can be promoted to senior management, thereby giving him legitimate power.

Referent Power

Referent power is based on identification with a person who has desirable resources or personal traits.

If I like, respect, and admire you, you can exercise power over me because I want to please you. It is derived from the interpersonal relationships that a person cultivates with other people in the organization.

People possess reference power when others respect and like them. Referent power is also derived from personal connections that a person has with key people in the organization's hierarchy, such as the CEO.

It's the perception of the personal relationships that she has that generates her power over others.

Coercive Power

Coercive power is derived from a person's ability to influence others via threats, punishments or sanctions.

A junior staff member may work late to meet a deadline to avoid disciplinary action from his boss. Coercive power is, therefore, a person's ability to punish fire or reprimand another employee.

Coercive power helps control the behavior of employees by ensuring that they adhere to the organization's policies and norms.

Reward Power

The opposite of coercive power is reward power. People comply with the wishes or directives of another because doing so produces positive benefits; therefore, one who can distribute rewards that others view as valuable will have power over those others.

These rewards can be either financial – such as controlling pay rates, raises, and bonuses; or nonfinancial – including merit recognition, promotions, interesting work assignments, friendly colleagues, and preferred work shifts or sales territories.

In an organization, people who wield reward power tend to influence the actions of other employees. Reward power, if used well, greatly motivates employees.
But if it's applied through favoritism, reward power can greatly demoralize employees and diminish their output.

Informational Power

Informational power is where a person possesses needed or wanted information. It comes from access to and control over information. This is a short-term power that doesn't necessarily influence or build credibility.

For example, a project manager may have all the information for a specific project and that will give him/her "informational power."

But it's hard for a person to keep this power for long, and eventually, this information will be released. This should not be a long-term strategy.

Connection Power

It is where a person attains influence by gaining favor or simply acquaintance with a powerful person.

This power is all about networking. If I have a connection with someone that you want to get to, that's going to give me power.

People employing this power build important coalitions with others. It is a natural ability to forge such connections with individuals and assemble them into coalitions that give him/her strong connection power.

Political Power

This power comes from the support of a group. It arises from a leader's ability to work with people and social systems to gain their allegiance and support.

It develops in all the state-owned organizations, especially when a certain political party holds power and their supporters show power in many aspects in the organizations.

By using political power, leaders can influence others and get some facilities from the organization.

Charismatic Power

Charismatic power is an extension of referent power stemming from an individual's personality and interpersonal style.

Charismatic leaders get others to follow them because they can articulate an attractive vision, take personal risks, demonstrate environmental and follower sensitivity, and are willing to engage in behavior that most others consider unconventional.

But many organizations will have people with charismatic qualities who, while not in formal leadership positions, nevertheless can exert influence over others because of the strength of their heroic qualities.

The above-mentioned bases/types of power are normally practiced in many organizations.

But, indeed, all the powers are not seen in a single organization. The uses of powers vary organization to organization, time to time, person to person, situation to situation, etc.

USES OF POWER

Power can be used by a variety of people in a variety of ways. The uses of power encompass two related aspects;

power bases, requests from individuals possessing power and probable outcomes as correlated in the form of prescriptions for the manager, and general guidelines for the exercise of power.

The three potential outcomes of a person's attempted use of power depend on:

The leader's power base

How that power base is operationalized; and

Certain characteristics of the follower

Commitment is the likely outcome when the follower identifies with the leader and accepts the leader's power attempt. Compliance is probably the outcome when the subordinate is willing to accept the leader's desires, provided acceptance does not require extra effort on the subordinate's part.

Resistance is the usual outcome when the subordinate is unwilling to comply and may even deliberately neglect to ensure that the leader's wishes are not realized.

Using Referent Power

Referent power can be a great asset to a leader. Leaders can develop and maintain referent power through the following activities:

Treat subordinate fairly and equitably

Defining the subordinate's best interests

Demonstrate sensitivity to the needs and feelings of the subordinates.

Select subordinates who are similar to the leader.

Be an active and positive role model.

Using Expert Power

Expert power can also be of considerable help to the leader in achieving subordinate acceptance. To reach and hold a high level of expert power, a leader should:

Promote his or her image of expertise

Maintain expert credibility

Behave in a confident and decisive manner

Keep informed and up-to-date.

Recognize the concerns of subordinates.

Avoid threatening the self-esteem of subordinates.

Using Legitimate Power

Leaders exercise legitimate power by formally and consistently requesting subordinates to do things that help the group achieve pre-established group objectives.

Guidelines for the use of legitimate power include the following:

Always be cordial and polite with subordinates.

Maintain an air of confidence in the legitimate power role.

Clarify instructions carefully and follow-up to verify understanding.

Be certain that the request is appropriate.

Explain the reasons for the request.

Follow proper organizational channels.

Exercise legitimate power regularly and consistently.

Demonstrate sensitivity to the concerns of subordinates.

Using Reward Power

Reward power is generally the easiest and most enjoyable power base for both the leader and the subordinate. The potential values of the reward power base can be maximized by adhering to a few basic guidelines, as follows:

Verify performance and compliance

Make requests to subordinates that are both feasible and reasonable.

Make only those requests that are ethical and proper.

Offer and distribute rewards that are desired by the subordinates.

Offer only those rewards that are credible. –

Using Coercive Power

Coercive power is the most difficult and unpleasant power to administer. The use of coercion is almost certainly going to cause some resentment and, in some cases, it can result in large scale resentment and retaliation.

Even minor resentment tends to erode the referent power of the leader. About the best that a leader can hope for as a result of using coercion is compliance, and that is possible only if the coercion is applied in a helpful, non-punitive manner.

However, every time coercive power is utilized, the leader must recognize that resistance is the most common outcome. To minimize the amount of resistance and to nurture compliance the leader must:

Be sure that all subordinates fully understand all rules.

Warn subordinates before punishing them.

Administer punishment uniformly and consistently.

Be sure you fully understand the situation before acting.

Maintain leader credibility.

Be certain that the punishment matches the infraction.

Always punish in private.

When managers, especially inexperienced managers, attempt the use of coercive power, they should use great care to minimize the many negative consequences of the action.

In punishing a given subordinate, the manager is in danger of winning the better but losing the war. Punishment must be administered with a special blend of support, good intentions, and firmness.

ORGANIZATION FACTORS IN POWER DISTRIBUTION :

Politics:

Politics or politicking is always present in every organization whether large or small. People indulge in politics not only as individuals but more often as groups. They get divided into blocks, camps, cliques, or groups: Its intensity increases as the issue concerned assumes importance from the concerned party's point of view and if there is a fairly good chance of turning the decision in favor of the party.

People playing politics are engaged in content for power and ethics and goals have no concern with them. They play an opportunistic role and expediency is their motto. Dalton identified six major areas in which such politics is played in spite of various problems in that area:

- Pressures for economy

- Cooperation of officially powerless experts

- Conflicts between labor and management for interpreting agreements;

- Uncertainties about standards and strategies of promotion

- Difficulty in linking reward with productivity; and

- The practicality of politics.

Inducement of force to mold the behavior:

The demonstration of power occurs when an individual induces a force on another person to mold his behavior according to his choice. It means that there is no evidence of power unless it is exercised.

External Environment:

External environment casts a serious influence on an organization that is constantly responding and adjusting to it.

Thus, the expression of power is affected not only by internal organizational elements; but is also induced by external forces like banks, insurance companies, government agencies which came in contact with the business organization, influence the decision-making power of the organization.

The earlier, the external forces enter into a decision-making process, the greater the influence they have.

DISTRIBUTION OF POWER

Therefore, power is horizontally distributed among an organization's organs by **distributing the tasks an organization's function entails to the organs of this organization, which results in specific powers**.

Two Models for Power Distribution

Power distribution within organizations ought to be analysed in terms of (1) attribution of an organization's function(s) to its organs; (2) the tasks or roles organs are attributed in each organizational function; and, (3) specific powers exercised by organs for fulfilling the task(s) or role(s) they are attributed. A consequence of this approach might be that each organization's power structure is unique to a certain extent, since organizations' functions are inherently unique. However, such a feature is also present when analysing state power and does not in itself prevent constitutional scholars from analysing and classifying states according to their power structure. Since the technique for distributing power remains fundamentally the same in either

case, similar features can be observed and allow for classifying organizations' power structures according to abstract (and somehow ideal) types.

Although the horizontal and vertical models apply differently within organizations than within states, relationships among organs that result there from remain almost identical when analysed from a technical angle. This implies that, while criteria for the distribution of powers differ, the analytical framework built by constitutional analysis is relevant to the organizations. This allows the qualification of mutual relations among organs along the same lines: the vertical model results in subordinate relations and ultimately in hierarchy, while the horizontal model results in relations unbound by hierarchy, which implies cooperation and mutual control.

First Model: Horizontal Distribution of Power

The absence of hierarchy is the main characteristic of the horizontal model. Instead it generates concurrent relations among organs, which can result in either cooperation or competition. Since in this model the functions, tasks, or powers are attributed to distinct organs that are not in a hierarchical relationship, the issue that matters for analytical and practical purposes alike is whether these organs need to cooperate to act or if they can operate in their own right. According to constitutional theory, power can be distributed according to three main types on a horizontal plane. Power can be concentrated or distributed. When it is distributed, the resulting division can be rigid—that is to say, each of the organs is endowed with some power operate in isolation—or *flexible—*implying that the organs need to cooperate to exercise their powers, although the modalities of cooperation are specific to each case.

Most organizations are characterised by the concentration of power within one organ, which is often plenary and intergovernmental. In contrast to this familiar structure, cases where organs need to cooperate with each other for acting—thus showing a flexible division of powers—are unusual, although they do occur in so-called political organizations with complex power structures such as the UN or the EU. Finally, a rigid separation of powers among organs that be each entrusted with their own functions and operating in total independence does not seem to be a usual feature. An organ being independent happens mostly in cases where its functioning intrinsically requires its isolation from the rest of the organization's structure, which arises from the peculiar nature of its function or task, such as judicial organs and bodies tasked

with protecting individual rights and freedoms. These entities need independence to prevent them from being affected by political interference (and may be also from generating interference). Hence cases of organs that are absolutely separate from an organization's structure likely belong to the two other types (concentrated and flexible division), to which they are a sort of adjunct, rather than to an original type. Although one organ may be isolated from the rest of an organization's structure, such a feature does not underlie the organization's overall structure. There are thus three types of power distribution that arise from applying the horizontal model to organizations, which reflect what constitutional theory observed in addressing state power: (1) no distribution of power (concentration); and when distribution happens, (2) a flexible division of powers that calls for concerned organs cooperating; or (3) a rigid division of powers that is mainly reflected in one organ being isolated from an organization's overall structure for specific purposes but is rarely implemented as underlying an entire organizational structure.

Second Model: Vertical Distribution of Power

The vertical model is plainly manifested within organizations with a function comprised of several tasks, because their structure becomes naturally more complex in the process of delegating tasks and related powers. Certainly, the increased number of similar legal situations that an organization has to deal with in performing its functions causes the need for powers to be delegated to specialised subordinate bodies. Yet at the same time, delegating powers implies that organs entrusted with delegated powers also receive some autonomy in exercising these powers.

A vertical distribution of power implies subordinate relationships among organs that results in an overall hierarchy. For the purpose of building models, subordination might not be understood too strictly; one organ merely appointing another organ's members may indeed not be enough to describe the former as being subordinate to the latter. This is especially the case for international organizations, a common feature of which is that all organs ultimately proceed from plenary intergovernmental organ decisions—but that does not necessarily mean that the latter retains control over those bodies of which it appoints. Hence, instead of focusing on modalities for designating organs' members, subordination might be sought in the way organs exercise their powers with the degree of autonomy they receive in doing so as a criterion. Autonomy can manifest in different degrees. Roughly, an organ that is subordinate to another may be given

some discretion through either (1) a variable margin of appreciation for exercising its powers; or (2) autonomy that provides it with the capacity for initiating its own proceedings; or further, (3) independence manifested by a separate international personality, consequently leading the organ to be liable for the powers it exercises and consequences thereof. In addition, in between these stages there is a great variety in degrees of autonomy, which are hard to classify since the specifics differ from organ to organ.

Hence, as a matter of legal technique, there are three main types within the vertical model: (A) organs which are organized in a strict hierarchy with subordinate organs having no capacity to act on their own; (B) subordinate organs which are given some autonomy, the degree of which is admittedly variable; and (C) organs that are delegated powers which are independent through the endowment of an international personality of their own (which thus makes them separate international organizations in their own right) but remain connected to the organization from which they originate by a specific institutional and normative framework akin to 'systems' of organizations observed in the vertical model, albeit more limited. In such cases, while the organ that became a separate organization might have to follow directions from the system-directing organs that are those of the organization from which it became independent, it also performs its own functions independently.

When powers are distributed with autonomy such as in the second modality (B) described above, and depending on the degree of this autonomy, the resulting power structure is comparable to states with a power structure located in the continuum between decentralisation and federalism. By contrast, the third modality (C) described above reflects features that are usually found in confederations.

CONCENTRATION OF POWER :

Group ranking (in terms of efficacy)	Influence bases	Corresponding power base
1	Work challenge	Expert power
	Expertise	Expert power
	Authority	Legitimate power
2	Influence over salary	Reward/legitimate power
	Fund allocation power	Legitimate power
	Future work assignment	Expert power
3	Influence over promotions	Reward/legitimate power
	Friendship	Referent power
	Penalty power	Coercive/legitimate power

The Concept of Power Tactics

There are 9 organizational power tactics. These tactics are ways in which individuals translate power bases into specific actions. The 9 influence tactics are rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, consultation, ingratiation, personal appeals, exchange, coalitions , pressure and legitimacy.

Rational persuasion. A tactic that is used to try and convince someone with a valid reason, rational logic, or realistic facts.

Inspirational appeals. A tactic that builds enthusiasm by appealing to emotions, ideas and/or values.

Consultation. A tactic that focuses on getting others to participate in the planning process, making decisions, and encourage changes.

Ingratiation. A tactic that emphasizes on getting someone in a good mood prior to making a request. It includes being friendly, helpful, and using praise or flattery.

Personal appeals. A tactic that refers to friendship and loyalty while making a request.

Exchange. A tactic that suggests that making express or implied promises and trading favours.

Coalition tactics. Refers to a tactic that prescribes getting others to support your effort to persuade someone.

Pressure. A tactic that focuses on demanding compliance or using intimidation or threats.

Legitimating tactics. This tactic suggests that basing a request on one's authority or right, organizational rules or policies, or express or implied support from superiors, is the best.

AUTHORITY :

Authority is characterized as the institutionalized and legal power inherent in a job role, or position that allows the holder of the job to perform his or her responsibilities effectively. It is assigned officially and legally. Authority means a particular authorization obtained from a person's higher officer and based on which a person is entitled to do the work in an organization. It is important for administrative functions. Without authority, no person can carry out his duties with full responsibility.

This includes the right to monitor a situation, commit funds, issue orders, and demand them to be obeyed. It is followed by accountability for one's acts and failures to execute actions. Additionally, true authority often means that the authority is recognized by the aim.

CONCEPT OF AUTHORITY

- The secret to managerial employment is authority. Authority is the cornerstone of the organization to the degree that an organization is defined as a system of relationships between authorities. Authority has a variety of meanings in daily life; it may refer to an individual with superior expertise and skills in a specific field; it may apply to certain officials such as a police commissioner, a university vice-chancellor, or a company's managing director; the word 'registered dealer' also has a different connotation, that of a legally-constituted relationship.

- The Authority shall be allowed to make a decision on a matter given or assigned by the superiors. Taking decisions is not sufficient. The decisions are made by those given the responsibility of enforcing the said decision. Authority here becomes a right to order and even to execute the decisions.

In short, the Authority can be defined as:

- A legitimate right to a decision that may be given or assigned,

- Entitlement to command,

- The right to see that the decision is implemented properly and honestly

Characteristics of Authority

- **Basis of Getting Things Done:** Authority grants the right to do something in an organization and to control the actions of the other employees of the organization. It immediately contributes to the completion of certain activities for the achievement of the stated goals.

- **Legitimacy:** Authority means a legal right open to superiors (within the company itself). This type of right exists because of the practice of authenticity, custom, or norms agreed upon in an institution. Based on an organizational hierarchy, the right of a manager to influence the behavior of his subordinates is granted to him.

- **Decision Making:** A prerequisite of authority is decision-making. The manager may order his subordinates to behave or not to act. The manager makes this form of decision concerning the operation of an office.

- **Implementation:** Implementation affects the manager's personality. The subordinates or group of subordinates should obey the manager's orders as to the execution of decisions. One manager's personality factor may vary from another manager.

Features of Authority:

- It is an individual's legitimate right.

- It enables staff to be determined by the placeholder.

- It means the right to seek compliance.

- It is practiced in a certain manner to control the actions of subordinates.

- It moves within the organization from top to bottom.

- It is the ultimate organizing power, and it unites the various individuals who work in the company.

- It is used to accomplish organizational goals.

Authority vs power

Though the concepts of Authority and Power are related to each other, there are some differences between them which are outlined as follows:

Power is referred to as the ability to influence the attitude and behavior of an individual whereas authority is particular authorization obtained from the higher end.

Authority is the legal and formal right to give orders and commands, and take decisions. Power is a personal trait, i.e. an acquired ability, whereas authority is a formal right, that vest in the hands of high officials or management personnel.

Power is a personal trait derived from knowledge and expertise, while authority is a formal title or position given by an organization or another personal.

Ability vs Right: Power is a generalized ability endowed in an individual to influence the actions of others. Authority is vested in formal managerial or administrative positions. It gives the position holder the right to influence behavior and to demand compliance. Legitimate formal position is only one of the bases of power. Thus authority is a form of power. Power is a broader concept than authority.

Formal-non-formal: Authority is generally associated with formal organizations. But the other bases of power operate and become effective in non-formal situations also. Authority has rational legal implications while power may or may not have such implications.

Personal-Impersonal: Authority is impersonally vested in job positions. But the other bases of power, as for example, charisma, knowledge, and reference have personalized bases and need not flow from the position held by the individual power holder concerned. This means

that authority can be delegated. But power based on other sources-for example, experience cannot be delegated.

Degree of structure: Authority is more structured in organizations and governed by several due forces, procedures and constraints. It flows downwards and can be exercised in a well defined, functional manner only. On the other hand, some forms of power are less structured. They are more flexible and open. They flow not only downwards, but also upwards and sideways as for example, the power of subordinates to withhold co-operation to their superior. In power relationships based on sources other than authority, there are no fixed superiors and subordinates.

Association with responsibility: Authority and responsibility go together while in the case of other forms of power, a sense of responsibility may or may not co-exist with them. For example, an individual may make use of his expertise in making bombs and explosives, to terrorize people. It amounts to exercise of expert power without responsibility.

Nature of compliance: Compliance to "authority attempts" or to the exercise of authority by a manager in organizational situations and on task related matters, is mandatory on the part of subordinates and is not left to their free will. Defiance of authority by subordinates is normally regarded as insubordination and is liable to be viewed seriously. But in the case of some other bases of power, compliance is not mandatory. For example, one may disregard the expert opinions of a group or individual and get away with it.

Elements of Authority

There are 5 elements of authority which are explained below.

- **Usage of Power:** In other words, there is a power where there is an authority based on which the authorized person gives orders and instructions to other persons under his/her jurisdiction.

- **Influential Personality:** If the power is assigned to a person of influential personality, he can make successful use of these powers, easily because his orders are readily accepted by the subordinates.

- **Performance:** An essential aspect of authority is the need for the exercise of authority control. Such success can take place in various ways, such as with the application and issuing orders in writing, etc.

- **Effective Leadership:** The individual with authority must be an effective leader so that his subordinates can be guided and his subordinates can obey his instructions in turn.

- **Influence the Subordinates:** The person having authority must have a quality impact on his subordinates for the successful exercise of authority to be able to recognize and comply with his orders

Relationship Between Authority and Responsibility

Authority can be defined as the legal right of a person or superior to command his subordinates. On the other hand, accountability refers to the duty of an individual to carry out his performance as per the company standards. The direction of the flow of authority is from the superiors to subordinates. During this flow of authority, subordinates receive orders and instructions from their superiors on the nature and time frame to complete the task. It is only by the use of the authority that a manager exercises control and demands accountability from his subordinates.

For example, it is the marketing manager who directs the sales supervisor for the sale of a specified number of units within a pre-scheduled deadline (such as in a month/ yearly goals). If the set standards are not satisfactorily accomplished, it is the marketing manager who will be accountable to the chief executive officer. This example illustrates how authority flows from top to bottom and why responsibility flows from bottom to top. Accountability is a result of responsibility and responsibility in turn is achieved through authority. Therefore, authority and accountability always go hand in hand.

BASIS FOR COMPARISON	POWER	AUTHORITY
Meaning	Power means the ability or potential of an individual to influence others and control their actions.	The legal and formal right to give orders and commands, and take decisions is known as an Authority.
What is it?	It is a personal trait.	It is a formal right, given to the high officials.
Source	Knowledge and expertise.	Position & office
Hierarchy	Power does not follow any hierarchy.	Authority follows the hierarchy.
Resides with	Person	Designation
Legitimate	No	Yes

1. *Source of Power and Authority*

Power is generally the product of personal traits like charisma and expertise. Power can be learned and gained, and generally the more knowledgeable a person is in their field, the more power they have. Similarly to charisma, power depends on the way others view a person; if they do not consider you powerful, then you will lack power.

Authority is a title given from an outside source, such as an organization, a government, or another person. While a person in authority may have personal traits that also make them powerful, their authority is derived from their position, not from within themselves. A person can be given authority while having very little personal power, although this is not considered strategic for an organization.

2. *Formality in Power and Authority*

Power, compared to authority, is an informal method of influence. A person or organization does not need to have any formal status within a hierarchy to become powerful. For example, an employee with a high level of experience and technical expertise will often become powerful and influential to their peers, managers, and clients, even if they do not hold a managerial title.

Authority is a formal method of influence. Authority must be given within a hierarchical structure, and cannot be assumed just because someone is powerful. A common example in politics of the difference between authority and power comes from lobbying groups: while lobbyists can gain a great deal of influence toward an agency, they do not have true authority within that agency. Authority is vital within organizations to ensure that work is assigned appropriately, that employees know who they can turn to for help, and that responsibility is taken for mistakes.

3. *Legitimacy of Power and Authority*

Because power is not formalized, it is also not legitimate. An individual's power within an organization or system does not give them any special legal or political rights, like those of civil servants who perform duties civilians cannot.

Authority is both formal and legitimate. The difference between formality and legitimacy lies within legal rights and duties. A soldier or a member of the National Guard performs duties as part of their service that civilians do not typically have the legal right to perform; this comes from the legitimacy of the authority given to the military. Importantly, an organization or government must be interpreted by its clients as legitimate in order for it to truly have authority. In these cases, the legitimacy of the organization depends solely on the trust and perception of the public.

4. *Ability to be Lost*

Power can be lost, but it generally takes repeated mistakes or poor behaviour for someone to lose their power. Because power is built off of expertise and experience, making critical errors, especially in politics or business, can make a powerful person lose their credibility. And while power doesn't require a good personality, it generally requires a level of charisma, so bad personal behaviour or treatment of co-workers can also strip someone of their influence.

Authority is easily lost. An organization can usually take away authority from someone by removing them from the position, or by taking away anything in the position that gave them formal power over others. For example, some government departments have moved managers into positions with the same pay level but have taken away their leadership functions during department restructuring. There are a few instances when someone's position of authority is institutionalized and very difficult to change – the British monarchy still have positions of authority that are extremely difficult to alter, and removing a U.S. Supreme Court Justice is a highly complicated and unpopular process.

5. *Use of Violence in Power and Authority*

People exercising their power often resort to violence or coercion to influence others. This is especially true in politics, where rebel groups or existing governments attempt to violently promote their cause or defeat opposition. While power is not inherently violent, because powerful people often lack authority, violence becomes their preferred method of influence. For many governments or political groups, methods of violence also appear cheaper and faster than diplomacy or other forms of influence.

Legitimate authority by most political science standards is not violent, with the possible exception of declared and symmetrical war. Authority is institutionalized and authoritative positions should have duties or tools that allow people to influence others or complete their work without having to resort to violence. When an authority figure uses violence against civilians or other non-authority figures, the situation becomes "asymmetrical" or unfair, and the authority figure loses legitimacy.

6. *Within System or Without*

Power is perhaps easiest to gain within a specific field or organization, but it doesn't need to be confined to one system. A powerful person will often be recognized as powerful by new people and across disciplines, such as a famous doctor or politician.

Authority doesn't typically apply outside an organization or system, but the system can be very large. A manager at a bank only has authority at their bank, for instance, but the authority of a state trooper extends much further. However, outside the state or the U.S., the state trooper no longer has any legal authority. Any recognition they receive is instead an extension of their personal power.

Top 10 Qualities of a Great Leader

1. Vision

Perhaps the greatest quality any leader can have is vision - the ability to see the big picture of where the organization or team they are working within is headed, what it's capable of, and what it will take to get there.

2. Inspiration

Equally as important as having a vision is the ability to convey that vision to others, and get them excited about it. This means maintaining a positive yet realistic presence within the organization helping team members stay motivated and engaged, and remember what it is that they are working for.

3. Strategic & Critical Thinking

A good leader will be able to think critically about the organization or team they work within, and develop a clear understanding of its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (and how they as an individual can work to support or overcome these). They'll be able to course-correct when necessary, and be able to assess the work they do to determine how it fits into overall organizational strategy and goals.

4. Interpersonal Communication

Good leaders must be able to interact with other people in a way that feels genuine. This does not mean you have to be an extrovert or a people-person to be a leader - there are many excellent leaders who self-identify as introverts! Rather, it means being able to demonstrate empathy, engaging in active listening, and building meaningful working relationships, whether they are a peer or a direct report.

5. Authenticity & Self-Awareness

One of the key ways to become a great leader is to be self-aware enough to understand the strengths and the flaws, and to build an authentic leadership style that's true and do the best work. A leader must be the best possible leader, not try to fit into a mold set by someone else.

6. Open-Mindedness & Creativity

Being a good leader means being open to new ideas, possibilities, and perspectives, and understanding that there's no "right" way to do things. Leadership involves the knowledge that success comes with a willingness to change how things are done and to bring in fresh eyes to

inspire new ideas, in addition to trying to think outside the box as much as possible. Leaders must be able to listen, observe, and be willing to change course when necessary.

7. Flexibility

Leadership also means being adaptable and nimble when the situation calls for it. Nothing ever goes according to plan - whether a leader encounters minor roadblocks or large obstacles, leader will need to be prepared to stop, reassess, and determine a new course of action. Good leaders will embrace the ever-changing nature of business and meet challenges with a flexible attitude - and be able to build inspire that same willingness to adapt in those around them.

8. Responsibility & Dependability

One of the most important qualities a leader can have is a sense of responsibility and dependability. This means displaying those traits in the individual work, but also demonstrating them in the interactions with others. The team members need to know that they can depend on the leader to take on the fair share of work and follow through, support them through tough times, and help them meet both shared and individual goals.

9. Patience & Tenacity

A good leader knows how to take the long view, whether it's of a strategy, a situation, or a goal. Being able to take on any bumps in the road and persist on without getting frustrated or defeated is key—from small projects to corporate vision, patience is a trait that is essential to strong leadership.

10. Continuous Improvement

True leaders know that perfection is a myth - there is always room for improvement on all levels, from the personal to the team to the overall organization. They'll always be willing to help team members find ways to develop new skills or improve upon a weakness, be able to identify and implement strategies for helping the organization as a whole grow, and, perhaps

most importantly, be able to look inward and identify the areas they would like to work on - and then act on them.

LEADERSHIP STYLES:

1. Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is a term used to classify a group of leadership theories that inquire the interactions between leaders and followers. This style of leadership starts with the premise that team members agree to obey their leader totally when they take a job on. The "transaction" is usually that the organization pays the team members, in return for their effort and compliance. As such, the leader has the right to "punish" team members if their work doesn't meet the pre-determined standard. Team members can do little to improve their job satisfaction under transactional leadership. The leader could give team members some control of their income/reward by using incentives that encourage even higher standards or greater productivity. Alternatively a transactional leader could practice "management by exception", whereby, rather than rewarding better work, he or she would take corrective action if the required standards were not met. Transactional leadership is really just a way of managing rather a true leadership style, as the focus is on short-term tasks. It has serious limitations for knowledge-based or creative work, but remains a common style in many organizations.

2. Autocratic Leadership

Under the autocratic leadership styles, all decision-making powers are centralized in the leader as shown such leaders are dictators. Autocratic leadership is an extreme form of transactional leadership, where a leader exerts high levels of power over his or her employees or team members. People within the team are given few opportunities for making suggestions, even if these would be in the team's or organization's interest.

Autocratic leadership style is often considered the classical approach. It is one in which the manager retains as much power and decision-making authority as possible. The manager does not consult employees, nor are they allowed to give any input. Employees are expected to obey orders without receiving any explanations. The motivation environment is produced by

creating a structured set of rewards and punishments. Autocratic leaders make decisions without consulting their teams. This is considered appropriate when decisions genuinely need to be taken quickly, when there's no need for input, and when team agreement isn't necessary for a successful outcome. Many people resent being treated like this. Because of this, autocratic leadership often leads to high levels of absenteeism and staff turnover. Also, the team's output does not benefit from the creativity and experience of all team members, so many of the benefits of teamwork are lost. For some routine and unskilled jobs, however, this style can remain effective, where the advantages of control outweigh the disadvantages.

3. Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a leadership style that is defined as leadership that creates valuable and positive change in the followers. A transformational leader focuses on "transforming" others to help each other, to look out for each other, to be encouraging and harmonious, and to look out for the organization as a whole. In this leadership, the leader enhances the motivation, morale and performance of his follower group. A person with this leadership style is a true leader who inspires his or her team with a shared vision of the future. Transformational leaders are highly visible, and spend a lot of time communicating. They don't necessarily lead from the front, as they tend to delegate responsibility amongst their teams. While their enthusiasm is often infectious, they can need to be supported by "detail people".

In many organizations, both transactional and transformational leadership are needed. The transactional leaders (or managers) ensure that routine work is done reliably, while the transformational leaders look after initiatives that add new value.

4. Servant Leadership

This term, coined by Robert Greenleaf in the 1970s, describes a leader who is often not formally recognized as such. When someone, at any level within an organization, leads simply by virtue of meeting the needs of his or her team, he or she is described as a "servant leader". Servant Leadership's focus was on the leader as a servant, with his or her key role being in developing, enabling and supporting team members, helping them fully develop their potential

and deliver their best. In many ways, servant leadership is a form of democratic leadership, as the whole team tends to be involved in decision-making.

Supporters of the servant leadership model suggest it is an important way ahead in a world where values are increasingly important, and in which servant leaders achieve power on the basis of their values and ideals. Others believe that in competitive leadership situations, people practicing servant leadership can find themselves "left behind" by leaders using other leadership styles. Followers may like the idea of servant leadership so there's something immediately attractive about the idea of having a boss who's a servant leader. People without responsibility for results may like it for its obviously democratic and consensual approach.

5. Charismatic Leadership

The Charismatic Leader and the Transformational Leader can have many similarities, in that the Transformational Leader may well be charismatic. Their main difference is in their basic focus. Whereas the Transformational Leader has a basic focus of transforming the organization and, quite possibly, their followers, the Charismatic Leader may not want to change anything. A charismatic leadership style can appear similar to a transformational leadership style, in that the leader injects huge doses of enthusiasm into his or her team, and is very energetic in driving others forward.

However, charismatic leaders can tend to believe more in themselves than in their teams. This can create a risk that a project, or even an entire organization, might collapse if the leader were to leave because in the eyes of their followers, success is tied up with the presence of the charismatic leader. As such, charismatic leadership carries great responsibility, and needs long-term commitment from the leader.

6. Democratic Leadership or Participative Leadership

Although a democratic leader will make the final decision, he or she invites other members of the team to contribute to the decision-making process. This not only increases job satisfaction by involving employees or team members in what's going on, but it also helps to develop people's skills. Employees and team members feel in control of their own destiny, and

so are motivated to work hard by more than just a financial reward. Democratic leadership can produce high quantity work for long periods of time. Many employees like the trust they receive and respond with cooperation, team spirit, and high morale.

As participation takes time, this style can lead to things happening more slowly than an autocratic approach, but often the end result is better. It can be most suitable where team working is essential, and where quality is more important than speed to market or productivity.

7. Laissez-Faire Leadership

The laissez-faire leadership style is also known as the "hands-off ¨ style. It is one in which the manager provides little or no direction and gives employees as much freedom as possible. All authority or power is given to the employees and they must determine goals, make decisions, and resolve problems on their own.

This French phrase means "leave it be" and is used to describe a leader who leaves his or her colleagues to get on with their work. It can be effective if the leader monitors what is being achieved and communicates this back to his or her team regularly. Most often, laissez-faire leadership works for teams in which the individuals are very experienced and skilled self-starters. Unfortunately, it can also refer to situations where managers are not exerting sufficient control. The advantage of this kind of style is positive only in the case when the employees are very responsible and in case of creative jobs where a person is guided by his own aspirations. In these cases, less direction is required so this style can be good. This style has more disadvantages because usually it is the result of the lack of interest of the leader that leads to his adopting this style. It proves poor management and makes the employees lose their sense of direction and focus. The disinterest of the management and leadership causes the employees to become less interested in their job and their dissatisfaction increases.

8. Bureaucratic Leadership

This is style of leadership that emphasizes procedures and historical methods regardless of their usefulness in changing environments. Bureaucratic leaders attempt to solve problems by adding layers of control, and their power comes from controlling the flow of information. Bureaucratic leaders work "by the book", ensuring that their staff follow procedures exactly.

This is a very appropriate style for work involving serious safety risks such as working with machinery, with toxic substances, at heights or where large sums of money are involved such as cash-handling.

In other situations, the inflexibility and high levels of control exerted can demoralize staff, and can diminish the organization's ability to react to changing external circumstances.

The different leadership styles discussed above proves that leadership styles are the characteristics that critically define the leaders in organizations. They're a mix-and-match of various traits, and goes a long way influence the culture of the whole company and or organization.

UNIT-V

COURSE CONTENT:

Organisational Change and development – Organisationl Culture – International Organisational Behaviour – Conflict – Positive and Negative Aspects of Conflict – Workers' Participation in Management – Advantages and Demerits.

UNIT - V

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

The term change refers to an alteration in a system whether physical, biological, or social. thus **organizational change** is the alteration of work environment in the organization.

Organizational change refers to the actions in which a company or business alters a major component of its organization, such as its culture, the underlying technologies or infrastructure it uses to operate, or its internal processes.

Organizational change may have following features :

➢ Change results from the pressure of both internal and external forces in the organization. It disturbs the existing equilibrium or status quo in the organization.

➢ The change in any part of the organization affects the whole of the organization.

➢ Change will affect the various parts of the organization in varying rates of speed and degrees of significance.

➢ Changes may affect people, structure, technology and other elements of the organization.

➢ Change may be reactive or proactive. When change is brought about due to the pressure of external forces; it is called reactive change. Proactive changes is initiated by the management its own to increase organizational effectiveness.

CAUSES OF ORGANIZATION CHANGE

- 1. **Government policies** - sometimes the government policies change due to which an organization has to bring change. For e.g. when computerization came into existence government banks make their employees change from manual process to computerize. Thus organization has to go for a change.

- 2. **Competition** - In order to sustain in a market any organization has to be competitive in nature as there is cut throat competition. If one company is going for innovation other has to also go for it. For example in case of Coke and Pepsi if one goes for new advertisement another will also go for same and bring change in their advertisement policies.

- 3. **Technology -** Today is the world of new innovation. Day by day new technologies are emerging for example now a days computers have become obsolete and laptops and LCD's have emerged. Hence change is a must.

- 4. **Change in customer requirement** - customer is a king. These days companies produce products as per customers' demand.

- 5. **Change in managerial personnel** - Employees come and leave organization. Every new manager will bring his own new ideas and make employees according to his vision and thus changes occurs in organization.

- 6. **Deficiency in existing organization** - Sometimes the managers in the organization think that there is deficiency in the existing organization system and in order to compete and to survive there must be change in the organization. For example change in system from centralization to decentralization.

HUMAN REACTIONS TO CHANGE

Whenever change is initiated both manager and employees react to it. Human reaction to change depends on the outcomes of the change, particularly its impact on their need satisfaction, often the attitudes of people play a significant role in deciding human response to change.

- 1. **Resistance**-Employees resist a change when they have a feeling that the change is unfavorable for them. Resistance to change becomes more forceful when the employees feel that through resistance they may eliminate the change.

- 2. **Indifference**-Sometimes people don't react to change either positively or negatively. The reason may be that either they fail to interpret the outcome of the change on their need satisfaction, or they feel that it has nothing to do with them.

- 3. **Acceptance**-If employees perceive that the change is favorable for them they will accept the change. They can do it in two ways. First they may accept change and adopt it. Second they may anticipate change and plan for it.

RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Resistance to change is very common phenomenon. Not only employees but organizational members such as top management people will also resist change.

Individual factors for resistance to change:

1. **Problem of adjustment** - Perhaps most important factor for resistance to change is the problem of adjustment. Each individual tries to maintain a sort of equilibrium both at formal level as well as at informal level.

2. **Economic reason** - People resist to change if they feel that it is likely to affect them unfavorably so far as their economic needs are concerned.

3. **Emotional factor** - There are many emotional factors which resist change, especially if the past experience with the change level not been positive.

4. **Fear of unknown** - Change is future oriented. Therefore some amount of uncertainty is always there. People will not ready to accept change because of two reasons. First, people may derive benefits or otherwise in future while they have to pay the cost at the present. Second, future is uncertain and the impact may be different from the expectations.

5. **Ego defensiveness** - sometimes people resist change because it is ego deflating. Everyone has some ego. It is the state of a person's way of behaving, thinking, and feeling. Any attack on ego will be resisted.

6. **Social displacements** - Whenever change takes place it often results in social displacement of people like breaking of informal groups and relationship. As a result there is a possibility for the employees to experience psychological let down. Therefore they dislike change.

NEED OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Organizational development is a dynamic technique, it uses the behavioral science knowledge to cope up with the change. Every organization wants to compete and to survive in the long run. Organizational development plays a vital role to fulfill the need of survival of organization.

1. **Training for change** - Change is compulsory in the organization to survive in the long run. So **organizational development** creates an easy environment in the organization to bring changes.

2. **Responsive organizational culture** - Organizational development helps in making the organizational culture more responsive. It works in all the directions of organization.

BENEFITS OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

1. It gives more emphasis on human resources rather than on any other physical resources.

2. It helps in development of human resources by initiating change.

3. It provides opportunities and challenges for the human beings to use their abilities.

4. It helps to achieve organizational effectiveness.

LIMITATIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

1. **Organizational development** is based on behavioral science approach which itself has too many limitations.

2. **Organizational development** is applicable on the basis of circumstances available in organization, So if the circumstances are not proper, it can put limitation on the effectiveness of **organizational development**.

THEMES OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

1. **Planned change** - Change means the new state of things and is different from old state of things. Change is everywhere due to internal as well as external factors. External factors may include competition; customer and technology. Internal factors may include new market opportunities, increasing diverse work force, new direction etc.

2. **Consultant's role/distinctive consulting method** - leader in organization hire an **organizational development** practitioner to solve the problem. The expert establishes relationship with the members of the organization. The practitioner does not provide any solution

to the problem but he provides the learning to the members that how they should solve the problem by themselves.

3. **Action research model** - It is described as a process that involves series of events and actions.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE:

Organizational culture is the collection of values, expectations, and practices that guide and inform the actions of all team members. A great culture exemplifies positive traits that lead to improved performance, while a dysfunctional company culture brings out qualities that can hinder even the most successful organizations.

QUALITIES OF A GREAT ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Every organization's culture is different, and it's important to retain what makes the company unique. However, the cultures of high-performing organizations consistently reflect certain qualities that every organisation should seek to cultivate:

Alignment comes when the company's objectives and its employees' motivations are in the same direction. Exceptional organizations work to build continuous alignment to their vision, purpose, and goals.

Appreciation can take many forms: a public kudos, a note of thanks, or a promotion. A culture of appreciation is one in which all team members frequently provide recognition and thanks for the contributions of others.

Trust is vital to an organization. With a culture of trust, team members can express themselves and rely on others to have their back when they try something new.

Performance is key, as great companies create a culture that means business. In these companies, talented employees motivate each other to excel, and, greater profitability and productivity are the results.

Resilience is a key quality in highly dynamic environments where change is continuous. A resilient culture will teach leaders to watch for and respond to change with ease.

Teamwork encompasses collaboration, communication, and respect between team members. When everyone on the team supports each other, employees will get more done and feel happier while doing it.

Integrity, like trust, is vital to all teams when they rely on each other to make decisions, interpret results, and form partnerships. Honesty and transparency are critical components of this aspect of culture.

Innovation leads organizations to get the most out of available technologies, resources, and markets. A culture of innovation means application of creative thinking to all aspects of the business.

Psychological safety provides the support to the employees who need to take risks and provide honest feedback. Remember that psychological safety starts at the team level, not the individual level, so managers need to take the lead in creating a safe environment where everyone feels comfortable and is contributing.

8 STEPS TO BUILD A HIGH-PERFORMING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Creating a great organizational culture requires developing and executing a plan with clear objectives that one can work towards and measure. The 8 steps below should serve as a roadmap for building a culture of continuity that will deliver long-term benefits across your company.

1. Excel in recognition

Recognizing the contributions of all team members has a far-reaching, positive effect on organizational culture. When everyone on the team recognizes the accomplishments of others, individuals start to see how they're part of a whole. Even the most jaded employees want to know their work matters, and they notice when they aren't appreciated — 76 percent of employees don't feel especially recognized by superiors. Experts agree that when an organization makes appreciating employees part of its culture, important metrics like employee engagement, retention, and productivity improve.

Making recognition part of your culture means it must be a regular occurrence, not something that is only reserved for major milestones or work anniversaries. Encourage team members to practice frequent social recognition in addition to monetary recognition. Providing social recognition on a consistent basis has a remarkable business impact: companies that invest in social recognition are four times more likely to increase stock prices, twice more likely to improve NPS scores, and twice more likely to improve individual performances.

Monetary recognition is valuable as well. Consider a points-based recognition program that will allow employees to easily build up substantial point balances. They'll enjoy looking forward to redeeming their points for a reward that's personally meaningful to them, rather than being handed a generic mug or a years of service award that will gather dust on a shelf.

To foster other cultural traits, recognition should also be clearly tied to company values and specific actions. After all, 92 percent of employees agree when they're recognized for a specific action, they're more likely to take that action again in the future.

Last but not least, leadership needs to take center stage in the recognition efforts, as they're the cultural trendsetters for the entire company.

2. Enable employee voice

Creating a culture that values feedback and encourages employee voice is essential, as failing to do so can lead to lost revenue and demotivated employees.

First, collect feedback using the right listening tools that make it easy for employees to express what they're feeling in the moment, like pulse surveys and workplace chat bots. Then analyze the results to see what's working and what isn't in the organization, and act on those findings while they're still relevant. Not only does this strengthen the culture, it leads to benefits like higher employee fulfilment and greater profitability. According to a Clutch survey, 68 percent of employees who receive regular feedback feel fulfilled in their jobs, and Gallup found that organizations with managers who received feedback on their strengths showed 8.9 percent greater profitability.

In addition to gathering feedback using the methods described above, make sure to pay attention to more subtle expressions of feedback that can reveal cultural deficiencies. For example, pay attention to body language, as it can tell even when employees aren't willing to

share. While working with a remote team, video conferences can help keep this nonverbal channel of communication open. Managers should treat all their sessions with employees as opportunities to gather and respond to feedback and act as a trusted coach.

3. Make leaders culture advocates

Company's success in building a strong workplace culture rests in the hands of team leaders and managers. For example, if workplace culture prioritizes certain values and leadership team doesn't exemplify them — or even displays behaviors that go against them — it undermines the effort. Team members will recognize the dissonance between stated values and lived behaviors. They may even start to emulate negative behaviors because they believe those behaviors have been rewarded by management.

Leadership team can help build the culture by prioritizing it in every aspect of their work lives. They need to openly and transparently discuss the organization's culture and values, and they should also be prepared to incorporate feedback from employees into their cultural advocacy efforts.

4. Live by company values

Company's values are the foundation of its culture. While crafting a mission statement is a great start, living by company values means weaving them into every aspect of the business. This includes support terms, HR policies, benefits programs, and even out-of-office initiatives like volunteering. Employees, partners, and customers will recognize and appreciate that the organization puts its values into practice every day. Company has to recognize employees for actions that exemplify the values to show that they're more than just words and incentivize employees to build the value-based culture .

5. Forge connections between team members

Building a workplace culture that can handle adversity requires establishing strong connections between team members, but with increasingly remote and terse communication, creating those bonds can be challenging. Encouraging collaboration and engaging in team building activities — even when working remote — are two effective ways to bring the team together and promote communication.

Look for and encourage shared personal interests between team members as well, especially among those from different generations that might otherwise have a difficult time relating to each other. This can create new pathways for understanding and empathy that are vital to improving communication, creativity, and even conflict resolution.

6. Focus on learning and development

Great workplace cultures are formed by employees who are continually learning and companies that invest in staff development. Training initiatives, coaching, and providing employees with new responsibilities are all great ways to show the team that the company has invested in their success.

A culture of learning has a significant business impact. Find Courses' most recent benchmark study found that companies with highly engaged employees were 1.5 times more likely to prioritize soft skills development. It also found that companies that had experienced revenue growth in the previous financial year were twice more likely to use innovative learning technologies and three times more likely to increase their learning and development budgets.

7. Keep culture in mind from day one

When an employee's perspective doesn't match the company culture, internal discord is likely to be the result. Organizations should hire for culture and reinforce it during the on boarding process and beyond. Practices and procedures must be taught, and values should be shared.

Prioritize building social relationships during the on boarding process so that employees have the insight necessary to understand the company's culture and values. These relationships will last throughout the employee's time at the company, so that cultural values are mutually reinforced on a continuous basis.

8. Personalize the employee experience

As modern consumers, the employees expect personalized experiences. There is a need to focus on ways to help each team member identify with the culture. Tools like pulse surveys and employee-journey mapping are great ways to discover what the employees value and what their ideal corporate culture looks like. Tailor the actions to personalize the employee experience for

the team. Once the company starts treating the employees with the same care as the company treats its customers, a culture that motivates each individual at the organization is sure to follow.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR :

The international context of organizational behavior is becoming increasingly significant as organizations expand beyond their national boundaries. Managers of multinational firms have to manage a variety of social, political and economic environments as well as unique individual differences. The differences at the level of the individuals include individualism/collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity/femininity, which are different in different countries.

Managers need to be sensitive to cultural differences across different countries to achieve their goals in the global economy. The various aspects that differentiate cultures are people's perceptions, their relationship with their environment, the time dimension, and the importance attached to public and private space. Differences between countries in these cultural aspects affect the way business can be conducted across the globe. Employees who travel to a foreign country for work find it difficult to adapt to the new culture because of factors like parochialism, ethnocentrism and culture shock.

Although culture shock acts as a potential barrier to globalization, it can be overcome through careful selection, training and assistance for employees on foreign assignments. Managerial leadership is the process of influencing others to direct their efforts towards the achievement of specific goals. There are many factors that influence the way in which managers lead their employees. Some of these factors include personal values, interpersonal skills, background and the decision-making skills of the manager.

In some countries, the emphasis on production rather than productivity becomes a barrier to the improvement of the performance of the organization. It is not possible to transfer business practices directly from one country to the other. It is also not possible to use either the home country practices or the traditional practices of the host country. In such a situation, the best approach for expatriate managers would be to operate within the scope of home office policies, after adapting them to fit the culture of the host nation.

Theory Z is an example of an organizational approach that integrates American and Japanese management styles. The traditional and conservative approach to leadership cannot be used for organizations with a global presence. Globally competent managers have a good understanding of the worldwide business environment from a global perspective and try to learn about various cultures in order to carry out business operations in different countries successfully.

CONFLICTS

Conflict can be defined as a difference that exists between needs, values, and interests of individuals or groups in an organization.

Conflict can be constructive, and it can be destructive. The distinction is based on how the conflict is managed. Conflict cannot always be avoided. Many positive outcomes can result from working through conflict. Properly managed conflict can help in bringing constructive change.

Conflict is 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. Therefore, conflict may be defined as an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce resources, and interference from the other party in achieving their goals.

According to S. R. Robbins defines conflict as "a process in which an effort is purposefully made by a person or unit to block another that result in frustrating the attainment of others goals or furthering of his or her interests."

The types of organizational conflict are discussed as below:

Type # 1. Task Conflict:

Task conflict relates to the content and goal of the work. Task conflict arises among members of team and affects the goals and tasks they are striving to achieve. It can be based on differences in vision, intention, and quality expectation. It is essential to focus and channel any task conflict so that these differences become collaborative and lead to improvements in the way

and go about accomplishing current and future task. Converting conflict to friendly competition might be one way of taking the best from both sides.

Type # 2. Role Conflict:

Conflict surrounding roles and responsibilities are especially common during or immediately following organisational change, particularly restructurings. People may be unclear on who is responsible for which decisions and outputs.

For example, after an international strategic business consulting firm restructured its managerial staff, an individual who formerly managed two key customer segments was unwilling to relinquish all the responsibility to the new manager. He continued to question staff and issue orders while his replacement was trying to set a new direction. With two managers giving input, employees were stuck in the middle, which created conflict among them as well as between the managers.

To identify the root cause of a role conflict, each party needs to examine his or her responsibilities as well as the other persons. One or both may need to change their perception, and then they will need to collaborate to clarify who will handle what.

Type # 3. Process Conflict:

This is related to how the work gets done. This form of conflict centres around, the process, procedures, steps or methods used to reach goal. One person might like to plan many steps ahead while others might like to dive in headfirst. These differences in approaches or processes can lead to communication break downs and ultimately conflict. Healthy differences in approaches to process will often lead to improved way of doing jobs.

Process conflict commonly arises when two departments, teams, or groups interact on a process. They may view the process differently and disagree on how it should be accomplished or point fingers rather than communicating effectively when problems arise.

For example, at a global manufacturer of heavy lifting equipment, three shifts were involved in the production of a machine, which often suffered from poor quality or low production rates. No standard process existed to build the machine, and each shift believed its approach was best. If one shift ended before the product was completed, the next group would

either send the machine through without completing it – which resulted in poor quality – or take it apart and rebuild it – which slowed production.

To identify the root cause of process conflict, examine the process controls in place and how employees interact with them. Get teams or individuals to collaborate to define the process more effectively and establish communication channels to address problems.

Type # 4. Directional Conflict:

Directional conflict arises when organisations are forced to rethink their strategies and focus on shorter-term activities, as many did during the economic downturn. Employees may not know how to prioritise long-term versus short-term needs, or one department may work tactically while another remains strategic.

For example, a regional insurance brokerage, representing several prominent insurance providers, was developing a succession plan and selected several managers to be groomed as next- generation leaders. This action resulted in directional conflict because the managers were unclear whether to focus on meeting their short- term goals or on the longer-term succession efforts.

To identify the root cause of directional conflict, individual employees should ask themselves-What do I believe our direction is or should be? Is that aligned with what others are saying? What are senior managers saying? Answering these questions will enable individuals to change their own direction if necessary and help others change theirs.

Type # 5. External Conflict:

External conflict arises when pressures from customers or other stakeholders impact internal decisions. Recent economic challenges compelled organisations to adjust and adapt, for example, by lowering prices while providing enhanced customer service. Sales or customer service personnel advocating for customers' needs may have come into conflict with operations trying to meet internal goals.

For example, a health care software company was pushing to bring a new product to market. Sales and customer service employees continued to bring customer input to the programming group, which did its best to incorporate the ideas into the product. As the requests continued to come in, it extended the development process beyond the planned release date.

When management finally decided to release the product without further enhancements, additional conflict arose because customers now complained that their inputs are not incorporated.

To identify the root cause of external conflict, ask if anyone internally has the control to resolve the problem. It may be possible to create a can-do list, which may answer questions such as-What can we do to address the external demand? The solution might involve collaboration among several departments to adjust to the external pressures more effectively.

Type # 6. Relationship Conflict:

It focuses on interpersonal relationship. They are directly between people and may be over roles style, resources or even personalities. This conflict can penetrate and damage all aspects of an organisation. Relationship conflict can quickly demand all the attention and energy.

Although poor chemistry between individuals can exist, most interpersonal conflict tends to grow from the other five sources of conflict. For instance, when two managers attempt to direct the same department or when employees see external circumstances differently, interpersonal conflict builds.

However, at times, genuine interpersonal conflict may exist. For instance, a national business services firm hired a new vice-president whom the divisional personnel disliked because they felt he was not as open and direct as his predecessor. This created conflict between the leader and the team, which affected performance.

Positive Effects of Conflict in an Organization

- Social Change,

- Decision Making,

- Reconciliation,

- Group Unity,

- Group Cooperation,

- Inspire Creativity,

- Share and Respect Opinions,

- Improve Future Communication, and

- Identify New Members.

Social Change

Conflict contributes to social change ensuring both interpersonal and intergroup dynamics remain fresh and. reflective of current interests and realities.

Decision Making

Conflict serves to "discourage premature group decision making," forcing participants in the decision-making process to explore the issues and interests at stake.

Reconciliation

Conflict allows for the reconciliation of the parties' concerns, which can lead to an agreement benefiting both parties' needs, and often their relationship and organizations.

Group Unity

Conflict strengthens intragroup unity by providing an outlet for group members to discuss and negotiate their interests within the group. Without intragroup conflict, the health of the group typically declines.

Group Cooperation

Conflict between groups produces intra-group unity as the conflict provides the opportunity for increased intra-group cooperation while working towards the group's common goal for the conflict's outcome.

Inspire Creativity

Fortunately, some organization members view conflict as an opportunity for finding creative solutions to solve problems. Conflict can inspire members to brainstorm ideas while examining problems from various perspectives.

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Share and Respect Opinions

As organization members work together to solve a conflict, they are more willing to share their opinions with the group. Conflict can also cause members to actively listen to each other as they work to accomplish the organizations' goals.

Improve Future Communication

Conflict can bring group members together and help them learn more about each other.

From learning each others' opinions on topics relevant to the organization's growth to understanding each member's preferred communication style, conflict within an organization can give members the tools necessary to easily solve conflicts in the future.

Identify New Members

Within organizations members actively participate in each meeting, enjoy serving on multiple committees and have an opinion on each topic the group discusses. There are also members who seemingly contribute little to the group and observe more than talk.

Conflict within an organization can inspire typically silent members to step up and demonstrate their leadership skills by offering meaningful solutions to the problem the group is facing.

Negative Effects of Conflict in an Organization

- Mental Health Concerns,

- Reduction in Productivity,

- Members Leave Organization,

- Violence,

- Distract Primary Purposes, and

- Psychological Problems.

Mental Health Concerns

Conflict within an organization can cause members to become frustrated if they feel as if there's no solution in sight, or if they feel that their opinions go unrecognized by other group members.

As a result, members become stressed, which adversely affects their professional and personal lives.

Organization members may have problems of sleeping, loss of appetite or overeating, headaches and become unapproachable. In some instances, organization members may avoid meetings to prevent themselves from experiencing stress and stress-related symptoms.

Reduction in Productivity

When an organization spends much of its time dealing with conflict, members take time away from focusing on the core goals they are tasked with achieving.

Conflict causes members to focus less on the project at hand and more on gossiping about conflict or venting about frustrations.

As a result, organizations can lose money, donors and access to essential resources.

Members Leave Organization

Organization members who are increasingly frustrated with the level of conflict within an organization may decide to end their membership. This is especially detrimental when members are a part of the executive board or heads of committees

Once members begin to leave, the organization has to recruit new members and appoint acting board members.

In extreme cases, where several members leave or an executive board steps down, organizations risk dissolution.

Violence

When conflict escalates without mediation, intense situations may arise, between organization members. It's unfortunate, but organizational conflicts may cause violence among members, resulting in legal problems for members and possibly the organization.

Distract Primary Purposes

Conflict can distract individuals and groups from their primary purposes, leaving them with less time and resources for other activities.

When a conflict involves the use of "heavy contentious tactics," it can cause the individuals or groups involved in the conflict as well as individuals or groups not involved in the conflict to divert time and resources away from other needs.

Psychological Problem

Conflict can have both short term and long term effects on the physical and psychological health of the individuals involved in or affected by the conflict.

In worst-case scenarios the psychological consequences can include deep trauma and diminished coping mechanisms.

Conflict Management Techniques

Conflicts have both positive and negative sides. The conflict management techniques are divided into two parts.

The first one is conflict resolution technique and the second one is conflict stimulation techniques, which are given below:

Conflict Resolution Techniques

- Problem-solving,

- Superordinate goals,

- Expansion of resources,

- Avoidance,

- Smoothing,

- Compromise,

- Authoritative command,

- Altering the human variables, and

- Altering the Structural variables.

Problem-solving

Arrange for Face-to-face meetings of the conflicting parties for the purpose of identifying the problem and resolving it through open discussion.

Superordinate goals

Create a shared goal that cannot be attained without the cooperation of each of the conflicting parties.

Expansion of resources

When a conflict is caused by the scarcity of a resource say, money, promotion opportunities, office space- expansion of the resource can create a win-win solution.

Avoidance

Withdrawal from, or suppression of the conflict.

Smoothing

Play down differences while emphasizing common interests between the conflicting parties.

Compromise

Each party to the conflict gives up something of value.

Authoritative command

Management uses its formal authority to resolve the conflict and then communicates its desires to the parties involved.

Altering the human variables

Use behavioural change techniques such as human relations training to alter attitudes and behaviours that cause conflict.

Altering the Structural variables

Change the formal organization structure and the interaction patterns of conflicting parties through job design, transfers, the creation of coordinating positions and the like.

Conflict Stimulation Techniques

- Communication,

- Bringing in outsiders,

- Restructuring the organization, and

- Appointing a devil's advocate.

Communication

Use unambiguous or threatening messages to increase conflict levels.

Bringing in outsiders

Add employees to a group whose backgrounds, values, attitudes, or managerial styles differ from those of present members.

Restructuring the organization

Realign workgroups, alter rules and regulations, increase interdependence, and make similar-structural changes to disrupt the status quo.

Appointing a devil's advocate

Designate a critic to purposely argue against the majority positions held by the group.

Tips for Resolving Conflict Situations

- To manage conflict effectively leader must be a skilled communicator.

- That includes creating an open communication environment in the unit by encouraging employees to talk about work issues. Listening to employee concerns will foster an open environment.

- Make sure to really understand what employees are saying by asking questions and focusing on their perception of the problem.

WORKERS PARTICIPATION IN MANAGEMENT :

Workers participation in management is an essential ingredient of Industrial democracy. The concept of workers participation in management is based on Human Relations approach to Management which brought about a new set of values to labor and management. Traditionally the concept of Workers Participation in Management refers to participation of non-managerial employees in the decision-making process of the organization. Workers' participation is also known as 'labour participation' or 'employee participation' in management. In Germany it is known as co-determination while in Yugoslavia it is known as self-management. The International Labour Organization has been encouraging member nations to promote the scheme of Workers' Participation in Management.

Workers' participation in management implies mental and emotional involvement of workers in the management of Enterprise. It is considered as a mechanism where workers have a say in the decision-making.

Definitions of Workers' Participation in Management

- According to Keith Davis, Participation refers to the mental and emotional involvement of a person in a group situation which encourages him to contribute to group goals and share the responsibility of achievement.

- According to Walpole, Participation in Management gives the worker a sense of importance, pride and accomplishment; it gives him the freedom of opportunity for self-expression; a feeling of belongingness with the place of work and a sense of workmanship and creativity.

Features of Workers' Participation In Management

- Participation means mental and emotional involvement rather than mere physical presence.

- Workers participate in management not as individuals but collectively as a group through their representatives.

- Workers' participation in management may be formal or informal. In both the cases it is a system of communication and consultation whereby employees express their opinions and contribute to managerial decisions.

Levels of Workers' Participation in Management

There can be 5 levels of Management Participation or WPM:

1.**Information participation:** It ensures that employees are able to receive information and express their views pertaining to the matter of general economic importance.

2.**Consultative importance:** Workers are consulted on the matters of employee welfare such as work, safety and health. However, final decision always rests with the top-level management, as employees' views are only advisory in nature.

3.**Associative participation:** It is an extension of consultative participation as management here is under the moral obligation to accept and implement the unanimous decisions of the employees. Under this method the managers and workers jointly take decisions.

4.**Administrative participation:** It ensures greater share of workers' participation in discharge of managerial functions. Here, decisions already taken by the management come to

employees, preferably with alternatives for administration and employees have to select the best from those for implementation.

5.**Decisive participation:** Highest level of participation where decisions are jointly taken on the matters relating to production, welfare etc.

Characteristics of Workers' Participation In Management

- Participation implies practices which increase the scope for employees' share of influence in decision-making process with the assumption of responsibility.

- Participation presupposes willing acceptance of responsibility by workers.

- Workers participate in management not as individuals but as a group through their representatives.

- Workers' participation in management differs from collective bargaining in the sense that while the former is based on mutual trust, information sharing and mutual problem solving; the latter is essentially based on power play, pressure tactics, and negotiations.

- The basic rationale for workers' participation in management is that workers invest their labour and their fates to their place of work. Thus, they contribute to the outcomes of the organization. Hence, they have a legitimate right to share in decision-making activities of the organisation.

Importance of Workers' Participation in Management

- Unique motivational power and a great psychological value.

- Peace and harmony between workers and management.

- Workers get to see how their actions would contribute to the overall growth of the company.

- They tend to view the decisions as `their own' and are more enthusiastic in their implementation.

- Participation makes them more responsible.

- They become more willing to take initiative and come out with cost-saving suggestions and growth-oriented ideas.

Advantages of Workers' participation in management

Workers' participation in management has several advantages.

1. Greater Employee Commitment

A major reason employee involvement has grown is because it has been shown to **increase employee commitment** to their organizations. By involving employees actively in decision making, company leaders affirm the value of their employees. Employees more naturally develop deeper commitments to organizational and departmental objectives when they help set them and are involved in achieving them by offering inputs and making decisions that affect success.

2. More and Better Ideas

Customers also benefit when companies seek employees' input. Front-line employees who interact directly with customers or clients often have **more insight into customer concerns and feedback**. When company leaders create an environment that encourages employees to share ideas and to get involved in decisions, they often get more informed perspectives with regard to what customers want. When top managers make all critical decisions on their own without employees' involvement, their ideas are limited to their perception and past experiences.

3. Enhanced Morale

Involving employees in some decisions makes them feel more positive about their employers because they feel their opinions are valued. Overall **morale is lifted**, which affects their work overall, so all projects and areas of the company benefit. When employees like their jobs, and want to come to work, there is less absenteeism.

All of this leads to **increased productivity**. Happy employees tend to stay longer at their jobs, so there is **less turnover**. Fewer new hires need to be trained, which saves on training time and costs as well as the upheaval that comes from frequent turnover.

4. Mutual Understanding:

The employees and employers nurture two different conflicting interests. Surprisingly both lack the knowledge of the problems faced by them. Workers' participation in management brings both the parties together. This togetherness enables them to understand each other's problem. This minimizes conflicts and promotes mutual understanding.

5. Efficiency of Workers Increase:

The workers become the partner in decision making process. Whatever decisions are taken, they are their own and hence they have to abide by them. They become enthusiastic and put lot of hard work while working. This helps in increasing the overall efficiency of workers.

6. Increase in Production:

Increase in efficiency of workers, better understanding between workers and employers lead to mutual cooperation which results in increased productivity and increase in total production of the enterprise.

7. Establishes Industrial Peace:

Workers participate in decision making process. Whatever decisions good are bad taken workers are the party to it and hence they cannot evade the responsibility. Employers and workers understand each other better and conflicts are minimized. Each dispute is solved with mutual understanding. In this way disputes are eliminated and industrial peace is restored.

8. Promotion of Industrial democracy:

Participation of all the parties' employees and employers in the management of the industries which works to safeguard the interests and betterment of all is industrial democracy. Workers' participation in management helps in promoting industrial democracy.

9. Welcomes Changes:

Some if not all the changes are resisted by the workers. But workers' participation in management helps in arriving at a unanimous decision whether to accept or reject any change. The changes which bring more benefits than the costs incurred on them, are accepted. Hence the changes are welcomed by the employees.

10. Personal Development:

Participation helps workers to express their creative instinct and they respond favourably to the challenges at the workplace as regards performance of the job. They feel free in doing so. It is possible as participation brings industrial democracy.

11. Reduces Misunderstanding:

Participation reduces misunderstanding regarding the managements' outlook. This increases the organisational balance.

12. No Outside Help to Sort-out Disputes:

Employees themselves are participating in the decision making with the employers. They therefore realize workers as well as managements' problem better hence disputes are resolved by understanding the difficulties of each other. So in case of industrial dispute no outside help is taken they are sorted out within the plant itself by the employees and employers themselves.

DEMERITS OF WORKERS' PARTICIPATION:

In spite of above advantages of workers' participation there are certain disadvantages.

Following are the demerits of workers' participation:

1. Workers are not Enthusiastic:

The workers are not enthusiastic about the scheme and employers believe that they being incompetent cause delay in decisions. Some of the good decisions cannot be implemented for lack of support from the workers.

2. Weak Trade Unions:

In India trade unions are not strong enough. There are multiplicities of trade unions and they are dominated and led by political leaders. This makes trade unions weak. They cannot show solidarity of workers. There should be one strong union so that they can elect competent representatives for participation. Moreover there are certain problems require specialized knowledge which workers do not possess hence such problems cannot be solved through participation. They cannot even understand the gravity of situation.

3. Manager-Employee Boundary

One potential challenge of encouraging employee involvement is the risk that the line of **distinction between the management level and employee level becomes blurred**. Though managers may value employees' involvement, a disciplined structure with clear reporting lines has long been vital to stability in organizations. Allowing employees to share ideas and make decisions without having them push the envelope and try to take on responsibilities that are reserved for management levels is a real risk.

4. Communication Complexity

More lines of communication and the potential for inconsistent decision making are disadvantages with employee involvement systems. When more employees have input and decision-making ability, **more communication is necessary** to make certain that decisions are consistent across the organization. This consistency is critical to brand recognition and consistency. Managers may have a hard time monitoring decisions and activities with employees' involvement to protect against negative consequences and to restrict the potential for chaos.

Workers' participation in management is a tool which promotes better industrial relations and establishes industrial peace. It is important concept for both management and workers. The need is to implement it honestly to reap its merits in the form of mutual understanding, increased efficiency of workers, increased production etc.

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