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SYLLABUS

ORGANIZATION BEHAVIOUR

SECTION-A

Organizational Behaviour : Definition, Meaning and its Importance, Marvin Daunette's six step plan.

Models of OB : Autocratic, Custodial, Supportive Collegial Model, Knowledge Management Processes.

New Challenges to OB : Open System, Contingency Approach.

SECTION-B

Personality : Meaning and Definitions, Determinants of personality. Traits Theory : Personality and Behaviour.

Perception : Definition, Perceptual Process, Perception and Organizational Behaviour and Applications, Performance Appraisals.

SECTION-C

Learning : Nature and Definition, Foundations of Individual behaviour, Myth or Science, O.B., Attitude and its Measurement.

Motivation : Definition, Role of Motivation in Organizations, Maslow need Hierarchy Theory, Needs Theory.

Leadership : Meaning and Definition, Theories, Behaviour of Leader, Managerial Grid, Qualities of Effective Leader.

SECTION-D

Group : Nature and Concept, Effects of Cohesiveness of Group Productivity, Group Decision-making, Team Building.

Conflict : Nature of Conflict, Frustration, Role Conflict and Ambiguity, Conflict Resolution.

Determinants of Organization Design : Implications for managers, Significance of power and politics, Power Imbalances, Managing Organization Conflicts, Three Modes of Resolving Inter-group Conflict.

**UNIT 1 ORGANIZATIONAL
BEHAVIOUR: AN
INTRODUCTION**

NOTES

★ STRUCTURE ★

- 1.1. Learning Objectives
- 1.2. Introduction
- 1.3. Definition and Meaning

1.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to discuss about the definition and meaning of Organizational Behaviour. You can also understand its importance, need and difference from management and business relations.

1.2 INTRODUCTION

Before we proceed to understand organizational behaviour it is better to know what the term 'behaviour' means. Behaviour can be defined as a response/s which is observed directly/indirectly. Direct observation is possible by studying the response of people to a work environment. Indirect observation are decision-making process and attitudes, in terms of results or how people describe them verbally.

1.3 DEFINITION AND MEANING

Organizational behaviour is a field of study that investigates the impact of individuals, groups, and structure on behaviour within organizations for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization's effectiveness. —**Stephen Robbins**

- *“Organizational behaviour is essentially concerned with what people do in organizations”.*

—**Joe Kelly**

But when people are brought together in organization they behave differently. Organizational climate has got peculiar influence on their psychological processes in mind—perception, emotion, and action. So

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$$B = f(O) \text{ and } O = f(B)$$

- **Chris Argyris**, in his study, found that chief executives behave in a rather aristocratic manner towards the subordinates. In such context of dependency of the subordinates on boss, they perceive the boss as threatening. In such context of dependency of the subordinates on boss, they perceive the boss as threatening. They feel apprehensive and act accordingly.

The organization is structuring the relationships, processing their behaviour and forming their values. Put it clearly, *Organization is the framework of management.* (E.F.C. Brech) (framework of perceptions or roles). It is also a process and a set of useful beliefs (values) for a purpose. Therefore

$$O = f(B)$$

- A good working definition: *“Organizational behaviour is the systematic study of the nature of organizations: how they begin, grow and develop and their effect on individual members constituent groups, other organizations and larger institutions.”*

Subject Matters

OB includes core topics of motivation, leader behaviour and power, interpersonal communication, group structure and process, learning, attitude development and perception.

Focus	Subject Matter	Typical Problem
Individual	Industrial psychology	The relation between individual productivity and illumination in the work area.
Group	Group Dynamics	How the primary working group restricts productions and develops a value—norm/standard of performance.
Organization	Organizational psychology	How an organization structures perceptions of different work groups.
Society	Sociology	Conflict between Organization, such as unions vs. business firms.

Larry L. Cummings attempts to define OB "*Toward Organizational Behaviour*" as distinguished from other disciplines such as Organizational Theory (OT) Organizational Psychology (OP) and personnel and HRM. According to him, OB is an evolving field which includes human behaviours (based on needs/wants and nature inclinations) contingency or situational factor and other psychological factors.

Further he says that behaviour and organization is based on 'units of analysis' i.e., individuals and their interactions, characteristics of organizations (e.g., structure, process, climate). Organizational theory (OT) is typically defined by its focus upon the organization as the unit of analysis. Structure, process, goals technology defined by its focus upon the organization as the unit of analysis. Structure, process, goals technology and climate are relevant dependent variables that vary with environmental changes.

Some have defined OB as studies utilizing behaviour and occasionally field experimentation. Others view OB as field's mission of adding, describing facts empirically based (How throne plant experiment).

Some generalizations have been drawn about OB that would be very helpful in explaining and predicting what people do and will do by observing sensing, asking and listening.

Freud Luthans while discussing about OB refers to conceptual and human side of management and with the application techniques, that most experts in productivity are talking about.

Importance of Organization Behaviour

The Importance of OB may be clear, but we should take a few moments to make it even more explicit. Most people are born and educated in organizations, acquire most of their material possessions from organizations, and die as members of organizations. Many of our activities are regulated by the various organizations that make up our governments. And most adults spend the better part of their lives working in organizations. Because organizations influence our lives so powerfully, we have every reason to be concerned about how and why those organizations function.

In our relationships with organizations, we may adopt anyone of several roles or identities. For example, we can be consumers, employees, or investors. Since most readers of this book are either present or future managers, we will adopt a managerial perspective throughout our discussion. The study of organizational behaviour can greatly clarify the factors that affect how managers manage. Hence the field attempts to describe the complex human context of organizations and to define the opportunities, problems, challenges and issues associated with that realm. The value of organizational behaviour is that it isolates important aspects of the managers job and offers specific perspectives on the human side of management.

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Clearly then an understanding of OB can play a vital role in managerial work. To use the knowledge provided by this field most effectively, however managers must thoroughly understand its various concepts, assumptions and premises.

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Why Study Organizational Behaviour?

Management is generally considered to have three major dimensions—technical, conceptual, and human. In the past, most practising managers ignored human dimension of jobs till the Hawthorne plant experiment in General Electric's Co. Most managers thought and many still do that their employees were basically lazy, that they were interested only in money. If you could make them happy, they would be productive. Such assumptions were accepted and management tried to solve through various devices such as monetary incentive plans needs satisfaction (Maslow's needs hierarchy and Douglas's human side of enterprise).

If proper managerial approach is made to understand their behaviour and accordingly better working conditions and social needs are provided, morale would be high and maximum productivity would result. (**Human Relations**).

More and more managers are confronting the challenges of improving productivity in organization and quality of products and services. Towards improving quality and productivity, they are implementing programs like Total Quality Management (TQM) and reengineering— involvement/participation.

Managing work force diversity is to have insight into the behaviour of individual differences and groups solidarity and to assimilate them. Work force diversity means that organizations are becoming more heterogeneous in terms of gender, race and ethnicity. Work force diversity has important implications for management practice.

Managers will need to shift their philosophy from treating everyone alike to recognizing differences and to ensure employee relation and greater productivity.

- OB is interdisciplinary in approach *i.e.*, a number of specialists from different fields get together to work on a particular problem. OB people hold the following beliefs:
 - (i) Flat organizations are more effective than tall ones.
 - (ii) The smaller the span of control, the more effective the leader.
 - (iii) Horizontal communications are to be preferred to vertical communications.
 - (iv) Everybody should know everything instantly.
 - (v) An environment rich in inflammations is best.

- (vi) Informal organizations are superior to formal systems.
- (vii) Participation is effective in all circumstances.
- (viii) Managers with achievement need is highly effective.

- Or organizational behaviour as a creative science:

These generalizations reflect the creative component in organizational behaviour. OB people have their own preferences. But they ought to check their theories against some solid criteria. According to **Abraham Kaplan**, a good theory meets the following criteria or norms:

Correspondence : It fits the facts.

Coherence : It fits together logically.

Parsimony : It explains the most for the least assumption.

Replacing Intuition with Systematic Study

Observing and watching the actions of others is human tendency. But interpret it explicitly and attempt to predict what they might do under different condition, is the systematic study.

Consistency and Rational

Underlying this systematic approach is the belief that behaviour is not random. It is caused and directed toward some end—individual interest. It is rational because perceived behaviour is intended to gain something.

Certainly there are differences between individuals. Placed in similar situations, all people do not act alike. But some common fundamental consistencies underlie the behaviour of all individuals that can be identified and modified. This is important because they allow predictability. One can predict the driver of a car will stop to see the red signal and drive on the green signal.

- Systematic study of behaviour is a means to making accurate predictions. Any systematic study attempts to attribute causes, and effects and draw conclusions based on scientific evidence.

Marvin Daunette has devised a six-step plan in inquiry to bring about organizational change. The steps are:

- (i) Observe behaviour of individuals in organizations in their natural settings.
- (ii) Detect and measure differences in behaviour against a standard criterion.
- (iii) Speculate and specify the variables of relationships.
- (iv) Collect and measure data that illuminate the problem.
- (v) Analyze and interpret the data and the process of working through this data to develop models and theories.

(vi) Change the situation with a view to improve effectiveness or human satisfaction.

- *Focus on Behaviour*—The distinctive feature of organizational behaviour is that it focuses on human behaviour. For example, if one wants to study executives, he could basically do three things. Ask them what they do—interviewing examination of records or study them in action—observation.

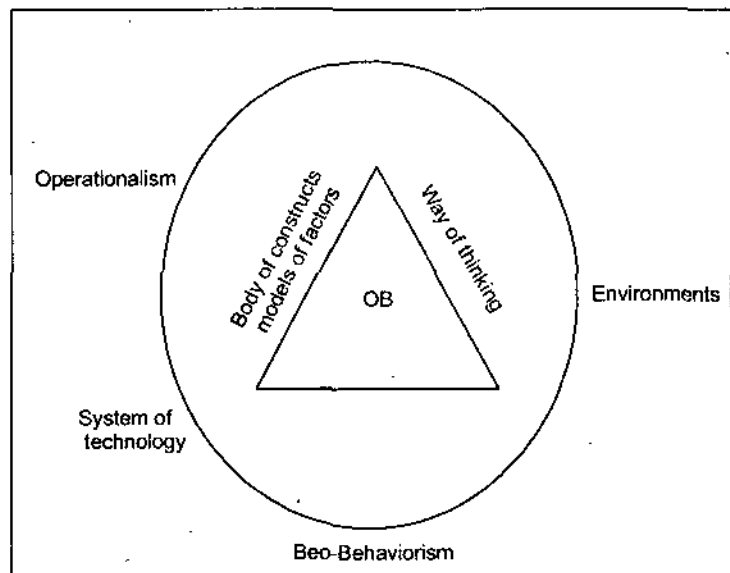
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Study of Managers

Managerial Work	Action	Outcomes
Define the problem relevant factors	Observe executive	Effectiveness
Employment relationship	Look at behaviour communication	Period of study
Suggest possible relations	Ask managers before you start what they think they do.	Involvement and participative management.
Simplify the problem.	Selection of alternatives.	Particular course of action.
Make predictions.	List the options in the form of check list.	Understanding future behaviour.

Dimensional Characterization of Organizational Behaviour

OB is evolving towards the model. Three dimensions define the concept of OB.



- OB is a way of thinking manner of conceiving problems and finding solutions. OB's assertion that behaviour within organization is subject to systematic study and way of thinking to influence methodologies. Secondly, its orientation toward change. Thirdly, OB has got humanistic tone, reflects in personal growth and self-development.
- The field of OB includes courage of models, constructs, and facts on: motivation, learning or socialization, group structure and process, task design interpersonal communication etc.

OB is also a system or a collection of technologies. Techniques exist for: *training leaders, disguising tasks, performances, rewarding behaviours.*

Factors influences OB lie in environments. In the face of this type of environment, persons must exercise self-control in pursuit of their own objectives. It is their responsibility to fashion themselves to achieve goals, purpose, expectation etc.

Operationalism is reflected in three ways. First, the field is searching for theories and models (motivation, leadership etc). Second, emphasis is being given to the operations or behaviours through which people within organizations function. Third measurement issues are impacting the field.

- Finally many assumptions and models in OB are moving toward the direction of *leadership motivation theory and especially goal-oriented behaviour.*

What are the implications of this perspective on the field? Definitions of the domains of OB, OT, OIP, and OD are relevant in understanding organizational behaviour (figure exhibits) Definitions are needed to guide the field toward operational theory. Definitions established lead to fruitful results. Further, realities in organizations change so rapidly that our descriptions (ways of thinking, constructs, and technologies) do not keep pace with the rate of change in the objects of our study.

Lastly, we are moving toward best labeled organizational analysis or organizational science.

Distinctions among OB, OP, OT, P and HR

Organizational Behaviour— Org. Psychology (OP)	Both fields focus upon explaining human behaviour within organizations. OP restricts its explanations to those restricts its explanations to those at the psychological level. Both draws their concepts from multiple disciplines.
OB and Org. Theory (OT)	The distinction is based on two differences: unit of analysis and focus of dependent

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	variables. OB is the study of individual and group behaviour while OT is the study of structure, processes and outcomes of the organization. Both are not separate domains but complementary to each other.
OB—P and HR	This distinction usually depicts OB as the more basic of the two and personnel and Human Resource as more applied in emphasis, 'P and HR emphasizes more on techniques or technologies. It is the combination of both managerial process and operational management.

SUMMARY

- “Organizational behaviour is the systematic study of the nature of organizations: how they begin, grow and develop and their effect on individual members constituent groups, other organizations and larger institutions.”
- OB includes core topics of motivation, leader behaviour and power, interpersonal communication, group structure and process, learning, attitude development and perception.
- Systematic study of behaviour is a means to making accurate predictions. Any systematic study attempts to attribute causes, and effects and draw conclusions based on scientific evidence.

GLOSSARY

- **Organizational Behaviour (OB):** It is essentially concerned with what people do in organizations.
- **Organizational Theory (OT):** It is typically defined by its focus upon the organization as the unit of analysis.
- **Work Force Diversity:** This means that organizations are becoming more heterogeneous in terms of gender, race and ethnicity. It has important implications for management practice.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain the importance of organization behaviour.
2. Write down the beliefs hold by the organization behaviour people.
3. Explain Marvin Daunette’s six-step plan in inquiry to bring about organizational change.
4. Discuss the three ways reflected in operationalism.

UNIT 2 **MODELS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR**

NOTES:

★ **STRUCTURE** ★

- 2.1. Learning Objectives
- 2.2. Introduction
- 2.3. The Autocratic Model
- 2.4. The Custodial Model
- 2.5. The Supportive Model
- 2.6. The Collegial Model

2.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to discuss about the different types of models of organizational Behaviour. You can also understand that the four models described in this unit are not distinct in the sense that a manager or a firm uses one and only one of them.

2.2 INTRODUCTION

The model of organizational behaviour which predominates among the management of an organization will affect the success of that whole organization. And at a national level the model which prevails within a country will influence the productivity and economic development of that nation. Models of organizational behaviour are a significant variable in the life of all groups.

Many models of organizational behaviour have appeared during the last 100 years, and four of them are significant and different enough to merit further discussion. These are the autocratic, custodial, supportive, and collegial models. In the order mentioned, the four models represent a historical evolution of management thought.

The four models are not distinct in the sense that a manager or a firm uses one and only one of them. In a week—or even a day—a manager probably applies some of all four models. On the other hand

(one model tends to predominate as his habitual way of working with his people, in such a way that it leads to a particular type of teamwork and behavioural climate among his group.

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2.3 THE AUTOCRATIC MODEL

The autocratic model has its roots deep in history, and certainly it became the prevailing model early in the industrial revolution. As shown in Table 1, this model depends on power. Those who are in command must have the power to demand, "You do this—or else," meaning that an employee will be penalized if he does not follow orders. This model takes a threatening approach, depending on negative motivation backed by power.

In an autocratic environment the managerial orientation is formal, official authority. Authority is the tool with which management works and the context in which "it thinks, because it is the organizational means by which power is applied". This authority is delegated by right of command over the people to whom it applies. In this model, management implicitly assumes that it knows what is best and that it is the employee's obligation to follow orders, without question or interpretation. Management assumes that employees are passive and even resistant to organizational needs. They have to be persuaded and pushed into performance, and this is management's task. Management does the thinking; the employees obey the orders. This is the "Theory X" popularized by **Douglas McGregor** as the conventional view of management. It has its roots in history and was made explicit by **Frederick W. Taylor's** concepts of scientific management. Though Taylor's writings show that he had worker interests at heart, he saw those interests served best by a manager who scientifically determined what a worker should do and then saw that he did it. The worker's role was to perform as he was ordered.

Table 1. Four Models of Organizational Behaviour

	Autocratic	Custodial	Supportive	Collegial
Depends on:	Power	Economic resources	Leadership	Mutual contribution
Managerial orientation:	Authority	Material rewards	Support	Integration and teamwork
Employee orientation:	Obedience	Security	Performance	Responsibility
Employee psychological result:	Personal dependency	Organizational dependency	Participation	Self-discipline

Employee needs met:	Subsistence	Maintenance	Higher-order	Self-realization
Performance result:	Minimum	Passive cooperation	Awakened drives	Enthusiasm
Morale measure:	Compliance	Satisfaction	Motivation	Commitment to task and team

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Under autocratic conditions an employee's orientation is obedience. He bends to the authority of a boss—not a manager. This role causes a psychological result which in this case is employee personal dependency on his boss whose power to hire, fire, and “perspire” him is almost absolute. The boss pays relatively low wages because he gets relatively less performance from the employee. Each employee must provide subsistence needs for himself and his family; so he reluctantly gives minimum performance, but he is not motivated to give much more than that. A few men give higher performance because of internal achievement drives, because they personally like their boss, because the boss is a “natural-born leader,” or because of some other fortuitous reason; but most men give only minimum performance.

When an autocratic model of organizational behaviour exists, the measure of an employee's morale is usually his compliance with rules and orders. Compliance is unprotesting assent without enthusiasm. The compliant employee takes his orders and does not talk back.

Although modern observers have an inherent tendency to condemn the autocratic model of organizational behaviour, it is a useful way to accomplish work. It has been successfully applied by the empire builders of the 1800s, efficiency engineers, scientific managers, factory foremen, and others. It helped to build great railroad systems, operate giant steel mills, and produce a dynamic industrial civilization in the early 1900s.

Actually the autocratic model exists in all shades of gray, rather than the extreme black usually presented. It has been a reasonably effective way of management when there is a “benevolent autocrat” who has a genuine interest in his employees and when the role expectation of employees is autocratic leadership.

2.4 THE CUSTODIAL MODEL

Managers soon recognized that although a compliant employee did not talk back to his boss, he certainly “thought back!” There were many things he wanted to say to his boss, and sometimes he did say them when he quit or lost his temper. The employee inside was a seething mass of insecurity, frustrations, and aggressions toward his boss. Since he could not vent these feelings directly, sometimes he

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went home and vented them on his wife, family, and neighbours; so the community did not gain much out of his relationship either.

It seemed rather obvious to progressive employers that there ought to be some way to develop employee satisfactions and adjustment during production—and in fact this approach just might cause more productivity! If the employee's insecurities, frustrations, and aggressions could be dispelled, he might feel more like working. At any rate the employer could sleep better, because his conscience would be clearer.

Development of the custodial model was aided by psychologists, industrial relations specialists, and economists. Psychologists were interested in employee satisfaction and adjustment. They felt that a satisfied employee would be a better employee, and the feeling was so strong that "a happy employee" became a mild obsession in some personnel offices. The industrial relations specialists and economists favoured the custodial model as a means of building employee security and stability in employment. They gave strong support to a variety of fringe benefits and group plans for security.

The custodial model originally developed in the form of employee welfare programs offered by a few progressive employers, and in its worst form it became known as employer paternalism. During the depression of the 1930s emphasis changed to economic and social security and then shortly moved toward various labor plans for security and control. During and after World War II, the main focus was on specific fringe benefits. Employers, labour unions, and government developed elaborate programs for overseeing the needs of workers.

A successful custodial approach depends on economic resources, as shown in Table 1. An organization must have economic wealth to provide economic security, pensions, and other fringe benefits. The resulting managerial orientation is toward economic or material rewards, which are designed to make employees respond as economic men. A reciprocal employee orientation tends to develop, emphasizing security.

The custodial approach gradually leads to an organizational dependency by the employee. Rather than being dependent on his boss for his weekly bread, he now depends on large organizations for his security and welfare. Perhaps more accurately stated, an organizational dependency is added atop a reduced personal dependency on his boss. This approach effectively serves an employee's maintenance needs, as presented in **Herzberg's** motivation maintenance model, but it does not strongly motivate an employee. The result is a passive cooperation by the employee. He is pleased to have his security; but as he grows psychologically, he also seeks more challenge and autonomy.

The natural measure of morale which developed from a custodial model was employee satisfaction. If the employee was happy, contented,

and adjusted to the group, then all was well. The happiness-oriented morale survey became a popular measure of success in many organizations.

Limitations of the Custodial Model

Since the custodial model is the one which most employers are currently moving away from, its limitations will be further examined. As with the autocratic model, the custodial model exists in various shades of gray, which means that some practices are more successful than others. In most cases, however, it becomes obvious to all concerned that most employees under custodial conditions do not produce anywhere near their capacities, nor are they motivated to grow to the greater capacities of which they are capable. Though employees may be happy, most of them really do not feel fulfilled or self-actualized.

The custodial model emphasizes economic resources and the security those resources will buy, rather than emphasizing employee performance. The employee becomes psychologically preoccupied with maintaining his security and benefits, rather than with production. As a result, he does not produce much more vigorously than under the old autocratic approach. Security and contentment are necessary for a person, but they are not themselves very strong motivators.

As viewed by **William H. Whyte**, the employee working under custodialism becomes an "organization man" who belongs to the organization and who has "left home, spiritually as well as physically, to take the vows of organizational life."

As knowledge of human behaviour advanced, deficiencies in the custodial model became quite evident, and people again started to ask, "is there a better way?" The search for a better way is not a condemnation of the custodial model as a whole; however, it is a condemnation of the assumption that custodialism is "the final answer"—the one best way to work with people in organizations. An error in reasoning occurs when a person perceives that the custodial model is so desirable that there is no need to move beyond it to something better.

2.5 THE SUPPORTIVE MODEL

The supportive model of organizational behaviour has gained currency during recent years as a result of a great deal of behavioural science research as well as favourable employer experience with it. The supportive model establishes a manager in the primary role of psychological support of his employees at work, rather than in a primary role of economic support (as in the custodial model) or "power over" (as in the autocratic model). A supportive approach was first suggested in the classical experiments of Mayo and Roethlisberger at Western Electric Company in the 1930s and 1940s. They showed that a small

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work group is more productive and satisfied when its members perceive that they are working in a supportive environment. This interpretation was expanded by the work of **Edwin A. Fleishman** with supervisory "consideration" in the 1940s and that "of **Rensis Likert** and his associates with the "employee-oriented supervisor" in the 1940s and 1950s." In fact, the coup de grace to the custodial model's dominance was administered by **Likert's** research which showed that the happy employee is not necessarily the most productive employee.

Likert has expressed the supportive model as the "*principle of supportive relationships*" in the following words: "The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organization each member will, in the light of his background, values, and expectations, view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance."

The supportive model, shown in Table 1, depends on leadership instead of power or economic resources. Through leadership, management provides a behavioural climate to help each employee grow and accomplish in the interests of the organization the things of which he is capable (The leader assumes that workers are not by nature passive and resistant to organizational needs, but that they are made so by an inadequate supportive climate at work) They will take responsibility, develop a drive to contribute, and improve themselves, if management will give them half a chance. Management's orientation, therefore, is to support the employee's performance.

Since performance is supported, the employee's orientation is toward it instead of mere obedience and security. He is responding to intrinsic motivations in his job situation. His psychological result is a feeling of participation and task involvement in the organization. When referring to his organization, he may occasionally say "we," instead of always saying "they." Since his higher-order needs are better challenged, he works with more awakened drives than he did under earlier models.

The difference between custodial and supportive models is illustrated by the fact that the morale measure of supportive management is the employee's level of motivation. This measure is significantly different from the satisfaction and happiness emphasized by the custodial model. An employee who has a supportive leader is motivated to work toward organizational objectives as a means of achieving his own goals. This approach is similar to McGregor's popular "Theory Y".

The supportive model is just as applicable to the climate for managers as for operating employees. One study reports that supportive managers usually led to high motivation among their subordinate managers. Among those managers who were low in motivation, only 8 per cent had supportive managers. Their managers were mostly autocratic.

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It is not essential for managers to accept every assumption of the supportive model in order to move toward it, because as more is learned about it, views will change. What is essential is that modern managers in business, unions, and government do not become locked into the custodial model. They need to abandon any view that the custodial model is the final answer, so that they will be free to look ahead to improvements which are fitting to their organization in their environment.

The supportive model is only one step upward on the ladder of progress. Though it is just now coming into dominance, some firms which have the proper conditions and managerial competence are already using a collegial model of organizational behaviour, which offers further opportunities for improvement.

2.6 THE COLLEGIAL MODEL

The collegial model is still evolving, but it is beginning to take shape. It has developed from recent behavioural science research, particularly that of Likert, Katz, Kahn, and others at the University of Michigan, Herzberg with regard to maintenance and motivational factors, and the work of a number of people in project management and matrix organization. (The collegial model readily adapts to the flexible, intellectual environment of scientific and professional organizations). Working in substantially unprogrammed activities which require effective teamwork, scientific and professional employees desire the autonomy which a collegial model permits, and they respond to it well.

The collegial model depends on management's building a feeling of mutual contribution among participants in the organization, as shown in Table 1. Each employee feels that he is contributing something worthwhile and is needed and wanted. He feels that management and others are similarly contributing, so he accepts and respects their roles in the organization. Managers are seen as joint contributors rather than bosses.

The managerial orientation is toward teamwork which will provide an integration of all contributions. Management is more of an integrating power than a commanding power. The employee response to this situation is responsibility. He produces quality work not primarily because management tells him to do so or because the inspector will catch him if he does not, but because he feels inside himself the desire to do so for many reasons. The employee psychological result, therefore, is self-discipline. Feeling responsible, the employee disciplines himself for team performance in the same way that a football team member disciplines himself in training and in game performance.

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In this kind of environment an employee normally should feel some degree of fulfillment and self-realization, although the amount will be modest in some situations. The result is job enthusiasm, because he finds in the job such Herzberg motivators as achievement, growth, intrinsic work fulfillment, and recognition. His morale will be measured by his commitment to his task and his team, because he will see these as instruments for his self-actualization.

Some Conclusions About Models of Organizational Behaviour

- The evolving nature of models of organizational behaviour makes it evident that change is the normal condition of these models. As our understanding of human behaviour increases or as new social conditions develop, our organizational behaviour models are also likely to change. It is a grave mistake to assume that one particular model is a "best" model which will endure for the long run. This mistake was made by some old-time managers about the autocratic model and by some humanists about the custodial model, with the result that they became psychologically locked into these models and had difficulty altering their practices when conditions demanded it. Eventually the supportive model may also fall to limited use; and as further progress is made, even the collegial model is likely to be surpassed. (There is no permanently "one best model" of organizational behaviour, because what is best depends upon what is known about human behaviour in whatever environment and priority of objectives exist at a particular time.)
- A second conclusion is that the models of organizational behaviour which have developed seem to be sequentially related to man's psychological hierarchy of needs. As society has climbed higher on the need hierarchy, new models of organizational behaviour have been developed to serve the higher-order needs that became paramount at the time. If Maslow's need hierarchy is used for comparison, the custodial model of organizational behaviour is seen as an effort to serve man's second-level security needs. It moved one step above the autocratic model which was reasonably serving man's subsistence needs, but was not effectively meeting his needs for security. Similarly the supportive model is an effort to meet employees' higher-level needs, such as affiliation and esteem, which the custodial model was unable to serve. The collegial model moves even higher toward service of man's need for self-actualization.

A number of persons have assumed that emphasis on one model of organizational behaviour was an automatic rejection of other modes (but the comparison with man's need hierarchy suggests that each

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model is built upon the accomplishments of the other) For example, adoption of a supportive approach does not mean abandonment of custodial practices which serve necessary employee security needs. What it does mean is that custodial practices are relegated to secondary emphasis, because employees have progressed up their need structure to a condition in which higher needs predominate. In other words, the supportive model is the appropriate model to use because subsistence and security needs are already reasonably met by a suitable power structure and security system. If a misdirected modern manager should abandon these basic organizational needs, the system would quickly revert to a quest for a workable power structure and security system in order to provide subsistence-maintenance needs for its people.

Each model of organizational behaviour in a sense out-modes its predominance by gradually satisfying certain needs, thus opening up other needs which can be better served by a more advanced model. Thus, each new model is built upon the success of its predecessor. The new model simply represents a more sophisticated way of maintaining earlier need satisfactions, while opening up the probability of satisfying still higher needs.

A third conclusion suggests that the present tendency toward more democratic models of organizational behaviour will continue for the longer run. This tendency seems to be required by both the nature of technology and the nature of the need structure. **Harbison** and **Myers**, in a classical study of management throughout the industrial world, conclude that advancing industrialization leads to more advanced models of organizational behaviour. Specifically, authoritarian management gives way to more constitutional and democratic-participative models of management. These developments are inherent in the system; that is, the more democratic models tend to be necessary in order to manage productively an advanced industrial system. **Slater** and **Bennis** also conclude that more participative and democratic models of organizational behaviour inherently develop with advancing industrialization. They believe that "democracy is inevitable," because it is the only system which can successfully cope with changing demands of contemporary civilization in both business and government.

Both sets of authors accurately point out that in modern, complex organizations a top manager cannot be authoritarian in the traditional sense and remain efficient, because he cannot know all that is happening in his organization. He must depend on other centres of power nearer to operating problems. In addition, educated workers are not readily motivated toward creative and intellectual duties by traditional authoritarian orders. They require high-order need satisfactions which newer models of organizational behaviour provide. Thus, there does appear to be some inherent necessity for more democratic forms of organization in advanced industrial systems.

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A fourth and final conclusion is that, though one model may predominate as most appropriate for general use at any point in industrial history, some appropriate uses will remain for other models. Knowledge of human behaviour and skills in applying that knowledge will vary among managers. Role expectations of employees will differ depending upon cultural history. Policies on ways of life will vary among organizations. Perhaps more important, task conditions will vary. Some jobs may require routine, low-skilled, highly programmed work which will be mostly determined by higher authority and provide mostly material rewards and security (autocratic and custodial conditions). Other jobs will be unprogrammed and intellectual, requiring teamwork and self-motivation, and responding best to supportive and collegial conditions. This use of different management practices with people according to the task they are performing is called "management according to task" by Leavitt.

In the final analysis, each manager's behaviour will be determined by his underlying theory of organizational behaviour, so it is essential for him to understand the different results achieved by different models of organizational behaviour. The model used will vary with the total human and task conditions surrounding the work. The long-run tendency will be toward more supportive and collegial models because they better serve the higher-level needs of employees.

Knowledge management is any structured activity that improves an organization's capacity to acquire, share and use knowledge in ways that improve its survival and success.

The stock of knowledge that resides in an organization is called its intellectual capital, which is the sum of everything that an organization knows that gives it competitive advantage including its human capital, structural capital, and relationship capital.

Human capital: this is the knowledge that employees possess and generate including their skills, experience and creativity.

Structural capital: this is the knowledge captured and retained in an organization's systems and structures. It is the knowledge that remains after all the human capital has gone home.

Relationship capital: this is the value derived from an organization's relationships with customers, suppliers and other external stakeholders who provide added value for the organization. For example this includes customer loyalty as well as mutual trust between the organization and its suppliers.

Knowledge Management Processes

To maintain a valuable stock of knowledge, organizations depend on their capacity to acquire, share and use knowledge more effectively.

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This process is often called organizational learning because companies must continuously learn about their various environments in order to survive and succeed through adaptation. The capacity to acquire, share and use knowledge means that companies have established systems, structures and organizational values that support the knowledge management process.

Knowledge acquisition: this includes the process of extracting information and ideas from its environment as well as through insight. One of the fastest and most powerful ways to acquire knowledge is by hiring individuals or acquiring entire companies. Knowledge also enters the organization when employees learn from external sources, such as discovering new resources from suppliers or becoming aware of new trends from clients. A third knowledge acquisition strategy is through experimentation. Companies receive knowledge through insight as a result of search and other creative processes.

Knowledge sharing: this process refers to how well knowledge is distributed throughout the organization to those who would benefit from that knowledge.

Computer intranets are often marketed as complete “knowledge management” systems. While somewhat useful in cataloging where knowledge is located, these electronic storage systems can be expensive to maintain, they also overlook the fact that a lot of knowledge is difficult to document. Thus any technological solution needs to be supplemented by giving employees more opportunities for informal online or face to face interaction.

Knowledge use: Acquiring and sharing knowledge are wasted exercises unless knowledge is effectively put to use. To do this employees must realize that the knowledge is available and that they have enough freedom to apply it. This requires a culture that supports learning and change.

SUMMARY

- The autocratic model has its roots deep in history, and certainly it became the prevailing model early in the industrial revolution.
- In an autocratic environment the managerial orientation is formal, official authority. Authority is the tool with which management works and the context in which “it thinks, because it is the organizational means by which power is applied”. This authority is delegated by right of command over the people to whom it applies.
- The custodial model originally developed in the form of employee welfare programs offered by a few progressive employers, and in its worst form it became known as employer paternalism.

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- The supportive model, depends on leadership instead of power or economic resources. Since performance is supported, the employee's orientation is toward it instead of mere obedience and security.
- The collegial model depends on management's building a feeling of mutual contribution among participants in the organization.
- Each employee feels that he is contributing something worthwhile and is needed and wanted.

GLOSSARY

- **Knowledge Management:** Any structured activity that improves an organization's capacity to acquire, share and use knowledge in ways that improve its survival and success, is called knowledge management.
- **Intellectual Capital:** The stock of knowledge that resides in an organization is called its intellectual capital, which is the sum of human capital, structural capital, and relationship capital.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

- I. Write short notes on:
 1. The autocratic model
 2. The custodial model
 3. The supportive model
 4. The collegial model.
- II. Explain about knowledge management processes.

UNIT 3 NEW CHALLENGES TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

NOTES

★ STRUCTURE ★

- 3.1. Learning Objectives
- 3.2. Introduction
- 3.3. Open System
- 3.4. Contingency Approach
- 3.5. The New World Order is Emerging

3.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you can understand that why managers should study behaviour contingent upon certain conditions. You will come to know that the real test of managerial effectiveness lies in leadership, to know domestic and international events. And the pace of change will continue to accelerate. The major challenge the management faces today is living in a world of turbulence and uncertainty where the new competitors arrive on the scene.

3.2 INTRODUCTION

What are the field's fundamental assumptions? Fundamental ideas that are widely accepted by everyone who does scientific research on OB or who puts these findings into practice in organization.

First OB recognizes that organizations are dynamic and always changing. Second, the field of OB assumes there is no one single best way to behave in organizations. That is why the OB. Posits as challenging to the managers practising in organizational behaviour field.

OB recognizes the dynamic nature of organizations. So the OB managers/practitioners, are confronted with the problems of intractable, unpredictable nature and behaviour of people in the organization. The challenges came in the form of the questions—under what conditions will organizations change? How are organizations structured? How do organizations interact with their environments? These and related questions are of major interest to specialists in OB. They view organizations as open system. The open systems approach is characteristic

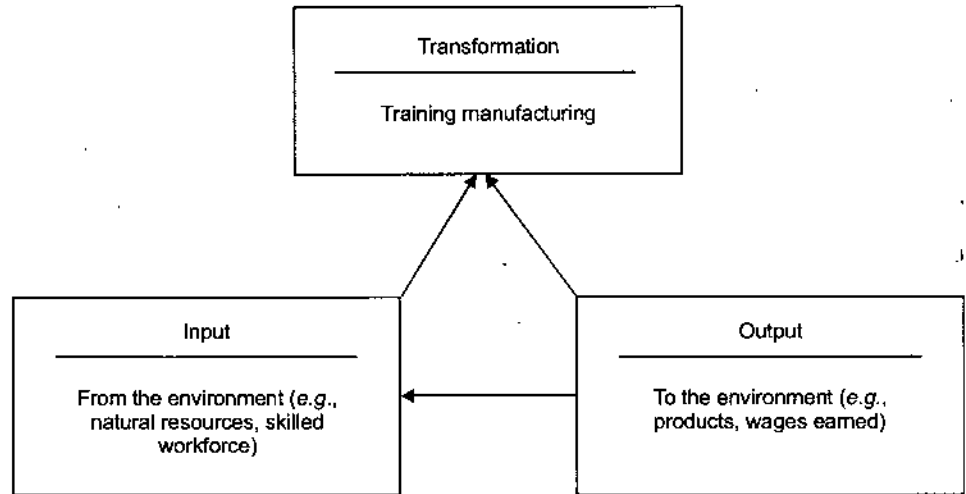
of modern day thinking in the field of OB. Organizations transform inputs to outputs in a continuous fashion.

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3.3 OPEN SYSTEM

Open Systems are self-sustaining systems that transform input from the external environment into output which the system then returns to the environment.

OB assumes there is no 'one best' approach—what's the most effective way to motivate people? What style of leadership works best? Who should make organizational decision.



3.4 CONTINGENCY APPROACH

An orientation that recognizes that behaviour in work settings is the complex result of many interacting forces. For example, how an individual's personal characteristics (*e.g.*, personal attitudes and beliefs) in conjunction with situational factors (*e.g.*, an organizational climate, relations between coworkers) all work together. Manager should study behaviour contingent upon certain conditions.

- Managers are supported to have clear concepts of productivity and efficiency learnt from scientific management and Hawthorne studies. The scientific management contributed Time and motion study—a type of applied research designed to streamline the individual movements needed to perform jobs with the intent of finding “*the one best way to perform them*”. Secondly managers should have human relations skills besides conceptual and technical skills. A perspective on OB—the importance of social process in work settings, which manager in each level should know. Hawthorne studies substantiates that social affiliation increases productivity and efficiency, even if there is change in working condition and wage/salary of the workers.

This concludes that managers should know group dynamics as a new way of thinking about behaviour at work.

- *Emphasis on Human Skills*—The emphasis on human skills was considered important in the past but it is of primary importance today. It is generally agreed that at least three areas of skill are necessary for the process of management; technical, human and conceptual.

Human Skill—ability and judgement in working with and through people, including an understanding of motivation and an application of effective leadership.

The leadership and management of organizations have never been more challenging and this is an exciting period for understanding and practicing both. The challenging problems in the management are business (profit organizations) government, not-for-profit, etc., and society.

The real test of managerial effectiveness lies in leadership, to know domestic and international events.

The pace of change will continue to accelerate. The major challenge management faces today is living in a world of turbulence and uncertainty where the new competitors arrive on the scene.

- The domain of management has become worldwide. **Michall Porter**, well-known author is strategic management expressed this idea of change in a international dimensions. Leaders/managers must meet this challenges, to serve demanding needs and above all to keep progressing.

The dissemination of information has exploded—today in this infotech age computer technology has made it possible to eliminate vast amount of learning, monotonous physical labour. So modern technology has changed the way managers operate. Today, however, easy access to information in computer databases has made it possible to gather the facts. The best managers should learn this technology to tap employees and build relationships.

- Contemporary OB recognizes that people care more than ever about the interpersonal side of work—recognition, relationships and social interaction.

This is more challenging, meaningful and interesting to connect these to various economic social and cultural trends and forces that shape today's society. These include three prominent trends:

- (i) the rise of global business
- (ii) rapid advances in technology and
- (iii) the rising expectations of people in general.

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3.5 THE NEW WORLD ORDER IS EMERGING

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Shift from human warfare to human welfare is emerging. For example, GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade) and NATFA (North American Free Trade Agreement) are just a few of the new trade arrangements that are becoming more powerful than military alliances. Tomorrow successful leaders will focus on action and implementation leadership, change, implementation, results: these are the operative words for the new world order.

To Build Competitive Advantage—It is the capability of the manager to build competitive advantage by applying industrial engineering techniques such as methods analysis, workflow, etc.. But the challenges come through better use of human resource management.

Capability of Effective Organizations—Customer satisfaction, respond quality and customer satisfaction, respond quickly to environmental changes, and innovate. To achieve these, every managers must face as challenges and are committed to continuous learning.

- The challenges of leading an organization—some concepts in the behavioral science give some good ideas to think about but they do not always tell you how or when to put those ideas into practice in the management.

Leadership and management are full time responsibilities that must be practiced every hour of every day. Situational leadership provides such a common language to help solve performance problems. Managers of OB are in pursuit of goal accomplishment, readiness assessment, appraisal of the results, to cope up the challenges they confront.

SUMMARY

- Open Systems are self-sustaining systems that transform input from the external environment into output which the system then returns to the environment.
- Managers should know group dynamics as a new way of thinking about behaviour at work.
- The leadership and management of organizations have never been more challenging and this is an exciting period for understanding and practicing both.

GLOSSARY

- **Human Skill:** It is the ability and judgement in working with and through people, including an understanding of motivation and an application of effective leadership.
- **Capability of Effective Organizations:** This includes customer satisfaction, respond quality and customer satisfaction, respond quickly to environmental changes and innovate.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain about open system.
2. Give a brief account on contingency approach.
3. What are the three prominent trends used by contemporary OB?

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UNIT 4 PERSONALITY

★ STRUCTURE ★

- 4.1. Learning Objectives
- 4.2. Meaning and Definitions
- 4.3. Determinants of Personality

4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After learning this unit, you can discuss about personality—definition, characteristics and determinants of personality. You can also understand the organizational culture and organizational socialization of employees. The most important base of personality development is the family and social setting during early stages of education.

4.2 MEANING AND DEFINITIONS

The word '*Personality*' is derived from the Latin Word '*Persona*'. The initial conception of personality was that of a superficial social image that an individual adopts in playing life roles.

Carl Rogers views personality in term of self, an organized, permanent, subjectively

perceived entity which is at the very heart of all our exception.

- "*Personality is the function of individual's adjustment to environment*" —**H. Theodore**.
- Personality is a stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those common abilities and differences in the psychological behaviour (thought, feelings and actions) of people that have continuity in line and that may not be easily understood as the sole results of the social and biological processes of the moment.
- **Garden Allpert** defines personality as that which an individual really is, an internal something that guides and directs all human activities. According to **Erickson**, life proceeds in terms

of a series of psychological crises and personality and personality is a function of their outcome.

Joe Kelley—regards personality as the individuals unique way of making sense out of life experiences.

- **Sigmund Freud** describes the structure of personality as composed of three elements id, ego and super ego.

According to **Greenberg** and **Robert Baron**—personality is the unique and relatively stable patterns of behaviour, thoughts and emotions shown by individuals.

Further they talked of 'Extrovert' and 'Introvert' types of personality. The former is very expressive, sociable; the latter directing of interest inwards towards one's own thoughts and feelings rather than towards the external world or making social contacts.

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Characteristics of Personality

1. Personality is an abstraction based on inferences derived from behavioural observation.
2. With the word personality, the uniqueness in all individuals is indicated. Further, it is through the study of personality that the special properties or combination of properties that distinguish one person from another can be made.
3. Personality is subject to a variety of internal and external influences, including genetic and biological tendency and disposition. It also emerges through social experience and changing environmental circumstances.

4.3 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

Of all the complexity and unanswered questions in the study of human behaviour this question may be the most difficult.

For ease of study and analyses, the determinants of personality can perhaps best be grouped in five broad categories: biological, cultural, family, social and situational.

- (i) *Biological (Heredity)*—Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception. Physical appearance, temperament, energy level and biological rhythms are the characteristics which are generally influenced by one's Parent's *i.e.*, one's biological, physiological and inherent psychological make-up. Human being inherits a certain degree of similarity to other individuals as well as uniqueness in the form of genes and chromosomes. Some of the characteristics such as physical traits (height, slimness,

dexterity, intellectual capacity and the ability to learn are inherited and have a wide impact on behavioral patterns.

- (ii) *Cultural Contribution*—The learning process plays an important role in personality development culture is the key concept in analyzing the content of learning because what a person learns has content. It is the context in which everything else takes place. For *e.g.*, an infant is fed and mustered and later grows into adulthood, are all culturally determined. The culture largely determines attributes, such as independence, aggression, competition and cooperation.

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Organizational culture refers to a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organization from other organization.

The following characteristics are the essence of organizational culture—

- (a) *Innovation and risk taking*
- (b) *Attention to detail*
- (c) *Outcome Orientation*—The degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on techniques and processes used to achieve these outcomes,
- (d) *People Orientation*—Management's decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people.

- (iii) *Family*—The socio-economic states of the family background and education of the parents and extended members of the family such as uncle aunts, grandfather, grandmother etc, influence the shaping of personality to a considerable extent.

Members in the family mould the character of all children, almost from birth, in several ways—by expressing and expecting their children to conform to their own values, through role modelling and through various rewards and punishments.

- (iv) *Social*—A person is known by the company he keeps is a common adage. The implication is that people influence each other and tend to associate with members who are more like them in their attitudes and values. The influence of various individuals and groups shapes our personality.

Besides the biological, cultural and family influences on personality, there is increasing recognition given to the role of other relevant persons, groups and especially organizations, which greatly influence an individual's personality. This is commonly called the socialization process. For example **Edgar Schein** notes "*It is high time that some focuses on those forces in the organization environment derived from social systems which do socialize their new members.*"

Socialization involves the process by which people acquire those behaviour patterns which are customary and acceptable by social standards. The following characteristics of such organizational socialization of employees are suggested by Schein—

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- (a) Change of attitude, values, and behaviours.
 - (b) Continuity of socialization over time.
 - (c) Adjustment to new jobs, work groups, and organizational process.
 - (d) Mutual influence between new recruits and their managers.
 - (e) Criticality of the early socialization period.
- (v) *Situation*—Though an individual's personality is consistent, it does change depending on the situation. Different demands in different situations call forth different aspect of one's personality.

Research on the immediate situational impact was conducted by **Stanley Milgram**. The implications of the Milgram study are herewith—

- (a) Research suggests the buy powerful role that the immediate situation can play in the human personality. In other words studying the situational determinants may be of as much value as studying case histories.
 - (b) It demonstrates that the immediate situations may potentially have a very big impact on the behavioral expression of the personality.
- (vi) *Conclusion*—The relationship of these three factors affects the formation and development of personality. Physiological inheritance is entirely an internal contribution. Group and the culture are the early environmental factors that forms behaviour.

Family and social setting during early stages of education are the important factors which influences the initial formation of personality whatever the child learns here lost for life time.

Later in life, it is the Peer Groups or Primary affiliations at work, social activities which shape the personality.

SUMMARY

- The word '*Personality*' is derived from the Latin Word '*Persona*'. The initial conception of personality was that of a superficial social image that an individual adopts in playing life roles.
- Personality is a stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those common abilities and differences in the psychological behaviour (thought, feelings and actions) of people that have continuity in line and that may not be easily understood

as the sole results of the social and biological processes of the moment.

NOTES

GLOSSARY

- **Organizational Culture:** It refers to a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organization from other organization.
- **Socialization Process:** Besides the biological, cultural and family influences on personality, there is increasing recognition given to the role of other relevant persons, groups and especially organizations which greatly influence and individual's personality. This is commonly called Socialization process.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the characteristics of personality? 15
2. Give a brief description about the determinants of personality. 16

UNIT 5 TRAITS THEORY

★ STRUCTURE ★

- 5.1. Learning Objectives
 - 5.2. Introduction
 - 5.3. Personality and Behaviour
-

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5.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you can discuss about Traits Theory and understand that a central theme of personality and organization is to arrange a match between the individuals needs and organizational requirements.

5.2 INTRODUCTION

Personality traits and types are useful in describing stable, behaviour patterns. One of the major ways of attempting to measure personality is through the trait approach.

A trait can be simply defined as an action or behaviour that is consistently exhibited. Because it occurs in diverse settings, we might consider any trait to be a disposition or a tendency to behave in a particular way. For example, a person is observed in a number of different situations. He or she always lets someone else take the initiative in deciding what to do. We might conclude that this tendency is a consistent personality element for that person. (Personality Trait—Submissiveness) Another person is opposite and display tendency—domineering.

Cattel (1973) identified 16 source traits/primary traits. Sixteen source traits:

1. Reserved—Outgoing
2. Less intelligent—More intelligent
3. Affected by feelings—Emotionally stable
4. Submissive—Dominant
5. Serious—Happy go lucky
6. Expedient—Conscientious
7. Timid—Venturesome
8. Tough minded—Sensitive
9. Trusting—Suspicious
10. Practical—Imaginative
11. Fortnight—Shrewd

12. Self-assured—Apprehensive
13. Conservative—Experimenting
14. Group-dependent—Self-sufficient
15. Uncontrolled—Controlled
16. Relaxed—Tense.

NOTES

In the clustering traits, individuals behaviour are seen with high degree of stability.

Locus of Control—Cognitive factor. This factor represents beliefs about causes and effects in one's life. At one extreme is the person who believes that the locus (location) of influences (control) over outcomes is within one's own behaviours such a person is termed an internal. At the other extreme is the person who believes that the locus of influences over outcome is outside one's control. Events are incapable of being affected by one's behaviours, such person is termed an external. Most people display varying degrees of these attributes. They cannot be completely internal or completely external. The internal-external terms identify extreme points on a scale of the degree to which one exhibits either internal or extreme beliefs.

Brief Differences—Internals believe that they can affect events and outcomes, that they can make the future conform to their wishes by appropriate actions. Externals on the other hand, feel powerless and unable to influence events no matter what they do. They believe control over their destinies. That outside source may be fate, luck, chance, or powerful others.

Machia Velianism—High Machs tend to take control, especially in loosely structured situations. Low Machs respond well to structured situations. High Machs tend to be more logical, rational and pragmatic. They are more skilled in influencing and coalition building.

Type A or Type B personality—

Type B—People who are hard-driving, impatient, aggressive and super competitive.

Type A—Productive, hard worker, but impatient, not team player, poor-judgement. Type B—do better complex tasks accurate, not team worker.

5.3 PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOUR

The personality is a major influence on tendencies to behave. We behave in ways that are consistent with culture values, self-concept and beliefs.

Individual traits and types such as aggression, extraversion are powerful in explaining causes of diverse behaviours. These patterns of behaviour may be traced to needs that are acquired by the individual.

- The behaviour is seen in personality order and management to satisfy the acquired needs—result from personality development and from interactions with others. There are socially based needs namely achievement (Ach) power (Pow) affiliation (Aff) and social manipulation (mach, for machiavellianism).

NOTES

Achievement Traits—The need for achievement (nAch) is a global concept. It does not measure one specific trait. It consists of a group of related traits. It consists of success orientation. The individual high in need achievement prefers to work alone; to competition, and task-oriented. An nAch individual needs to have some standard of excellence desire for accomplishment of something new and unique. They are not outsocial; their concern about people occurs only when they are useful in accomplishing the task.

- **Power Needs**—Need for affiliation and power (nAff and nPow respectively) govern interpersonal relationships. Certainly power and need for power are critical in organizations and in leadership situations.

People with high nPow find satisfaction in controlling or influencing the activities of others. For example—in a group of college students, significant differences are found between those high nPow and those in low nPow | nAff.

High nPow	Low nPow
Inclination towards leadership, prestige and status, attempting to sway others to their ways of thinking. Try to achieve influence over other people.	They have social motive, desire for social acceptance. Orientation towards friendship. Suitable for supervising positions. Display better interpersonal relationships. Lack command and task-oriented approach.

- **Social Manipulation Needs the Machiavellian**—The name for the pattern of behaviour states from traits attributed to Niccolo Machiavellian who wrote *The Prince* in the 1500s. Those high in nMach are those who have an implicit assumption that people are basically weak and innocent and that a rational person will take advantage of the weakness of others. As a result, such an individual has four general characteristics.

1. He is not basically concerned with morality.
2. He is basically cool and detached with other people.
3. He is more concerned with means than ends.
4. He is not pathologically disturbed nor would he have clinical systems of neurosis or psychosis.

Persons high in nMach are achievers. He is very effective when he interact with people and situation.

NOTES

- *Manager and Executive*—Who would be a better manager, the nAch, the nPow or the nAff person? Nach individual is oriented towards accomplishment, Naff toward relationships.

In our discussion on Personality and O.B., the following generalizations can be drawn:

Personality is possessed by every person.

Personality is a pattern of consistent behaviours and characteristics.

Personality is partially inborn and partially acquired personality develops.

Personality is influenced by internal, external and adjustment processes.

Personality can be described by characteristic behaviour traits.

Personality is dynamic rather than static.

Personality predisposes an individual to certain behavioral patterns.

Personality provides defenses and outlets for the self-concept and acquired motives.

Probably the simplest statement we can derive from all this is that "each individual is different from, yet similar to each other individual".

These differences and similarities are significant in explaining and predicting behavior in organized settings.

Consider the implication of personality theory for organization structure. We can here highlight Chris Argyris's thesis of personality development. The following steps indicate how the worlds of man and formal organization have developed.

- (i) Organizations emerge when the goals they seek to achieve are too complex for any one man. The actions necessary to achieve the goals are divided into units manageable by individuals.
- (ii) Individuals themselves have diverse needs. They contribute constructively to the organizations only if organization fulfills their needs.
- (iii) What are the needs that individuals seek to fulfill? Under any circumstances individual seek to fulfill those predisposition—to live grow in competence, to achieve self—acceptance *etc.*

A central theme of Personality and Organization is to arrange a match between the individuals needs and organizational requirements. So much for the model of man. Now to organization which have a life

of their own in the sense that they have goals that unfortunately may be independent of or antagonistic to individual needs.

Development Continua

NOTES

Infants Begin as	Adults Strive Toward
1. Being dependent and submissive to parents 2. Having few abilities—shallow abilities. 3. Having short range views (needs) (Immature behaviour patterns of individuals) He suggests dependence and passiveness subordinate.	1. Relative independence autonomy, relative control over their immediate world 2. Developing many abilities 3. Developing long-range goals/needs (Organization form may be personality influence, rational inflexibility, better climate of subordinate super relationships).

The two models have interactions; so is the likelihood of conflict between the needs of individuals and the formal organization.

We can conclude that organizations are restrictive failing to allow members to develop psychologically and encouraging mature behaviour patterns.

What factors determine the extent of the incoherence? *i.e.*, not compatible with Personality vs Organization. The chief factors are:

- (i) The lower the employee is positioned in the hierarchy, the less control he has over his working conditions and the less he is able to employ his abilities.
- (ii) The more directive the leadership, the more dependent the employee and lost the more unilateral the managerial controls, the more dependent the employee will feel. Individuals find these needs difficult to ignore or suppress and if they are suppressed, frustration and conflict result.

The employees fights the organization through union. The employees leaves the organization. The employee leaves it psychologically being indifferent lethargic. The employee downgrades the importance of work (meaningless work).

The personality model provides the base for predictions as to the impact of any organizational variable upon the individual, such as organizational structure, job content, leadership—style, group norms and so on.

NOTES

SUMMARY

- A trait can be simply defined as an action or behaviour that is consistently exhibited.
- The personality is a major influence on tendencies to behave. We behave in ways that are consistent with culture values, self-concept and beliefs.

GLOSSARY

- **Trait:** A trait can be simply defined as an action or behaviour that is consistently exhibited.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Generalize personality and O.B.
2. What are the factors which determine the extent of the incoherence?

UNIT 6 PERCEPTION

★ STRUCTURE ★

- 6.1. Learning Objectives
- 6.2. What is Perception?

NOTES

6.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you can understand what is Perception and Perceptual Process. You can also be aware of stereotyping and Halo effect and its positive and negative effects.

6.2 WHAT IS PERCEPTION?

Perception describes the process whereby people become aware of the outside world and themselves. Perception is the intellectual process by which a person acquires the information from the environment, organize it and obtain the meaning from it. Perception basically refers to the manner in which a person experiences the world. Perception is *"The process by which people organize, interpret, experience process and use stimulus materials in the environment so that they satisfy their needs"*.

According to **Luthans** *"One of the most important Cognitive Process— Perception"*. Cognitions are basically bits of information and the cognitive process involve the ways in which people process that information. People's individual difference and uniqueness are largely the result of the cognitive process, (imagination, perception and even thinking).

- The study of perception makes an important contribution to a better understanding of OB writers feel that behaviour is largely a product of the way people perceive themselves and the world around them at any given moment.

In terms of the S-O-B-C model perception involves the O-selecting, organizing, and interpreting the S. Perception is to recognize that it is unique interpretation of the situation, not an exact recording of it.

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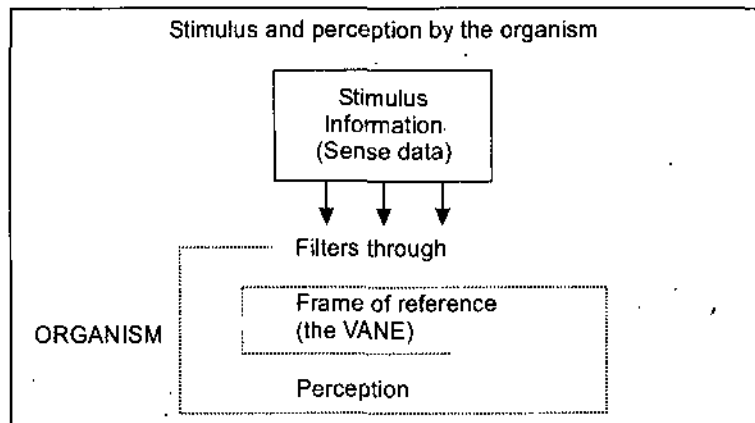
In short perception is a very complex cognitive process that yields a unique picture of the world that may be quite different from reality.

- **Definition**—“Perception can be defined as a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment”. **S. Robbins.** For example—working conditions, job assignments pay/salary of an organization are not viewed same by the employees and on better agreement. The definition is important to the study of OB, because people’s behaviour is based on their perception of what reality is, not on reality itself.
- “Perception is much more complex and much broader than sensation. The perceptual process involves a complicated interaction of selection, organization and interpretation”. For example, while going in a train, a person senses trees moving, but object is perceived stationary.

The perceptual process overcomes the sensual process and the person sees the object as stationary. There is difference between sensation and perception. All knowledge of the world depends on the senses (6 organs) and their stimulation but the sensory data are insufficient to explain the coherent picture of the world. So the study of the perception clarify the relationship between perception and sensation. The former is complex and broader than sensation dealing with elementary behaviour (physical functioning).

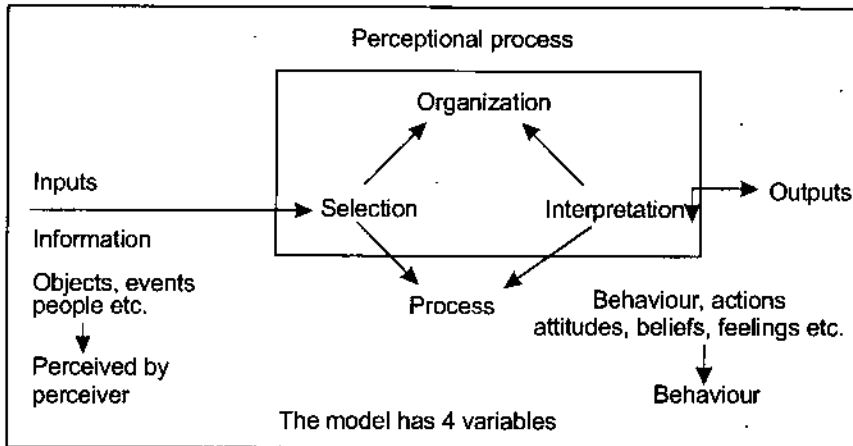
- **Jerome S. Bruner** of Harvard argues “that perception involves an act of categorization”.

Bruner said that when we perceive something we try to fit it into a classification system or frame of reference. The frame of reference includes values, attitudes, needs, and expectations.



Perceptual Process

Perceptual inputs are first received, then processed by the perceiver and the resultant output becomes the base of the behaviour.



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For the perceiver reality lies not in the event but in the phenomenon or his perception of the event. If a person is reacting to something as real, then that phenomenon is real for that person.

Perception is first of all, selective or screening process which ensures that some information is processed and some is not.

In the process, perpetual selection takes account of only those stimuli that are relevant and appropriate for an individual. Perceptual organization is concerned with shaping the perceived inputs and finally Perceptual interpretation deals with inference from observed meaning from the perceived events or objects. From this behaviour emerges.

- *Perceptual Selectivity*—Numerous stimuli are constantly confronting everyone all the time. The noises of cars, planes or street repair work are a few of the stimuli affecting the other senses, plus the impact of the total environmental situation. But why do people select out only a very few stimuli at a given time? The answer lies in the principles of perceptual selectivity.

Various external and internal factors affect perceptual selectivity. The external factors consists of outside environmental influences such as intensity, size, contrast, repetition, motion, novelty and familiarity.

Selectivity perception involves two psychological principles:

- (a) *Figure ground principle*—In the field of perception process, certain factors are considered significant and other meaningless (insignificant) significant portion is called the 'figure' and the insignificant portion is labeled as 'ground'.
- (b) *Relevancy*—All criterion for selective perception. People selectively perceive things that are relevant to their needs and desires.

Repetition—The repetition principle states that a repeated external stimulus is more attention—getting than a single one. Repetition increases

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our selectivity or alertness to the stimulus. The principle explains why supervisors have to give directions over and over again.

Motion—People will pay more attention to moving objects in their field of vision than they do stationary objects.

Novelty and Familiarity—The principle states that either a novel or a familiar external situation can serve as an attention gutter. Job-rotation is an example of this principle.

Internal Set Factors—Another process component in selectivity is internal set which is based on the individual's complex psychological make-up. People will select act stimuli or situations from the environment that appeal to and are compatible with their learning and motivation and with their personality.

Organization—The perceived inputs(incoming stimuli) are organized into meaningful pictures to the perceiver. Organizing the information that is incoming into a meaningful whole is called 'organization'. The process is also leveled as '*gestalt process*'. Gestalt is a German word meaning 'to organize'. There are different ways by which people organize the perceived inputs, objects, events for e.g., grouping, closure and simplification.

Grouping—Grouping is possible depending on the similarity or proximity. The tendency to group people or things that appear to be similar in certain ways but not in all, is a common means of organizing the perceptions.

Closure—The tendency to form a complete message is known as 'closure'. People when faced with incomplete information have a tendency to fill the gaps themselves to make it more meaningful.

Simplification—Whenever people are overloaded with information they try to simplify it to make it more meaningful and understandable.

Interpretation—The third and most important mechanism of perception is interpretation. Without the interpretation it does not make any sense. Interpretation is subjective and judgmental process. In organization, interpretation is influenced by many factors such as the halo effect, stereotyping attribution, impression, and inference.

Halo Effect

Stereotyping—The term stereotyping refers to the tendency to perceive another person (hence social perception) as belonging to a single class or category. The word stereotype was first applied by **Walter Lippmann** to perception. Since then, stereotyping has become a frequently used term to describe perceptual errors. It is employed in analyzing prejudice. Not commonly acknowledged is the fact that stereotyping may attribute favourable or unfavourable traits to the persons being perceived.

Most often a person is put into a stereotype because the perceiver knows only the overall category to which the person belongs. However, because each individual is unique, the real traits of the person will be quite different from those of the stereotype.

The basic problem with stereotyping is that it does not give in-depth truth and give rise to distortion because sometimes perception may be inaccurate and based on a false impression about a particular group.

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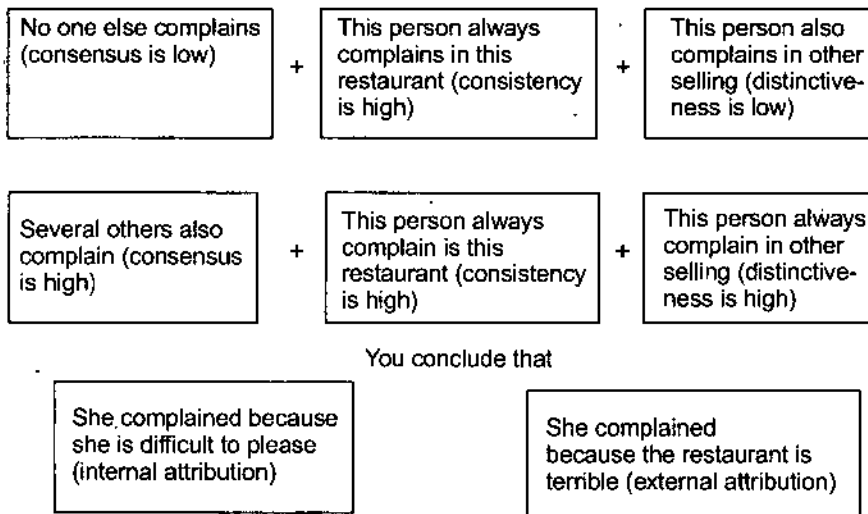
- *Halo Effect*: It is the process of using a single trait of individual and drawing a general impression about him. It has an important implication for evaluation employees in an organization. These employees with certain features are rated highly on other characteristics also. But halo effect, while finding in the process, leads to negative effects.

Attribution—Refers simply to how a person explains the cause of author's or his or her own behaviour. It plays, in the process, an important role to diagnose motivation and leadership. For example, attributions have been formed to effect evaluations of other's performance, to determine the manner in which supervisors behave toward subordinates, and to influence personal satisfaction with one's work. It depends on internal, personal attributions or external, situational attributions.

Impression—People often form impression of others on the first sight. Even before knowing any of their personality traits they start having impression and assess. This sometimes leads to perceptual distortions.

Inference—There is a growing tendency on the part of people to judge others on limited information. For example, an employee might be sitting at his desk throughout the working hours without doing anything but it is inferred that he is hardworking.

You observe an individual complaining about the food, service and decor in a restaurant. To answer why? You can conclude that—



SUMMARY

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- Perception is the process by which people organize, interpret, experience process and use stimulus materials in the environment so that they satisfy their needs.
- Perceptual organization is concerned with shaping the perceived inputs and finally Perceptual interpretation deals with inference from observed meaning from the perceived events or objects.
- Most often a person is put into a stereotype because the perceiver knows only the overall category to which the person belongs.

GLOSSARY

- **Stereotyping:** The term stereotyping refers to the tendency to perceive another person (hence social perception) as belonging to a single class or category.
- **Halo Effect:** It is the process of using a single trait of individual and drawing a general impression about him.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is perception?
2. Write a short note on perceptual process.
3. What is meant by halo effect? Explain.

UNIT 7 PERCEPTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR— ORGANIZATIONAL APPLICATION

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★ STRUCTURE ★

- 7.1. Learning Objectives
- 7.2. Introduction
- 7.3. Impression Management in the Employment Interview
- 7.4. Performance Appraisals: Formal Judgements about Job Performance

7.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to understand the role of perception in Organizational Behaviour and Application of it. You can also know that employment interview is an important input into the hiring decision.

7.2 INTRODUCTION

We have identified some of the basic processes of social perception and have attended to ways in which they are involved in organizational behaviour. Now in this section we will make these connections more explicit. We will study the role of perception in organizational activities.

People in organizations are always assessing others. Managers must appraise their subordinate's performance, evaluate how co-workers are working. When a new person joins a department he or she is immediately assessed by the other persons. These have important effect on the organization.

7.3 IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT IN THE EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW

Looking Good to Prospective Employers

The desire to make a favourable impression on others is universal. So efforts by individuals to improve how they appear to others known

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as—*impression management*. In employment interview, for example, there are several things job candidates commonly do to enhance the impressions they make. In a recent study researchers audiotaped the interviews between college students looking for jobs and representatives of companies that posted openings at the campus job placement center. The various statements made by the candidates were categorized with respect to the impression management techniques they used.

Interviews make perceptual judgements that are often inaccurate. Different interviews see different things in the same candidate and arrive at different conclusions about the applicant. Employment interview is an important input into the hiring decision. With this in mind the job interview may be seen as an *ongoing effort on behalf of candidates to present themselves favorably and for interviewers to try to see through those attempts to judge candidates accurately.*

7.4 PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS: FORMAL JUDGEMENTS ABOUT JOB PERFORMANCE

Performance Appraisal

The process of evaluating employees on various work—related dimensions. Typically performance appraisals are conducted on an annual or semiannual basis usually for purposes of determining, increments, promotions, and training needs. When properly conducted performance appraisal provide valuable feedback towards improving job performance.

While this may be objective most jobs are evaluated in subjective term. Subjective measures are judgemental. The evaluator forms a general impression on a employee's work. The process should be rational, unbiased leading to objective judgement. But as far as perception is concerned, the evaluation process is far from objective, (an inherently biased process).

Level of Ratings—Depends on the extent to which that performance is consistent with their initial expectations. Managers give higher ratings to those who are loyal to him or follow their instructions; generally more at executive level than lower level.

Perception is based not only on the characteristics of the persons being perceived but on the characteristics of the perceiver as well. This conclusion is supported by research, showing several different attribution biases in evaluation of job performance. For example, how the similar-to-me effect operates in a performance appraisal situation.(Cultivate positive impression of superior).

In other words, our evaluations of other's performance are qualified by the nature of the attributions we make about that performance.

They represent as complex mix of perceptual biases—effects that must be appreciated and well understood if we are to have any chance of improving the accuracy of the performance evaluation process.

Productivity—What individuals perceive from their work situation will influence their productivity. It does not matter much whether a job is actually interesting or challenging (not relevant). How a manager successfully places and organizes the work of his subordinates and actually helps them in structuring their work is far less important than how his subordinates perceive his efforts.

Therefore to be able to influence productivity it is necessary to assess how workers perceive their jobs.

- *Administrative Behaviour and Perception*—The place of perception in attitude formation and behaviour is significant. Behaviours occur as the respect of perception should members perceive hostility and aggression, they will react with behaviours appropriate to such threats. If one subconsciously feels inferior to another, that person will act in a submissive manner.

Managers are no different except that they function in more complex and ambiguous situations than do subordinates or people. Yet the manager's relationships with others are based on perceptions of their basic natures and motivations.

McGregor identified two major perceptual structures which he labeled Theory X and Y. The manager who perceives people according to either structure, regardless of whether or not such perceptions are recognized or acknowledged, will behave in predictable patterns because of personal assumptions, beliefs and attitudes.

- *Social Perception and Social Identity*—When it causes to form opinions, there is a subtle process going on—a process people use to judge and understand the people and things with which they come into contact. This process known as social perception—what others like. This is the process of combining, integrating and interpreting information about others to gain an accurate understanding of them.

Meeting New People—An opportunity for social perception, goes on all the time in organizations.

Job Satisfaction—Job satisfaction is as highly subjective and feeling of the benefits that derive from the job. This is critically linked to perception. If job satisfaction is to be improved the worker's perception of the job characteristics, supervision and the organization as whole must be positive.

The important fact is that people who work together often see things differently and this difference can create problems in their ability to work together effectively.

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In order to decrease the errors involved in perception, one has to keep in mind the way the perceptual process work.

By understanding the process one can do a better job at missing their negative effect secondly, one can compare one's perception with other people, if they are representing different backgrounds, cultures or training.

Thirdly, one should understand other person's point of view, it may help to know why one is wrong.

Fourthly, one should be willing to change, when one comes across new information. This will overcome stereotypes, halo effects, and perceptual defences.

Finally, one should view the world in dynamic terms because one's understanding the process of perception is important because—

- (i) It should be that a person's definition of reality will be identical to an objective assessment of reality.
- (ii) It is unlikely that two different person's definition of reality will be exactly the same.
- (iii) Individuals perceptions directly influences the behaviour exhibited in a given situation.

In short it can be said that perceptual skills can be enhanced by—

- (a) Knowing and perceiving oneself accurately.
- (b) Being emphatic *i.e.*, to see a situation as it is experienced by others.
- (c) Having positive attitudes which helps in reduction of perceptual distortions.
- (d) Enhancing one's self-concept which helps in perceiving more accurately.
- (e) Masking a conscious effort to avoid the possible concern biases in perception.
- (f) Communicating with employees to erase incorrect perceptions.
- (g) Avoiding attributions.

Perception is an important process in an organization. It plays a vital role in forming the basis of one's behaviour by which one formulates a view of the world.

SUMMARY

- Perception is based not only on the characteristics of the persons being perceived but on the characteristics of the perceiver as well.

- The manager who perceives people according to either structure, regardless of whether or not such perceptions are recognized or acknowledged, will behave in predictable patterns because of personal assumptions, beliefs and attitudes.
- In order to decrease the errors involved in perception, one has to keep in mind the way the perceptual process work.

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GLOSSARY

- **Social Perception:** This is the process of combining, integrating and interpreting information about others to gain an accurate understanding of them.
- **Impression Management:** The efforts by individuals to improve how they appear to others is known as impression management.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Why should we understand the process of perception? Why is it important?
2. How can the perceptual skills be enhanced?

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UNIT 8 LEARNING**★ STRUCTURE ★**

- 8.1. Learning Objectives
- 8.2. Nature and Definition of Learning
- 8.3. Learning about Learning from your Own Experience
- 8.4. Foundations of Individual Behaviour
- 8.5. How do We Learn?
- 8.6. Myth or Science
- 8.7. Shaping: A Managerial Tool
- 8.8. Learning and O.B.
- 8.9. Measurement of Attitude

8.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to understand the process of learning and development and use this understanding to good effect in developing people and their organizations. You will be able to think clearly about the concepts you are using.

8.2 NATURE AND DEFINITION OF LEARNING

The concepts 'learning' and 'development' are frequently used interchangeably. The following definitions will enable you to distinguish them and understand the relationship between them.

Learning: A process within the organism which results in the capacity for changed performance which can be related to experience rather than maturation.

It is an experience after which an individual qualitatively changed the way he or she conceived something' (Burgoyne and Hodgson, 1983:393)

- Learning is a process: not just a cognitive process that involves the assimilation of information in symbolic form (as in book learning), but also an effective and physical process (Binsted, 1980). Our emotions, nerves and muscles are involved in the process, too. It is a process that can be more or less effectively undertaken, and it leads to change, whether positive or negative, for the

learner. It can be more effective when we pay it conscious attention.

Development, however, is the process of becoming increasingly complex, more elaborate and differentiated, by virtue of learning and maturation. In an organism, greater complexity, differentiation among the parts, leads to changes in the structure of the whole and to the way in which the whole functions (Reese and Overton, 1970:126). In the individual, this greater complexity opens up the potential for new ways of acting and responding to the environment. This leads to the opportunity for even further learning, and so on. Learning, therefore, contributes to development. It is not synonymous with it but development cannot take place without learning.

- The outcomes of a person's learning and development are the way they think, feel and interpret their world (their cognition, affect, attitudes, overall philosophy of life); The way they see themselves, their self-concept and self-esteem; and their ability to respond to and make their way in their particular environment (their perceptual-motor, intellectual, social, interpersonal skills). In the section on the nature of the learner you will find the description that **Daloz** (1986:24–26) gives of development. He likens it to a journey that starts from the familiar world and moves through 'confusion, adventure, great highs and lows, struggle, uncertainty... toward a new world' in which 'nothing is different, yet all transformed' ; 'its meaning has profoundly changed'. Learning and development, therefore are significant experiences for individuals and for organizations.

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8.3 LEARNING ABOUT LEARNING FROM YOUR OWN EXPERIENCE

All engage in the processes of learning and development, but mostly without paying conscious attention to them and, therefore, not fully understanding them. As you read this chapter, will find that you have personal experience of some of the issues it deals with.

Learning

All complex behaviour is learned. If we want to explain and predict behaviour, we need to understand how people learn. In this section, we define learning, present three popular learning theories, and describe how managers can facilitate employee learning.

Definition of Learning

What is learning? A psychologist's definition is considerable broader than the layperson's view that It's what we did when we went to

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school. In actuality, each of us is continuously going to school. *“Learning occurs all the time. Therefore, a generally accepted definition of learning is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience. Ironically, we can say that changes in behaviour indicate that learning has taken place and that learning is a change in behaviour”*. **S. Rabbin**

Obviously, the foregoing definition suggests that we shall never see someone “learning”.

We can see changes taking place but not the learning itself. The concept is theoretical and, hence, not directly observable.

You have seen people in the process of learning, you have seen people who behave in a particular way as a result of learning and some of you (in fact, I guess the majority of you) have “learned” at some time in your life. In other words, we infer that learning has taken place if an individual behaves, reacts, responds as a result of experience in a manner different from the way he formerly behaved.

- Our definition has several components that deserve clarification. First, learning involves change. Change may be good or bad from an organizational point of view. People can learn unfavourable behaviours—to hold prejudices or to restrict their output, for example—as well as favourable behaviours. Second the change must be relatively permanent. Temporary changes may be only reflexive and may not represent learning. Thirdly our definition is concerned with behaviour. Learning takes place when there is a change in actions. A change in an individual's thought process or attitudes, if not accompanied by a change in behaviour, would not be learning. Finally, some form of experience is necessary for learning. Experience may be acquired directly through observation or practice, or it, may be acquired indirectly, as through reading. The crucial test still remains: Does this experience result in a relatively permanent change in behaviour? If the answer is Yes, we can say that learning has taken place.

Greenburg and Baron state—*“learning is involved in a broad spectrum of organisational behaviours, ranging from developing new vocational skills, to managing employees in ways that foster the greatest productivity”*.

Killy defines learning *“learning refers to the development and modification of behaviour to get somewhere or do something”*.

There are different schools of learning theory—generally learning theories seem to fall into six general schools.

- The 1st school is known as the *Behaviourist School*. Primarily, these theories hold that learning results from the rewards or

punishments that follows a response to a stimulus. These are the so-called S-R Theories.

E.L. Thordike was one of the early researchers into learning. Generally he held that learning was a trial-and-error process. When faced with the need to respond appropriately to a stimulus, the learner tries any and all of his response patterns. If by chance one works, then that one tends to be repeated and the others neglected. From his research he developed certain laws to further explain the learning process—for example, the Law of Effect: if a connection between a stimulus and response is satisfying to the organism, its strength is increased—if unsatisfying, its strength is reduced.

E.R. Guthrie basically accepted Thordike's theory, but did not accept the Law of Effect. He came up with an "S-R Contiguity Theory" of learning. His position was that the moment a stimulus was connected to a response—the stimulus would thereafter tend to elicit that response. Thus, if I am learning a poem and learn it sitting down, I can probably recall that poem best when sitting rather than standing. Generally he did not attach much significance to reward and punishment—responses will tend to be repeated simply because they were the last ones made to stimulus.

Clark Hull introduced a new concept—not only was a stimulus and response present in learning—but the organism itself could not be overlooked. The response to a stimulus must take into account the organism and what it is thinking, needing, and feeling at the moment. We now had the S-O-R concept.

- **B.F. Skinner** is usually identified with the Behaviourist School. Rather than construct a theory of learning. He seems to believe that by observation and objective reporting we can discover how organisms learn without the need of a construct to explain the process. He depends heavily upon that is called operant conditioning. He makes a distinction between "Respondent" and "Operant" behaviour. Respondent behaviour is that behaviour caused by a known stimulus, operant behaviour is that behaviour for which we can not see or identify a stimulus, though one may, and probably does, exist. If we can anticipate an operant behaviour, and introduce a stimulus when it is evidenced, we can provide the occasion for the behaviour by introducing the stimulus—but the stimulus does not necessarily evoke the behaviour. Thus the emphasis in learning is on correlating a response with reinforcement. This is at the heart of programmed instruction—a correct response is reinforced.

Other researchers have developed variations of the theories described above. Some assume that the organism is relatively passive but the

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response is in the repertoire of the learner. Other theorists pay particular attention to instrumental conditioning. They assume that the organism acts on his environment and that the response may not be in his repertoire.

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Your very reading of this book may itself represent some of these issues. Before proceeding further, therefore, it makes sense to identify and reflect upon them so that you will then have the 'hooks' ready in your mind on to which to hang the information this chapter will give you. In the language of a learning theory to be noted later, you will be ready to decode these new signals.

- **Berelson and Steiner** define learning as "*Changes in behaviour that result from previous behaviour in similar situations. Mostly, but by no means always, behaviour also becomes demonstrably more effective and more adaptive after the exercise than it was before. In the broadest terms, then learning refers to the effects of experience, either direct or symbolic on subsequent behaviour.*"

Learning would seem to imply these kind of things:

- (a) Knowing something intellectually or conceptually one never knew before.
- (b) Being able to do something one could not do before—behaviour or skill.
- (c) Combining two known into a new understanding of a skill, piece of knowledge, concept, or behaviour.
- (d) Being able to use or apply new combination of skills, knowledge, concept, or behaviour.
- (e) Being able to understand and/or apply that which one knows—either skill, knowledge, or behaviour.

Managers are confronted by many factors about which they must make decision:

- (a) *Desired Outcomes from the Learning Experience.* This can range from complex comprehension of organisational dynamics to simply manual skills. The managers who underwrite training programmes normally stipulate an entirely different set of training outcomes. These usually are identified as reduction of costs; increased productivity; improved morale; and a pool of promotional replacements. Sometimes these are confused by training directors as outcomes of training that are affected by learning theory. It seems to us that these may be results of training but that learning theory does not directly relate to these are outcomes.

- (b) *Site for Learning.* Training directors are concerned whether learning best occurs on the job; in a classroom; on organizational premises or off organizational premises, university or other formal site; cultural island; or at home.
- (c) *Learning Methods.* These are on a continuum from casual reading to intense personal involvement in personal-relationship laboratories.

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Learning occurs when stimulus is associated with response. From these generalization about how learning occurs a number of specific learning laws, rules or statements are derived. For *e.g.*, repetition of response strengthens its connection with a stimulus and elapse between the stimulus and the response—or the response may be a series of responses that stretch over a period of time. For example, a man may be desirous of marrying a girl but will work for ten years to save enough money to support her adequately before proposing.

Gestalt School

The second grouping is the *Gestalt School*. These theorists believe that learning is not a simple matter of stimulus and response. They hold that learning is cognitive and involves the whole personality. To them, learning is infinitely more complex than the S-R Theories would indicate. For example, they note that learning may occur simply by thinking about a problem. **Kurt Lewin, Wolfgang Kohler, E.C. Tolman** and **Max Wertheimer** are typical theorists in this school. They reject the theory that learning occurs by the building up, bit by bit, of established S-R connections. To them, "*the whole is more than the sum of the parts.*"

"Central in Gestalt theory is the law of 'Pragnaz' which indicates the direction of events. According to this law, the psychological organization of the individual tends to move always in one direction, always toward the good Gestalt, an organization of the whole which is regular, simple, and stable."

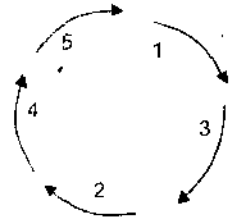
The law of 'Pragnaz' is further a law of equilibrium. According to it, the learning process might be presented as follows: The individual is in a state of equilibrium, of 'good' Gestalt. He is confronted by a *learning situation*. *Tensions develop and disequilibrium results.* The individual thus moves away from equilibrium but at the same time he strives to move back to equilibrium. In order to assist this movement back to the regular, simple, stable state, the learning situation should be structured so as to possess a good organization (*e.g.*, simple parts should be presented first; these should lead in an orderly fashion to more difficult parts). The diagram represents the movement towards equilibrium in the learning process.

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A third school is the *Freudian School*. This is a difficult school to capsule. "It is no simple task to extract a theory of learning from Freud's writing, for while he was interested in individual development and the kind of re-education that goes on in psychotherapy, the problems whose answers he tried to formulate were not those with which theorists in the field of learning have been chiefly concerned. Psychoanalytic theory is too complex and, at least at the present time, too little formalized for it to be presented as a set of propositions subject to experimental testing.

Figure of Equilibrium

1. The learning situation is presented to the individual.
2. He moves away from equilibrium.
3. But attempts to move back to equilibrium.
4. He organizes the new material in a effort to integrate and systematic it.
5. He moves to equilibrium.



A fourth school is the *Functionalists*. These seem to take parts of all the theories and view learning as a very complex phenomenon that is not explained by either the Gestalt or the Behavioural Theories. Some of the leaders in this school are John Dewey, J.R. Angell, and R.S. Woodworm. These men borrow from all the other schools and are sometimes referred to as "middle of the roaders".

A fifth so-called school are those who subscribe to *Mathematical models*. To these researchers, learning theories must be stated in mathematical form. Some of these proponents come from different learning theory schools but tend to focus on mathematical models such as Feedback Model, Information—Theory Model, Gaming Model, Different Calculus Model, Stochastic Model, and the Statistical Association Model. As one tries to understand this school, it occurs to one that they seem to have to theory of their own but are expressing research findings of other theorists in mathematical terms.

A sixth school is more general in nature and can best be characterized by calling it *Current Learning Theory Schools*. These are quite difficult to classify and seem to run the range of modifying Gestalt Theories, modifying Behavioural theories, accommodating two pieces of both theories, assuming that training involves the whole man— psychological, physiological, biological, and neurophysiological. Some of these are the Postulate System of MacCorquodale and Meehl and the Social Learning Theory of Rotter.

Current Research

Some of the more exciting kinds of current research seem to be in the neurophysiological interpretations of learning. One example of this was shown on a national television program, "Way Out Men." February 13, 1965. In this research, flatworms are trained to stay within a white path. If they deviate from the white path, they receive an electrical shock. After the flatworms learn to stay within the prescribed path, they are then chopped up and fed to a control group of worms. This control group learns to stay within the white path in about half the learning time. This has led some theorists to talk about the possibility of eventually feeding students "professor Burgers".

Additional research is going on in this area and we have recently seen two or three other related pieces of research. It seems to indicate a key as to where memory and instincts are stored so that they can be transmitted to offspring. One is intrigued by this research when one remembers popular beliefs such as "Eating of the Tree of Knowledge", eating fish is good brain food, and the practice of cannibals eating the brain of an educated man to become smart or to eat the heart of a brave man to become courageous.

Transfer of Learning

One of the problems that often confront a training director is the transfer of learning. Some of the major ways in which learning theories attempt to provide for the transfer of that which is learned to the work situation are the following:

1. Actually doing the "that" which is being learned. In this instance, we believe transfer is best when learning occurs on or in live situations. This is so because little or no transfer is needed—what is learned is directly applied. Instances employing this technique are on-the-job training, coaching, apprenticeship, and job experience.
2. Doing something that is similar to that which is to be learned. This transfer principle is applied when we use simulated experiences—the training experience and techniques are as similar to the job as, possible. Sometimes we let the trainee discover the principles and apply them to his job. In other instances, particularly in skill training, he works on mockups which closely resemble the actual equipment on which he will work. Other techniques would include role playing, sensitivity training and case studies.
3. Reading or hearing about that which is to be learned. In this instance, the trainer or book gives the trainee the principles and then discuss and illustrates them. The trainee must now

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figure out the ways in which he has heard or read applies to his job and how he can use it. Illustrative training techniques would be lecturers, reading, and most management and supervisory training programs featuring the "telling" method.

4. Doing or reading about anything on the assumption it will help anything to be learned. In this instance there is an assumption that a liberalized education makes the trainee more effective in whatever job he occupies or task he is to learn. This might be termed the liberal arts approach. It assumes that a well-rounded, educated person is 'more effective, and more easily trained in specifics, if he understands himself, his society, his world, and other disciplines. Obviously, this would be a somewhat costly way of training. It would involve perceptual living and generalized education.

Most research has gone into the transfer of learning. Most of this occurs in the S-R Theories. It seems to be less of a problem in the other major theories. This is quite understandable as one compares the theories of learning. For example, the S-R Theories become quite concerned with questions like "Will the study of mathematics help a person learning a foreign language easier and more quickly?" This has led to much research regarding the conditions under which the transfer of learning best occurs. It is also applicable to conceptual learning. For example, will learning how to delegate responsibilities to children be useful in the delegation process in the work organization?

Conditions for Learning

The concerns about motivating individuals to learn, and the recognition that there is such a thing as learning process. Numerous lists of conditions for learning exist. They vary depending on the learning theory schools. However, there is a remarkable acceptance of some general conditions that should exist for learning regardless of the learning theory employed. One of these composite lists follows:

1. Acceptance that all human beings can learn. The assumption, for example, that you "cannot teach an old dog new tricks" is wrong. Few normal people at any age are probably incapable of learning. The tremendous surge in adult education and second careers after retirement attest to people's ability to learn at all ages.
2. The individual must be motivated to learn. This motivation should be related to the individual's drives.
 - (a) The individual must be aware of the inadequacy of unsatisfactoriness of his present skill, behaviour, or knowledge.
 - (b) The individual must have a clear picture of the behaviour which he is required to adopt.

3. Learning is an active process, not passive. It takes action and involvement by and of the individual with resource persons and the training group.
4. Normally, the learner must have guidance. Trial and error are too time consuming. This is the process of feedback. The learner must have data on "how am I doing" if he is to correct improper performance before it becomes patronized.
5. Appropriate materials for sequential learning must be provided: cases; problems discussion, reading. The trainer must possess a vast repertoire of training tools and materials and recognize the limitations and capacities of each. It is in this area that so many training directors get trapped by utilizing the latest training fads or gimmicks for inappropriate learning.
6. Time must be provided to practice the learning; to internalize to give confidence. Too often trainers are under pressure to "pack the program"—to utilize every moment available to "tell them something". This is inefficient use of learning time. Part of the learning process requires sizable pieces of time for assimilation, testing, and acceptance.
7. Learning Methods if possible should be varied to avoid boredom. It is assumed that the trainer will be sufficiently sophisticated to vary the methods according to their usefulness to the material being learned. Where several methods are about equally useful, variety should be introduced to offset factors of fatigue and boredom.
8. The learner must secure satisfaction from the learning. This is the old story of "you can lead a horse to water..." Learners are capable of excellent learning under the most trying conditions if the learning is satisfying to one or more of their needs. Conversely, the best appointed of learning facilities and trainee comfort can fail if the program is not seen as useful by the learner.
9. The learner must get reinforcement of the correct behaviour. B.F. Skinner and the Behaviourists have much to say on this score. Usually, learners need fairly immediate reinforcement. Few learners can wait for months for correct behaviour to be rewarded. However, there may well be long-range rewards and lesser-intermediate rewards. We would also emphasize that awarded job performance when the learner training returns from the program must be consistent with the learning program rewards.
10. Standards of performance should be set for the learner. Set goals for achievement. While learning is quite individual, and

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it is recognized that learners will advance at differing paces, most learners like to have bench marks by which to judge their progress.

11. Recognition that there are different levels of learning and that these take different times and methods. Learning to memorize a simple poem is entirely different from learning long-range planning. There are, at least four identifiable levels of learning; each requiring different timing, methods, involvement, techniques, and learning theory.

At the simplest level we have the skills of motor responses, memorization, and simple conditioning.

Next, we have the adaptation level where we are gaining knowledge or adapting to a simple environment. Learning to operate an electric typewriter after using a manual typewriter is an example.

Third, is the complex level, utilized when we train in interpersonal understandings and skill, look for principles in complex practices and action, or try to find integrated meaning in the operation of seemingly isolated parts.

At the most complex level we deal with the values of individuals and group. This is a most subtle, time-consuming, and sophisticated training endeavor. Few work organizations have training programs with value change of long-standing, cultural or ethnic values as their specific goal. Many work organizations, however, do have training programs aimed at changing less entrenched values.

The reader will recognize that this listing of conditions under which people learn contains concepts and principles from most of the learning theory schools. Most training directors are generalists, and seldom do their training programs focus on a constant single-objective outcome. It is perhaps inevitable that his own guiding training concepts and principles will be a meld from many theories. It is important however, that he understand the theories of learning so that he is using those concepts and principles which can best assure he will accomplish his organizations training objectives in specific training programs.

It is encouraging to note that some social scientists are aware of this breach between research and practice:

“..... Knowledge is not practice and practice is not knowledge. The improvement of one does not lead automatically to the improvement of the other. Each can work fruitfully for the advancement of the other, but also, unfortunately, each can develop separately from the other and hence stuntedly in relation to the other”?

“It should be clear that the linking of social theory to social practice, as well as the development of a practice-linked theory of the application

of social science knowledge to practice, is an intellectual challenge of the first magnitude. But is one that many social scientists—particularly those who rarely leave the university system—have neglected.”

“Lewin is credited with remarking that one can bridge the gap between theory and reality only if one can tolerate “constant intense tension”. Roethlisberger and his colleagues described these tensions all too well for the person trying to improve the practice of administration. In relating learning theory to learning goals, learning theory corollaries, and the designed learning experience or training program.

Two points are critical: Learning goal and designing the programme.

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8.4 FOUNDATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

People do indeed differ along many dimensions. And such individual differences are important; they are often reflected in behaviour and on their relations with others. Individual differences are not the only factor that shapes our behaviour. The situations in which we find ourselves are important too. For instant, even fun-loving people act in a sober, reserved way at serious meetings and people who are mild-mannered and easy going do lose their tempers on occasion.

Researchers who have studied such differences often divide them into two major categories: personality and abilities. Simply personality refers to the traits and characteristics that make individuals unique as individual, whereas abilities refer to the capacities they possess for performing various tasks.

Herbert Theodore describes this individual behaviour as the process that make people behave in unique patterns. Further he calls for-Rational-economic model.

‘Task-technological model’

‘Socio-psychological model’ of individual behaviour.

8.5 HOW DO WE LEARN?

Three theories have been offered to explain the process by which we acquire patterns of behaviour. These are classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and social learning. Classical conditioning grew out of experiments to teach dogs to salivate in response to the ringing of a bell, conducted at the turn of the century by Russian physiologist **Ivan Pavlov** a simple surgical procedure allowed Pavlov to measure accurately the amount of saliva secreted by a dog. When Pavlov presented the dog with a piece of meat, the dog exhibited a noticeable increase in salivation. When Pavlov withheld the presentation of meat and

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merely rang a bell, the dog did not salivate. Then Pavlov proceeded to link the meat and the ringing of the bell. After repeatedly hearing the bell before getting the food, the dog began to salivate as soon as the bell rang. After a while, the dog would salivate merely at the sound of the bell, even if no food was offered. In effect, the dog had learned to respond—that is, to salivate—to the bell. Let's review this experiment to introduce the key concepts in classical conditioning.

The meat was an unconditioned stimulus; it invariably caused the dog to react in a specific way. The reaction that took place whenever the unconditioned stimulus occurred was called the unconditioned response (or the noticeable increase in salivation, in this case). The bell was an artificial stimulus, or what we call the conditioned stimulus. Although it was originally neutral, after the bell was paired with the meat (an unconditioned stimulus), it eventually produced a response when presented alone. The last key concept is the conditioned response. This describes the behavior of the dog; it salivated in reaction to the bell alone.

Using these concepts, we can summarize classical conditioning. Essentially, learning a conditioned response involves building up an association between a conditioned stimulus and an unconditioned stimulus. When the stimuli, one compelling and the other one neutral, are paired, the neutral one becomes a conditioned stimulus and, hence, takes on the properties of the unconditioned stimulus.

Classical conditioning can be used to explain why Christmas carols often bring back pleasant memories of childhood; the songs are associated with the festive Christmas spirit and evoke fond memories and feelings of euphoria. In an organizational setting, we can also see classical conditioning operating. For example, at one manufacturing plant, every time the top executives from the head office were scheduled to make a visit, the plant management would clean up the administrative offices and wash the windows.

This went on for years. Eventually, employees would turn on their best behaviour and look prim and proper whenever the windows were cleaned—even in those occasional instances when the cleaning was not paired with the visit from the top brass. People had learned to associate the cleaning of the windows with a visit from the head office.

Classical conditioning is passive. Something happens and we react in a specific way. It is elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event. As such, it can explain simple reflexive behaviours. But most behaviour—particularly the complex behaviour of individuals in organizations—is emitted rather than elicited. It is voluntary rather than reflexive. For example, employees choose to arrive at work on

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time, ask their boss for help with problems, or “goof off” when no one is watching. The learning of those behaviours is better understood by looking at operant conditioning.

Operant Conditioning. Argues that behaviour is a function of its consequences. People learn to behave to get something they want or to avoid something they don't want. Operant behaviour means voluntary or learned behaviour in contrast to reflexive or unlearned behaviour. The tendency to repeat such behaviour is influenced by the reinforcement or lack of reinforcement brought about by the consequences of the behaviour. Therefore, reinforcement strengthens a behaviour and increases the likelihood that it will be repeated.

What Pavlov did for classical conditioning, the Harvard psychologist **B. F. Skinner** did for operant conditioning. Building on earlier work in the field, Skinner's research extensively expanded our knowledge of operant conditioning. Even his staunchest critics, who represent a sizeable group, admit that his operant concepts work.

Behaviour is assumed to be determined from without—that is, learned—rather than from within—reflexive, or unlearned. Skinner argued that creating pleasing consequences to follow specific forms of behaviour would increase the frequency of that behaviour. People will most likely engage in desired behaviours if they are positively reinforced for doing so. Rewards are most effective if they immediately follow the desired response. In addition, behaviour that is not rewarded, or is punished, is less likely to be repeated.

You see illustrations of operant conditioning everywhere. For example, any situation in which it is either explicitly stated or implicitly suggested that reinforcements are contingent on some action on your part involves the use of operant learning. Your instructor says that if you want a high grade in the course you must supply correct answers on the test. A commissioned sales person wanting to earn a sizeable income finds that doing so is contingent on generating high sales in her territory. Of course, the linkage can also work to teach the individual to engage in behaviours that work against the best interests of the organization. Assume that your boss tells you that if you will work overtime during the next three-week busy season, you will be compensated for it at the next performance appraisal. However, when performance appraisal time comes, you find that you are given no positive reinforcement for your overtime work. The next time your boss asks you to work overtime, what will you do? You'll probably decline! Your behavior can be explained by operant conditioning. If a behaviour fails to be positively reinforced, the probability that the behavior will be repeated declines.

Social Learning

Individuals can also learn by observing what happens to other people and just by being told about something, as well as by direct experiences.

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So, for example, much of what we have learned comes from watching models—parents, teachers, peers, motion picture and television performers, bosses, and so forth. This view that we can learn through both observation and direct experience has been called social-learning theory.’

Although social-learning theory is an extension of operant conditioning—that is, it assumes that behaviour is a function of consequences—it also acknowledges the existence of observational learning and the importance of perception in learning. People respond to how they perceive and define consequences, not to the objective consequences themselves.

The influence of models is central to the social-learning viewpoint. Four processes have been found to determine the influence that a model will have on an individual. As we will show later in this chapter, the inclusion of the following processes when management sets up employee-training programs will significantly improve the likelihood that the programs will be successful:

1. *Attentional Processes.* People learn from a model only when they recognize and pay attention to its critical features. We tend to be most influenced by models that are attractive, repeatedly available, important to us, or similar to us in our estimation.
2. *Retention Processes.* A model’s influence will depend on how well the individual remembers the model’s action after the model is no longer readily available.

8.6 MYTH OR SCIENCE

“You Can’t Teach an Old Dog New Tricks”

This statement is false. It reflects the widely held stereotype that older workers, have difficulties in adapting to new methods and techniques. Studies consistently demonstrate that older employees are perceived as being relatively inflexible, resistant to change, and less trainable than their younger counterparts, particularly with respect to information technology skills. But these perceptions are wrong.

The evidence indicates that older workers (typically defined as people aged 50 and Over) want to learn and are just as capable of learning as any other employee group. Older workers do seem to be somewhat less efficient in acquiring complex or demanding skills. That is, they may take longer to train. But once trained, they perform at levels comparable to those of younger workers. The ability to acquire the skills, knowledge, or behavior necessary to perform a job at a given level—that is, trainability—has been the subject of much research.

And the evidence indicates that there are differences between people in their trainability. A number of individual-difference factors (such as ability, motivational level, and personality) have been found to significantly influence learning and training outcomes. However, age has not been found to influence these outcomes.

3. *Motor Reproduction Processes.* After a person has seen a new behaviour by observing the model, the watching must be converted to doing. This process then demonstrates that the individual can perform the modeled activities.
4. *Reinforcement Processes.* Individuals will be motivated to exhibit the modeled behavior if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behaviours that are positively reinforced will be given more attention, learned better, and performed more often.

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8.7 SHAPING: A MANAGERIAL TOOL

Because learning takes place on the job as well as prior to it, managers will be concerned with how they can teach employees to behave in ways that most benefit the organization. When we attempt to mould individuals by guiding their learning in graduated steps, we are **shaping behaviour**.

Consider the situation in which an employee's behaviour is significantly different from that sought by management. If management rewarded the individual only when he or she showed desirable responses, there might be very little reinforcement taking place. In such a case, shaping offers a logical approach toward achieving the desired behaviour. We shape behaviour by systematically reinforcing each successive step that moves the individual closer to the desired response. If an employee who has chronically been a half-hour late for work comes in only 20 minutes late, we can reinforce that improvement. Reinforcement would increase as responses more closely approximated the desired behaviour.

Methods of Shaping Behaviour

There are four ways in which to shape behaviour: through positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment, and extinction.

Following a response with something pleasant is called *positive reinforcement*. This would describe, for instance, the boss who praises an employee for a job well done. Following a response by the termination or withdrawal of something unpleasant is called *negative reinforcement*. If your college instructor asks a question and you do not know the answer, looking through your lecture notes is likely to preclude your being called on. This is a negative reinforcement because you have learned that looking busily through your notes prevents the instructor

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from calling on you. Punishment is causing an unpleasant condition in an attempt to eliminate an undesirable behaviour. Giving an employee a two-day suspension from work without pay for showing up drunk is an example of *punishment*. Eliminating any reinforcement, it tends to be gradually extinguished. College instructors who wish to discourage students from asking questions in class can eliminate this behaviour in their students by ignoring those who raise their hands to ask questions. Hand-raising will become *extinct* when it is invariably met with an absence of reinforcement.

Both positive and negative reinforcement result in learning. They strengthen a response and increase the probability of repetition. In the preceding illustrations, praise strengthens and increases the behaviour of doing a good job because praise is desired. The behaviour of "looking busy" is similarly strengthened and increased by its terminating the undesirable consequence of being called on by the teacher. However, both punishment and extinction weaken behaviour and tend to decrease its subsequent frequency.

Reinforcement, whether it is positive or negative, has an impressive record as a shaping tool. Our interest, therefore, is in reinforcement rather than in punishment or extinction. A review of research findings on the impact of reinforcement upon behaviour in organizations concluded that—

1. Some type of reinforcement is necessary to produce a change in behaviour.
2. Some types of rewards are more effective than others for use in organizations.
3. The speed with which learning takes place and the permanence of its effects will be determined by the timing of reinforcement.

Point 3 is extremely important and deserves considerable elaboration.

Reinforcement Schedule	Nature of Reinforcement	Effect on Behaviour	Example
Continuous	Reward given after each desired behaviour	Fast learning of new behaviour but rapid extinction	Compliments
Fixed-interval	Reward given at fixed time intervals	Average and irregular performance with rapid extinction	Weekly paychecks
Variable-interval	Reward given at variable times	Moderately high and stable performance with slow extinction	Pop quizzes

Fixed-ratio	Rward given at fixed amounts of output	High and stable performance attained quickly but also with rapid extinction	Piece-rate pay
Variable-ratio	Reward given at variable amounts of output	Very high performance with slow extinction	Commisioned sales.

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Reinforcement Schedules and Behaviour

Continuous reinforcement schedules can lead to early satiation, and under this schedule behaviour tends to weaken rapidly when reinforcers are withheld. However, continuous reinforcers are appropriate for newly emitted, unstable, or low-frequency responses. In contrast, intermittent reinforcers preclude early satiation because they don't follow every response. They are appropriate for stable or high-frequency responses.

In general, variable schedules tend to lead to higher performance than fixed schedules. For example, as noted previously, most employees in organizations are paid on fixed-interval schedules. But such a schedule does not clearly link performance and rewards. The reward is given for time spent on the job rather than for a specific response (performance). In contrast, variable-interval schedules generate high rates of response and more stable and consistent behaviour because of a high correlation between performance and reward and because of the uncertainty involved—the employee tends to be more alert because there is a surprise factor.

Behaviour Modification

There is a now-classic study that took place a number of years ago with freight packers at Emery Air Freight (now part of FedEx). Emery's management wanted packers to use freight containers for shipments whenever possible because of specific economic savings. When packers were asked about the percentage of shipments contained, the standard reply was 90 percent. An analysis by Emery found, however, that the actual container utilization rate was only 45 percent. In order to encourage employees to use containers, management established a program of feedback and positive reinforcements. Each packer was instructed to keep a checklist of his or her daily packings, both containerized and non-containerized. At the end of each day, the packer computed his or her container utilization rate. Almost unbelievably, container utilization jumped to more than 90 percent on the first day of the program and held at that level. Emery reported that this simple program of feedback and positive reinforcements saved the company \$2 million over a three-year period.

This program at Emery Air Freight illustrates the use of behaviour modification, or what has become more popularly called OB Mod. It represents the application of reinforcement concepts to individuals in the work setting.

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The typical OB Mod program follows a five-step problem solving model:

- (1) identifying critical behaviours;
- (2) developing baseline data;
- (3) identifying behavioural consequences;
- (4) developing and implementing an intervention strategy; and
- (5) evaluating performance improvement.

Everything an employee does on his or her job is not equally important in terms of performance outcomes. The first step in OB Mod, therefore, is to identify the critical behaviours that make a significant impact on the employee's job performance. These are those 5 to 10 percent of behaviours that may account for up to 70 or 80 percent of each employee's performance. Using containers whenever possible by freight packers at Emery Air Freight is an example of a critical behaviour.

The second step requires the manager to develop some baseline performance data. This is obtained by determining the number of times the identified behaviour is occurring under present conditions. In our freight packing example at Emery, this would have revealed that 45 percent of all shipments were containerized.

The third step is to perform a functional analysis to identify the behavioural contingencies or consequences of performance. This tells the manager the antecedent cues that emit the behaviour and the consequences that are currently maintaining it. At Emery Air Freight, social norms and the greater difficulty in packing containers were the antecedent cues. This encouraged the practice of packing items separately. Moreover, the consequences for continuing the behaviour, prior to the OB Mod intervention, were social acceptance and escaping more demanding work.

Once the functional analysis is complete, the manager is ready to develop and implement an intervention strategy to strengthen desirable performance behaviours and weaken undesirable behaviours. The appropriate strategy will entail changing some elements of the performance-reward linkage—structure, processes, technology, groups, or the task—with the goal of making high-level performance more rewarding. In the Emery example, the work technology was altered to require the keeping of a checklist. The checklist plus the computation, at the end of the day, of a container utilization rate acted to reinforce the desirable behaviour of using containers.

The final step in OB Mod is to evaluate performance improvement. In the Emery intervention, the immediate improvement in the container utilization rate demonstrated that behavioural change took place. That it rose to 90 percent and held at that level further indicates that learning took place. That is, the employees underwent a relatively permanent change in behaviour.

OB Mod has been used by a number of organizations to improve employee productivity, to reduce errors, absenteeism, tardiness, accident rates, and to improve friendliness toward customers. 45 For instance, a clothing manufacturer saved \$60,000 in one year from fewer absences. A packing firm improved productivity 16 percent, cut errors by 40 percent, and reduced accidents by more than 43 percent—resulting in savings of over \$1 million. A bank successfully used OB Mod to increase the friendliness of its tellers, which led to a demonstrable improvement in customer satisfaction.

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8.8 LEARNING AND O.B.

Some Specific Organizational Applications

We have alluded to a number of situations in which learning theory could be helpful to managers.

In this section, we will briefly look at four specific applications: substituting skill based pay, disciplining problem employees, developing effective employee training programs, and applying learning theory to self-management.

Skill-based pay—an innovative reward system.

Most organizations provide their salaried employees incentives based on good performance. But, ironically, organizations with paid sick leave programs experience almost twice the absenteeism of organizations without such programs. The reality is that sick leave programs reinforce the wrong behaviour—absence from work. When employees receive 10 paid sick days a year, it's the unusual employee who isn't sure to use them all up, regardless of whether he or she is sick. Organizations should reward attendance not absence.

Employee Discipline

The process of systematically administering punishment, learning encourages desirable behaviour and discourages undesirable behaviour. Managers will respond with disciplinary actions such as oral reprimands, written warnings, and temporary suspensions. But our knowledge about punishment's effect on behaviour indicates that the use of discipline carries costs. It may provide only a short-term solution and result in serious side effects.

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Disciplining employees for undesirable behaviours tells them only what not to do. It doesn't tell them what alternative behaviours are preferred. The result is that this form of punishment frequently leads to only short-term suppression of the undesirable behaviour rather than its elimination. Continued use of punishment, rather than positive reinforcement, also tends to produce a fear of the manager. As the punishing agent, the manager becomes associated in the employee's mind with adverse consequences. Employees respond by "hiding" from their boss. Hence, the use of punishment can undermine manager-employee relations.

Discipline does have a place in organizations. In practice, it tends to be popular because of its ability to produce fast results in the short run. Moreover, managers are reinforced for using discipline because it produces an immediate change in the employee's behaviour.

Developing Training Programs

Most organizations have some type of systematic training program. More specifically, U.S. corporations with 100 or more employees spent in excess of \$58 billion in one recent year on formal training for 47.3 million workers. Can these organizations draw from our discussion of learning in order to improve the effectiveness of their training programs? Certainly.

Social-learning theory offers such a guide. It tells us that training should offer a model to grab the trainee's attention; provide motivational properties; help the trainee to file away what he or she has learned for later use; provide opportunities to practice new behaviours; offer positive rewards for accomplishments; and, if the training has taken place off the job, allow the trainee some opportunity to transfer what he or she?

Self-Management

Organizational applications of learning concepts are not restricted to managing the behaviour of others. These concepts can also be used to allow individuals to manage their own behaviour and, in doing so, reduce the need for managerial control. This is called 'self-management.'

Self-management requires an individual to deliberately manipulate stimuli, internal processes, and responses to achieve personal behavioral outcomes. The basic processes involve observing one's own behaviour, comparing the behavior with a standard, and rewarding oneself if the behaviour meets the standard. *Knowledge management*—the process of gathering, organizing, and sharing a company's information and knowledge assets. Knowledge management, programs involve using technology to establish data bases and retrieval systems.

So how might self-management be applied? Here's an illustration. A group of state government blue-collar employees received eight hours of training in which they were taught self-management skills. They were then shown how the skills could be used for improving job attendance? They were instructed on how to set specific goals for job attendance, in both the short and intermediate term. They learned how to write a behavioural contract with themselves and to identify self-chosen reinforcers. Finally, they learned the importance of self-monitoring their attendance behaviour and administering incentives when they achieved their goals. The net result for these participants was a significant improvement in job attendance.

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Points of Learning and O.B.

The principles of learning are used in organization in many different ways. We will now discuss five systematic approaches to incorporating the various principles of learning in organizations, training, innovative reward systems, organizational behaviour management, discipline and knowledge management.

- (a) *Training*. The process of systematically teaching employees to acquire and improve job-related skills and knowledge. Training is used not only to prepare new employees to meet the challenges of the jobs they will face but also to upgrade and refine the skills of existing employees.

Varieties of Training. Class room training (formal training) apprenticeship program (both the on-the-job and classroom training), Cross-Cultural Training (CCT)—(a systematic way of preparing employees to live and work in another country).

- (b) *Key to Effective Training*.

- (i) *Participation*. Active involvement in the process of learning; more active participation leads to more effective learning.
- (ii) *Repetition*. "Practice makes a man perfect". The process of repeatedly performing a task so that it may be learned.
- (iii) *Transfer of Training*. The degree to which the skills learned during training sessions may be applied to performance of one's job.
- (iv) *Feedback*. It is extremely difficult for learning to occur in the absence of feedback that is, knowledge of the results of one's actions. Feedback provides information about effectiveness of one's training, indicating improvements that need to be made. 360 degree feedback—the practice of collecting performance feedback from multiple sources at a variety of organizational levels.

- (v) *e-training*. Training based on disseminating information online, such as through the internet or a company's internal intranet.

Attitude

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An attitude is an individual's predisposition to think, feel, perceive and behave in certain ways toward a particular tangible or intangible phenomenon. (Pierce and Dardner). Organizational attitude reflects on the treatment towards employees, policies, objectives and culture. It would be a formidable task to review all of the work attitudes formed in the work place.

Lauric Mullius opines that there are no limits to the attitude people hold. Attitudes are learned throughout life and are embodied within our socialisation process.

Attitudes can be distinguished from beliefs and values:

Attitudes can be defined as providing a state of 'readiness' or tendency to respond in a particular way.

Beliefs are concerned with what is known about the world, they centre on what is on reality as it is understood.

Value are concerned with what 'should' be and what is desirable. Hofstede defines values as a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others.

Hellriegel of Slocum draws links between attitudes of behaviour. Attitudes are another type of individual difference that affects behaviour.

Attitudes are relatively lasting feelings, beliefs, of behavioural tendencies aimed of specific people, groups, ideas, or objects.

Link to Behaviour

To what extent do attitudes predict of cause behaviour is not simple to explain.

Pollsters and others often measure attitudes and attempt to predict subsequent behaviour. Three principles can improve the accuracy of predicting behaviour from attitudes.

1. General attitudes best predict general behaviours.
2. Specific attitudes best predict specific behaviours.
3. The less time that elapsy between attitude measurement of behaviour, the more consistent will be the relationship between attitude and behaviour.

One of the things that has been found to affect the link between an attitude and behaviour is hope.

Hope involves a person's mental will power (determination) and way power (road map) to achieve goals: Simply wishing for something is

not enough, a person must have the means to make it happen. However, all the knowledge of skills needed to solve a problem won't help if the person does not have the willpower to do so.

Katz has suggested that attitudes and motives are interlinked. Attitudes can serve four main functions:

Knowledge—provides a basis for the interpretation and classification of new information. Attitudes provide a knowledge base and framework within which new information can be placed.

Expressive—Attitudes become a means of expression, instrumental—attitudes maximise rewards and minimise sanctions. Behaviour or knowledge which has resulted in the satisfaction of needs is thus more likely to result in a favourable attitudes.

Ego-defensive—Attitudes may be held in order to protect the ego from an undesirable truth or reality.

It seems that we do not always behave in a way that is true to our beliefs; What we say and what we do may be very different. That is why attitudes can be revealed not only in behaviour but also by the individual's thoughts and by feelings.

Following findings have important implication for the study of attitudes.

1. Attitudes cannot be seen; they can only be inferred.
2. Attitudes are often shared within organizations and as such are embodied in the culture of organizations. Attitudes inherent within wider society reinforced or reshaped by the organization.

Attitude change—Attitudes rarely change but may easily change with new information or experiences.

Attitude change stress the importance of balance and consistency in our psyche. In conflicting attitudes, we try to change one of the attitudes to reach a balanced state.

Cognitive dissonance is the term given to the discomfort felt when we act in a way that is inconsistent with our true beliefs.

Considerable research has demonstrated the importance of the following variables in a programme of attitude change.

the persuader's characteristics

presentation of issues

audience characteristics

Group influences

outcome of attitude change

(reward and punishment).

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Cognitive Component

The cognitive component of an attitude is what we know, or think we know, about the attitude object. It consists of information, facts, statistics, data, and so on, that we believe to be true about the attitude object. We may in fact be, incorrect, but we think it is true. The cognitive component of the attitude "Bill Gates is very successful businessman" is "successful"; the attitude object is Bill Gates. The cognitive component (is successful) is associated with the attitude object (Bill Gates).

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Affective Component

The affective components of an attitude consist of the feelings we have toward an attitude objects. This involves evaluation and emotion and is often expressed as like or dislike. Affective components can range from disgust, to indifference, to adoration, and differ from cognitive component in that they involve intensity of feeling, and often a wide range of it. Cognitive components are neutral statements of the facts. One way to distinguish between the two is to remember the old saying "just tell me the facts".

The affective component of an attitude is really our reaction to the cognitive component. As such, the particular pattern of beliefs we hold about a person or thing (the cognitive component) exerts a major influence on our feelings toward that object. However, we use different evaluative processes as we react to our beliefs, because of different values, motivations, perceptions, and so on. Thus, people can have very different affective attitude components even though they possess similar cognitive component. Two students agree that their professor is knowledgeable. Yet, one likes the professor (eager to share her knowledge) while the other student dislikes the professor (hates "know-it-alls").

Behavioural Tendency Component

The final component of attitude is the **behavioural tendency component**. This is the way we're inclined to behave toward an attitude object, that is, how the object "makes" us want to behave. Behavioural intentions strong predictors of future behaviour. It is this component that draws researchers to study of attitudes. If attitudes didn't eventually translate into behaviour, they would be of much less consequence to organizations. Researchers assess employee attitudes, and then attempt to predict how the employees will behave on the basis of that assessment.

Both cognitive and affective components of attitudes influence the way people behave towards an attitude object. However, many different behavioural tendencies are possible depending on the particular pattern of cognitive and affective attitude components. Recall the previously

mentioned example of two students who similarly believe that a professor is knowledgeable. One may ultimately attend all regularly while the other the student shows up only on examination dates.

As we all know, the attitudes people hold are complex, contradictory and often counterintuitive, to name a few reasons why they are always not easy to sort out. If we try to sort out an attitude by its components, we must remember that attitudes have three components, each of which affects the others. Let's take persons attitudes toward the company they work for. The cognitive component might include information about the size of the organization, the age of his or her manager, and the amount of money the worker believes a coworker earns. The affective component could include the worker's dislike of the organization's small size, concern that the manager is too young. To exercise authority and unhappiness that a co-worker is paid more. The behavioral tendency component could range from an intension to leave a small company. For a larger one to ask to be reassigned to an older manager, or to request a pay rise. These are quite a few items to ponder.

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Attitude Formation

We are born with our attitudes. Instead, our attitudes develop through the experiences that we have with attitude objects (for example, pay, supervision, work). There are four major sources of such experiences and thus of our attitudes: personal experiences, association, social learning and heredity.

Personal Experiences

Personal experiences means that we have come in direct contact with the attitude objects. Through this encounter, we perceive certain characteristics of traits of the attitude objects.

Some of these perceptions are transformed into our attitude about the object. Persona experiences usually have their first impact on the cognitive component. From their first experiences on the job, new employees might form these cognitive components of their attitude towards the company:

1. There are many employees at this company.
2. My job is very difficult.
3. My supervisor is not busy as I am.
4. My co-workers complain a lot.

Remember that giving the same situation, two people may or may not form the same cognitive component. One may ignore certain factors that the other finds important. Even given the same cognitive components (the once just listed, for example), two people may use them to form

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entirely different affective components. Thus, one new hire may conclude "I like having lots of people around, I like the challenges of my duties, I am grateful my supervisor has time to check my work, I don't understand why my co-workers are not satisfied". Another new hire, giving the same cognitive components, might conclude "I feel paranoid around so many people, I did not expect to work so hard at my first job I think its disgusting that I have got more to do then my supervisor, I am going to take another job that moment something better turns up".

Association

When we "transfer" parts or all of our attitude about an old attitude object to a new one, association is forming the new attitude. Two attitude object can be associated in a variety of ways. Perhaps you notice that a new employee, rail, spending a lot of time with Jon, a co-worker who is components and whom you like personally. To the degree that you associate rail and Jon, your attitude towards rail will include competence and liking. Two attitude objects can be associated for a variety of reasons. Anything that causes you to associate two attitude objects creates the possibility that you will transfer your attitude from the first to the second. These transfers may be accurate, frequently, they are not. If your attitude toward one supervisor is favourable, you may generalize that attitude to a future supervisor because of association. Personal experiences, however, may cause you to revise your attitude if you find that the new supervisor behaves quite differently from your previous supervisor.

Social Learning

A very common and powerful source of attitude formation comes from social learning. Social learning of attitude occurs when people we work with influence our attitudes. We often form attitudes towards objects we have not personally experienced; instead, we take up the attitude of someone we trust that has experience with the object. The attitudes of others can override our predisposition to form attitude by association. In short our beliefs are frequently molded by others. All too often, however, the cognitive components shared by others are not accurate since we have no direct experience with the attitude object, we can't always evaluate the accuracy of the information.

Social learning affects not only beliefs but affective reaction and behavioural tendencies as well. Many people believe that Harvard student are rich, spoiled, pompous, self-centred individuals who are not they think they are, who take advantage of their employers, and who exploit co-worker but how many of us have ever met a Harvard student?

Heredity

Heredity is the transmission from parents to offspring of certain defining characteristics. A genetic predisposition is an inherited propensity to behave or think in certain ways. Our intelligence is due in large part to the genes we inherit. The environment we were raised in is also affecting our intelligence, although researchers disagree on the extent of its influence. Heredity plays a part in our tendencies to develop certain types of attitudes. Some people are genetically programmed to have positive (or negative) attitudes towards certain classes of objects. Recent research suggests that up to 30% of the attitudes we possess, especially the affective component, may have a genetic component. Still, the other determinants of attitude combine to have a far stronger influence.

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8.9 MEASUREMENT OF ATTITUDE

There are certain ways by which it is possible for the supervisor and managers to get some inkling of attitudes of individuals such as listening to the chance remarks of individuals, the behaviour of individuals in the work place etc. A sensitive intuitive supervisor can always get a feeling w.r.t general reaction of his work group even though he cannot pinpoint such reactions specifically. The other way to find attitude change is the analysis of certain factors such as turnover rate, absenteeism and production level. Various methods have been developed for doing this. A few of these are:

1. *Thurston Attitude Scale*. This method consists of questionnaires which are filled out by the employees. To develop an attitude scale the following steps are involved:
 - (i) The first step is to write out a large number of statements, each of which expresses a viewpoint of some kind towards the company.
 - (ii) Each of these statements is typed on a separate slip of paper and the judge is asked to place each statement in one of several piles ranging from statement judged to express the least favourable viewpoint to statements judged to express the most favourable viewpoints.
 - (iii) Statements judged to express varying degrees of favourableness between these extremes are placed in the piles that are judged best to characterise their relative degree of favourableness.
 - (iv) Many judges are used in the process, sometimes as many as 100 or more. These judges are assisting in the construction of the scale. They are not having their attitudes measured.

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The allocation of statements to the several piles is a part of the process of constructing the scale.

The purpose of allocation is to determine the scale value statements. If all judges tend to place a statement in piles towards the favourable then we can conclude that the statement expresses a favourable attitude towards the company. If the statement is placed by the judges in piles towards unfavourable end of the series, then we may conclude that an unfavourable attitude is expressed by that particular statement. so we can determine the average location of the statement by the judge. Statements that are scattered by the judge over several categories are eliminated.

- 2 *Likert Scale.* Likert's method is simpler than Thurstone and does not require the use of judges in scaling the statements. While a number of different procedures were tried and compared but the *simplest method described by Likert was found to give results that correlated very highly with more complex methods.* Each statements has five degrees of approval and ask the person taking the scale of check one of the five degrees:

- strongly approved
- approved
- undecided
- disapproved
- strongly disapproved

There are three principal methods of establishing the validity of a measuring device:

- (i) Comparing the results obtained from it those of another device, the validity of which has been established.
- (ii) Judgement of experts and
- (iii) Internal consistency

The validity of the Likert scale established by a comparison of the same with an already established scale of Thurston is an example of judgement technique adopted.

3. *Opinions survey.* Attitude scales help to measure the attitudes of individuals by summarising data for all employees within a group, such scale can be used to quantify 'morale' of employee groups. Attitudes scale can be useful in indicating the relative level of morale of employees groups but these do not enable the management to identify specific factors that may be sources of employee's unrest or unsatisfaction. The specific information can be obtained by the use of questionnaire that provides for

giving opinions about specific matters such as working conditions, future prospects, company policies prerequisites *etc.*, the usual practice in opinion questionnaire is that of obtaining a single response to each question in either 'yes' or 'no', in particular the employees may be asked to check each item in one of the three ways:

SATISFIED

NEUTRAL

DISSATISFIED

He should also check each item as being of great importance. It is possible to develop a questionnaire that can serve the purposes of obtaining opinions of employees and measuring their attitudes. The data collected by the questionnaires can be compiled, tabulated and analysed to know about the attitude of workers towards management and the organization.

4. *Interviews*: Still another method of obtaining information about personnel reaction is the use of interviews. The workers should be interviewed by the representatives of some outside organizations such as a consultancy firm or a university department. The employees are given assurance that the information furnished will not be used for any administrative function.

In a guided interview the interviewer asks a series of questions so that each of which may be answered by a simple. Yes or no or by some other words. In the unguided interview the interviewer asks more general question to encourage the employee to express himself and solicit information about his job satisfaction, job involvement and commitment.

SUMMARY

- Learning: a process within the organism which results in the capacity for changed performance which can be related to experience rather than maturation.
- Learning occurs when stimulus is associated with response.
- Time must be provided to practice the learning; to internalize to give confidence.
- If a behaviour fails to be positively reinforced, the probability that the behavior will be repeated declines.
- When we attempt to mould individuals by guiding their learning in graduated steps, we are shaping behaviour.

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- Reinforcement, whether it is positive or negative, has an impressive record as a shaping tool. Our interest, therefore, is in reinforcement rather than in punishment or extension.
- An attitude is an individual's predisposition to think, feel, perceive and behave in certain ways toward a particular tangible or intangible phenomenon.

GLOSSARY

- **Learning:** It is defined as any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience.
- **Personality:** This refers to the traits and characteristics that make the individuals unique as individual.
- **Abilities:** This means, the capacities, the individuals possess for performing various tasks.
- **Positive reinforcement:** Following a response with something pleasant is called positive reinforcement.
- **Negative reinforcement:** Following a response by the termination or withdrawal of something unpleasant is called negative reinforcement.
- **Training:** The process of systematically teaching employees to acquire and improve job related skills and knowledge is called training.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is learning? Give a brief description.
2. Explain the conditions for learning.
3. Write down the methods of shaping behaviour.
4. What are the five-step problem solving model for the typical OB?
5. Describe the keys to effective training.
6. How to develop an attitude scale?

UNIT 9 MOTIVATION

★ STRUCTURE ★

- 9.1. Learning Objectives
- 9.2. The Role of Motivation in Organizations
- 9.3. The Definition of Motivation
- 9.4. Maslow Need Hierarchy Theory
- 9.5. Needs Theory

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9.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After learning this unit, you will be able to understand the definition of Motivation and its role in organizations. Maslow Need Hierarchy Theory, Need Theory and ERG Theory are explained in this unit to make you more aware of Motivation.

9.2 THE ROLE OF MOTIVATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

The topic of motivation at work has received considerable attention in recent years among both practicing managers and organizational researchers. Every organization needs people in order to function. **Katz and Kahn (1978)** put forward the fact that organizations have three behavioural requirements in this regard:

- (i) People must be attracted not only to join the organization but also to remain in it.
- (ii) People must perform the tasks for which they are hired and must do so in a dependable manner.
- (iii) People must go beyond this dependable role performance and engage in some form of creative, innovative behaviour at work.

Motivation as a concept represents a highly complex phenomenon that affects and is affected by number of factors in organizational setting. The question of why people behave as they do on the job (that is the determinants of employee work behaviour). An understanding of the topic of motivation is then essential for managerial process and development of managerial effectiveness (leadership styles job redesign, and salary systems).

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Third to maintain organizational effectiveness and efficiency, is the degree of managerial ability to motivate its employees toward organizational goals.

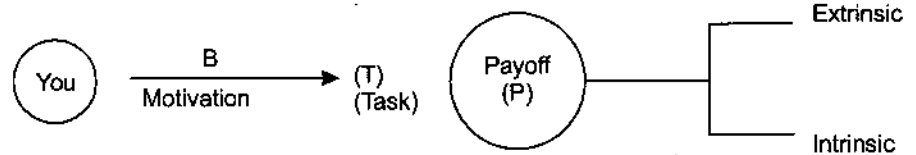
A fourth reason can be found in the increase in technological complexity, insufficient vehicle of effective and efficient operations.

Finally, the organization should be viewed as social systems, comprising many interrelated subsystems, only one of which is a human subsystem. The focus of the human/social subsystem is on the motivation and needs of the members of the organization.

Managerial roles in a social system, according to **Chak Adizes**, are producing, implementing, innovating and integrating. Each of these managerial roles is clearly related to one of the four social subsystems of an organization. (Administrative/structural subsystem, economic/technological subsystem, informational/decision making subsystems and human/social subsystems).

9.3 THE DEFINITION OF MOTIVATION

Motivation to Action: Motivation causes you to behave (B) in a way that will achieve the task and get the pay off (P) which can be extrinsic (salary, promotion) or intrinsic (satisfaction of a job).

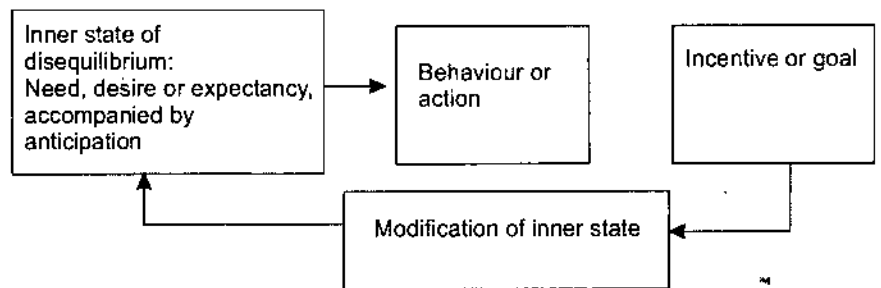


This may work for you but how do you motivate the people who work with you and what are their values, attitudes, needs and expectations (VANE) that you can stimulate manipulate?

The Motivational Process

The following diagram of general model of the motivation process, represents the major sets of variables involved in the process.

Building blocks are (1) needs or expectations (2) behaviour (3) goals (4) feedback.



(A. Dunnette and Kirchner)

To reduce the internal state of disequilibrium the anticipation or belief that certain actions should serve this purpose, individuals act or behave in a certain manner that would satisfy their desired goals; This action which may be invited from within the individuals or from their external environment can be ascertained by the feedback information.

All example should clarify this process. Individually who have a strong desire to be with others (that is, have a high need for affiliation) may attempt to increase their interaction with those around them, (behaviour) in the hope of gaining their friendship and support (goal).

- **Dunnette and Kirchner** (1965) and others have identified four complications.

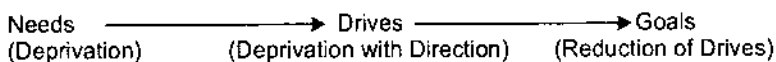
The willingness to exert high level of effort toward organizational goals conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need.—**Stephen Robbins**.

Motivation is concerned with effort toward any goal, (interest in work-related behaviour) when someone is motivated, he or she puts high levels of effort toward job performance.

Motivation is essentially concerned with attributing causes to and reasons for behaviour. It is concerned with both impulsive and deliberate behaviour influenced by internal and external circumstances. Motivation sets out the process of what makes the person do things.

The basic principles of motivation are proposed by **G. Lirwin** and **R. Stringer** in *Motivational and Organizational Climate*.

1. Human beings have a number of basic motives or needs which can be activated.
 2. Motives can be arranged in hierarchy, which reflect different levels of readiness to engage in particular actions.
 3. Whether a motive is actualized depends on the situation.
 4. Different motives have different implications.
 5. Motives lead to different patterns of behaviour.
- “A motive is an inner state that energises, activates or moves and that directs or Channels behaviour towards goals”. The key to understanding motivation, it appears, lies in the meaning of and relationship between needs, drives and goals.



In the above motivation process, three interacting and interdependent elements are: needs, drives and goals.

1. **Needs:** Need is deficiency; needs are created whenever there is a physiological or psychological imbalance. For e.g., hunger, deprivation of food and water.

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2. *Drives*: Drives are action-oriented and provide thrust toward goal accomplishment.

3. *Goals*: At the end of the motivation cycle is the goal which will satisfy needs and reduce a drive.

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What being motivated means: the forces that maintain and alter the direction, quality and intensity of behaviour. When you say you are motivated, it means that you are all set to go. There is something you are going to do or at least going to have a good go at.

First, motives can really be informed; they cannot be seen. The reasons are that any single act may express several motives; motives may appear in disguised forms. Besides, culture and personal variations may significantly moderate the modes of expression of certain motives. The second complication of the model centres around the dynamic nature of motives; but they may be in conflict with each other. For example—a desire to do overtime in office hours. Conflict with desire to spend in family.

Third, considerable differences can exist among individuals concerning the manager in which they select certain motives over others and the intensity with which they pursue such motives.

Managers manipulates these short comings by stimulating a high need for achievement. However, the attainment of certain other goals may lead to an increase in the intensity of some motives. Promotion, for example, may intensify the drive of the employee to work harder in anticipation of the next promotion in conclusion.

Need Theories of Motivation

Content theories of motivation describe the psychological sustain behaviour. In other words, content theories examine the specific things inside individuals that motivates them. **Luthan** while discussing about content theories of work motivation, puts the question “what it is that motivates people at work”? The content theorists are concerned with identifying the needs drives that people have and how these needs/drives are prioritized.

Early theories of motivation were based on the assumption that people are essentially rational beings with conscious desires and capacities to fulfill these desires. There ideas were central to the thinking of ancient philosophers such as **Aristotle** and **Plato** and more recent philosophers such as **Descantes**, **Hobbes**, and **Spiroza**.

Will was considered to be one of the faculties of the mind, simpler to thought and feelings. If a manager is to convince an employee, he should change their will. Since people had the capacity to control their own will, they were responsible for their actions. However the concept of will was never very adequate for explaining human behaviour. At first money was felt to be the only incentive (scientific management) and then a little later it was felt and human relations.

The content theories, so depict the higher level needs or motives such as esteem and self-actualization (Maslow) recognition, achievement and advancement. (Herzberg) and growth and personal development (Alderfer). These theories contribute to the understanding of work motivation.

Specifically these theories explain motivation in terms of the satisfaction of basic human need.

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9.4 MASLOW NEED HIERARCHY THEORY

Maslow was a clinical psychologist who introduced a theory of personal adjustment known as need hierarchy theory based on his observations of patients throughout the years. His premise was that if people grow up in an environment in which their needs are not met they will be unlikely to function as healthy, well-adjusted individuals. Maslow's approach is based on applying the same idea in organizations. That is unless people get their needs satisfied on job, they will not function as effectively as possible.

Maslow theory specifying that those are five human needs (physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualization) and that those are arranged in such a way that lower, more basic needs must be satisfied before higher-level needs become activated.

This means that the needs are aroused in a specific order from lowest to highest and that the lowest order need must be fulfilled before the next higher-order and is triggered and so OK. The five major categories of needs are listed.

Physiological Needs

The lowest order, most basic needs specified by Maslow's need hierarchy theory, including biological drives such as the need for food, air, water and shelter.

At the bottom of the hierarchy are physiological needs, specified by Maslow. These refer to satisfying fundamental biological drives, such as need for food, air, water and shelter.

To satisfy such needs, organizations must provide employees with a salary that allows them to afford opportunities to rest (e.g., coffee break) and to engage in physical activity (e.g., fitness and exercise facilities) also are important for people to meet their physiological needs. The rationale is quite simple people who are too hungry or too ill to work will hardly be able to make much of a contribution to their companies.

Safety Needs

Safety needs include the need for safety as secure environment to be free from threats of physical or psychological harm.

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The second level of need in Maslow's hierarchy, safety needs is activated after physiological need, are met. It refers to the need for a secure environment that is free from threats of physical or psychological harm. Organization can do many things to help satisfy safety needs. (e.g., hard hats and goggles) similarly jobs that provide tenure (such as teaching) along with security blanket helps safety needs, (work in safe and secure atmosphere).

Social Needs

In Maslow's need hierarchy theory the need to be affiliative—that is to have friends and to be loved and accepted by other people.

Maslow's third level of need, social needs is activated after safety needs have been met. To help meet social needs, organizations may encourage participation in social events, such as office picnics or parties.

Taken together as a group, physiological needs safety needs and social needs are known as deficiency needs. Maslow's idea was that if these needs are not met an individual will fail to develop into a healthy person—both physically and psychologically.

Esteem Needs

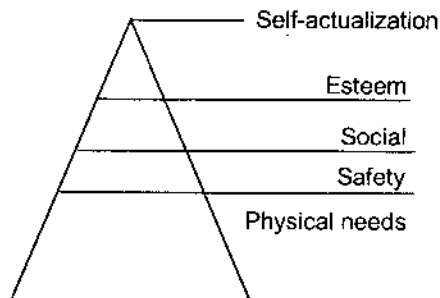
The fourth level of needs is esteem needs—the need to develop self-respect and to gain the approval of others.

The desire to achieve success to have prestige and to be recognized by others falls into this category. Example, awards for achievements, monetary bonuses, recognition of employees' merits etc.,

Self-Actualization Needs

The need to discover who we are and to develop ourselves to the fullest potential.

This refers to the need to become all that one is capable of being, to develop one's fullest potential. Employees who are self-actualized (creative potential) can be extremely valuable assets to their organizations. These people work at their peak and represent the most effective use of an organization's human resources.



As each of these needs becomes substantially satisfied, the next becomes dominant. From the standpoint of motivation, the theory would say that no need is never fully gratified. According to Maslow, you need to understand what level of the hierarchy that person is currently on and focus on those needs. Maslow separated the five needs into high order and lower order. Needs that are satisfied externally (physical and safety needs) are lower order needs. Needs that are satisfied internally, are social, esteem and self-actualization. But unfortunately however research does not generally validate the theory. Maslow provided no empirical evidence.

Henry Murray believed that needs are mostly learned rather than inherited and are activated by cues from the external environment. For example, an employee who has a high need for affiliation will pursue that need by associating with others. When the need is not met, the need is social to be latent or not activated. Murray developed a list of fifteen needs that were classified as primary and secondary.

According to Maslow, these five needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance which he called prepotency. Higher level needs are not important and are not manifest until lower-level needs are satisfied. Once lower-level needs are satisfied, needs to the next highest level emerge and influence behaviour. The levels of the need hierarchy are overlapping. Thus it is possible for a higher-level need to emerge before a lower-level need is completely satisfied. Maslow estimated that average working adults have satisfied about 85 per cent of their physiological needs, 70 per cent of their safety needs, 50 per cent of their social needs, 40 per cent of their self-esteem needs and 10 per cent of their self-actualization needs. Although Maslow never collected data to support their estimates. Numerous studies have found that lower-level needs are more satisfied than higher-level needs.

9.5 NEEDS THEORY

Maslow's theory has been widely adopted by organizations and is frequently used as the foundation for organizational development programs such as participative management, job enrichment, and quality of work life projects.

In Maslow's need hierarchy the effects of money are not clear. Money is mostly related to the needs of physiological and security needs since money contributes significantly to securing a comfortable and safe environment. Money is not so important to higher-level needs. So in Maslow's need hierarchy, money is not considered an effective motivator.

Self-Actualization. Maslow's unique contribution to motivation theory was his description of self-actualization. It refers to the process of

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developing our true potential as individuals to the fullest extent and expressing our skills, talents and emotions in the most personally fulfilling manner. The need for self-actualization tends to increase in potency. It is an ongoing process to achieve self-fulfillment.

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Characteristics of Self-Actualizing People

1. Superior perception of reality.
2. Increased acceptance of self, of others and of nature.
3. Increased in problem-centering.
4. Increased detachment and desire for privacy.
5. Increased autonomy.
6. Greater freshness of appreciation and richness of emotional reaction.
7. Improved interpersonal relations.
8. Greatly increased creativity.
9. Careful about the systems of value.

Alderfer's ERG Theory

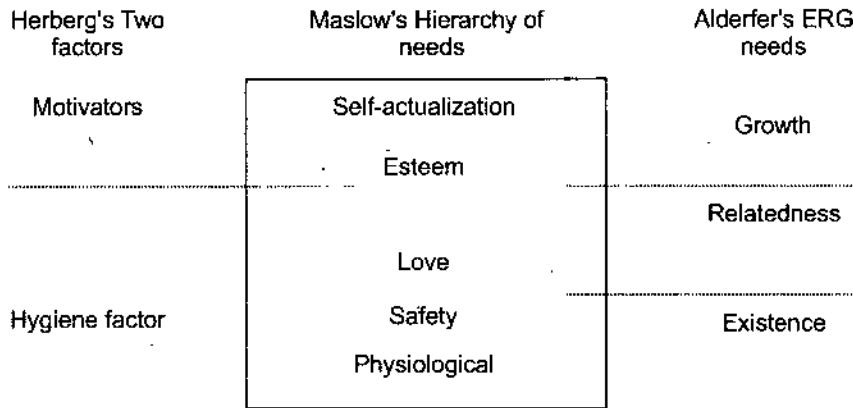
In response to these criticism, an alternative formulation has been proposed by **Alderfer**. His approach known as ERG theory, is much simpler than Maslow's.

ERG Theory

Is a modified Maslow's need hierarchy, "Similar to Maslow, and Herzberg, he does assert that there are three need relationships in categorizing basic human needs which condenses Maslow's five needs into: Existence, relatedness and growth (between lower-order needs and higher-order needs).

In fact Alderfer postulates that any need may be activated in any time. Existence needs correspond to Maslow's physiological needs and safety needs. Relatedness needs correspond to Maslow's social needs, and social relationships. Finally growth needs corresponds to the esteem needs and self-actualization needs in Maslow's theory.

Alderfer did not believe that one level of needs had to be satisfied before the next level need would emerge. All of the needs could be simultaneously active for as given individual. Studies examining the ERG theory using bank employees, nurses, and life insurance personal seem to suggest that Maslow's theory can be condensed from five needs to three. Most of the researchers support Alderfer's theory over Maslow's and Herzberg's.



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(Relationship between ERG, Maslow needs and Herberg's two-factor theory)

Motivation-Hygiene Theory

This theory is proposed by psychologist **Fredrick Herberg**. He extended the work of Maslow and developed a specific content theory of work motivation.

Herberg investigated the question "what do people want from their jobs"? People feel good or bad about the job and at times indifferent to the jobs they perform. These responses call for the factors affecting job attitudes.

Hygiene Theory

Intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction while extrinsic factors are associated with dissatisfaction.

This theory is concerned with job content and job context. Job content consists of tasks/activities the job-holders do formally in their positions.

On the other hand, job context refers to the working condition, organizational climate, culture etc. Intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility advancement and growth seem to be related to job satisfaction. Extrinsic factors such as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations etc. Opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction. Removing dissatisfaction characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying. The opposite of satisfaction is 'no satisfaction' and the opposite of "Dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction".

Herberg's Two-Factor Theory

Hygiene Factors

Company policy and administration,
Supervision, technical
Salary

Motivators

Achievement
Recognition
Work itself

Interpersonal realizations working conditions

Responsibility
Advancement

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- These hygiene factors prevent dissatisfaction but they do not lead to satisfaction. They prevent the causes of dissatisfaction and serve as the path to motivation. (motivate human on the job)

Herberg's two-factor theory cast as new light on the content of work motivation. Even though management pays higher wages/salaries still employees are not willing to work *i.e.*, not motivated. Herberg's theory offers an explanation for these problems. By concentrating only on the hygiene factors, management are not motivating their personnel.

But motivators such as achievement, recognition and congenial climate to motivate employees in the organization. Both are complementary to each other.

Analysis: Herberg's two-factor theory, though popular and accepted by practitioners, it over simplifies work motivation. **Victor Vroom** stated that the two-factor theory attempts to identify what motivates people at work. But process theorists on the other hand, are more concerned with the cognitive antecedents that go into motivation or effort, (*e.g.*, that is the knowledge is acquired including perception, reasoning, intuition before some events occurs). Vroom explains it through his Expectancy model. (Valence, expectancy and instrumentality the basic assumption among alternative causes of actions are related to psychological events occurring with behaviour).

The question of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in regard to Two-factors theory is dependent on the nature of the content and context of the work roles of the respondents.

The job design technique of job enrichment is also one of Herberg's contributions.

SUMMARY

- Motivation as a concept represents a highly complex phenomenon that affects and is affected by number of factors in organizational setting.
- Motivation is essentially concerned with attributing causes to and reasons for behaviour. It is concerned with both impulsive and deliberate behaviour influenced by internal and external circumstances. Motivation sets out the process of what makes the person do things.
- Safety needs include the need for safety as secure environment to be free from threats of physical or psychological harm.

- Intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction while extrinsic factors are associated with dissatisfaction.

GLOSSARY

- **Motivation:** As a concept, motivation represents a highly complex phenomenon that affects and is affected by number of factors in organizational setting.
- **Motive:** A motive is an inner state that energises, activates or moves and that directs or channels behaviour towards goals.
- **Self-Actualization:** It refers to the process of developing our true potential as individuals to the fullest extent and expressing our skills, talents and emotions in the most personally fulfilling manner.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Illustrate motivation.
2. What are the elements included in motivation? Explain.
3. Explain the different types of needs.
4. Write the characteristics of self-actualizing people.

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UNIT 10 LEADERSHIP

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★ STRUCTURE ★

- 10.1. Learning Objectives
- 10.2. Introduction
- 10.3. Leadership Defined
- 10.4. Leadership is a Mutual Influence Process
- 10.5. Theories of Leadership
- 10.6. Leader Behaviour
- 10.7. Behaviour
- 10.8. The Managerial Grid
- 10.9. Leaders and Followers
- 10.10. How to be an Effective Leader

10.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to define leadership and understand that leadership is a mutual influence process, theories of leadership, leader behaviour, managerial grid and flow to be an effective leader.

10.2 INTRODUCTION

The successful organisation has one major attribute that sets it apart from unsuccessful origination because of effective leadership. **Peter Druckker** pointed out that managers (Business Leaders are the basic and scarcest resource of any business enterprise).

10.3 LEADERSHIP DEFINED

According to **George R. Terry**, "*leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives*". **Robbort Taannenbaun, Weschler** and **Fred Massarik** defined leadership as "*Interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process towards the attainment of a specialized goal or goals*". **Harold Koontz** and **C. Odonell** state that "*Leadership influencing people to follow in the achievement of common goal*". From the above definition

of leadership, it follows that the leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and other situational variables.

$$L = f(l.f.s)$$

It should be remembered that the leaders and followers must be in a hierarchical relationship.

We quote a few important definitions on leadership from the existing literature. These definitions reveal the essence of leadership.

1. "Leadership is the process of encouraging and helping others to work enthusiastically towards objectives".
2. "Leadership is the behaviour of an individual which he is indirecting the activities of a group towards a shared goal" (Hemphill and Coons, 1957, p.7).
3. Leadership is "interpersonal influence, exercised a situation, and directed, through the communication process towards the attainment of a specified goal or goals" (Tannedaumental, 1961, .24).
4. Leadership is "an interaction between persons in which one presents information of a sort and in such a manner that the other becomes convinced that his outcomes (benefits/considerations) will be improved if he behaves in the manner suggested or desired" (Jacobs, 1970, p.232).
5. Leadership "is both a process and property. The process of leadership is the use of non-coercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the members of an organized group towards the accomplishment of group objectives. As a property, leadership is the set of qualities or characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to successfully employ such influence".
6. Leadership is "the relationship in which one person (the leader) influences others to work together willingly on related tasks to attain goals desired by the leader and/or group".

The core points that run through all these definitions and which constitute their essence of leadership are the following:

- (a) Leadership refers to the ability of one individual to influence others.
- (b) The influence is exercised to change the behaviour of others.
- (c) Behaviour is changed through on-coercive means.
- (d) Change of behaviour is caused with an objective of achieving a shared goal.
- (e) The person influencing others (leader) possesses a set of qualities or characteristics which he uses to influence others.
- (f) Leadership is a group phenomenon. It involves interaction between two or more people.

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There are also many instances that hold good the vary idea of leadership as working definition. Imagine that you have accepted a new job and enter a new work group. How would you recognize its leader?

One possibility of course is through the formal titles an assigned roles each person in the group holds. In short the individual designated as department head or project manager would be the one, you would identify as the group leader.

Now imagine that during several staff meetings you notice that this person was really not the most influential. Although she/he held the formal authority, there meetings were actually dominated by another person who was the top persons subordinate. What would you conclude about the leadership in this case? Probably that the real leader of the group was the person who actually ran things—not the one with the formal titles and authority. This facts point to the following working definition of leadership that is accepted by many experts.

Leadership is the process where one individual influences other group members towards the attainment of defined group or organisational goals. Leader is an individual within a group or an organization who wields the most influence over others. Leadership influences is goal directed and involves non-coercive influence.

Leadership and Management

Management, managership and leadership are terms which are so closely related that the distinctions among them have become blurred. It is useful to place each of them in its right perspective.

Management is a process of planning, organizing, coordinating, directing, and controlling the activities of others.

Managership as mentioned above is the process of influence for the purpose of achieving shared goals.

Both managership and leadership are management tools with which managers can influence the behaviour of employees to achieve organisational goals. The distinction between them can be made on the basis of the qualifications that managers have. Managers, by virtue of being in a managerial position, have managership, but they may no possess leadership or the ability to influence other people.

There are certain other differences between leaders and managers.

1. Leaders have followers, but managers do not have. Subordinates may obey managers out of fear but such compliance is not response to leadership. Similarly, all leaders are not managers. Leaders have followers but do not possess authority to manage informal leaders. Managership is a fundamental characteristic of a manager.

2. Leaders have emotional appeal. They are expected to be charismatic people with great visions who can alter the mood of their followers and raise their hopes and expectations. On the other hand, managers are expected to be rational decision-makers and problem solvers. They are expected to use their analytical minds in the process of establishing and achieving organisational goals.
3. Leaders fulfill followers' needs. Managers and leaders try to meet organisational and employee's personal needs. But the emphasis differs. The main aim of a manager is to meet organizational goals. Similarly, the main job of a leader is to satisfy his followers needs.
4. **Peter Drucker** and **Warren Bennis** have thus rightly pointed: *"management is doing things right, leadership is doing right things. Management's efficiency lies in climbing the ladder of success; leadership determines whether the ladder is leaning against the right wall"*.

The distinction between management and leadership gets blurred in actual practice. In real life organizations there are no distinct leaders, there are only managers. They will be acting both in the capacity of managers as well as in the capacity of leaders. A successful manager is the one who has both the qualities and who makes use of them discretely, depending on whether he or she is required to lead or to manage.

10.4 LEADERSHIP IS A MUTUAL INFLUENCE PROCESS

The discussion on the nature of leadership till now makes a reader believe that leadership is unidirectional, i.e., the leader influencing his followers. It is true that leadership refers to the influence of the leader on followers. At the same time, the characteristics of employees and their tasks do yield influence on the leader. Leadership is, therefore, a mutual influence process.

Leader's Influence on Followers

Why is leader able to influence his followers? What makes followers simply obey whatever their leader says? A leader is able to change the behaviour of his followers because he enjoys power which comes to him from at least five sources. They are: a) *reward power* which refers to the leader's capacity to reward followers, b) *coercive power* which is the full side of reward power and refers to the leader's capacity to coerce or punish followers c) *legitimate power* which refers to the power a leader possesses as a result of occupying a particular position or role in the organisation d) *expert power* that refers to power that a leader possesses as a result of his knowledge and expertise

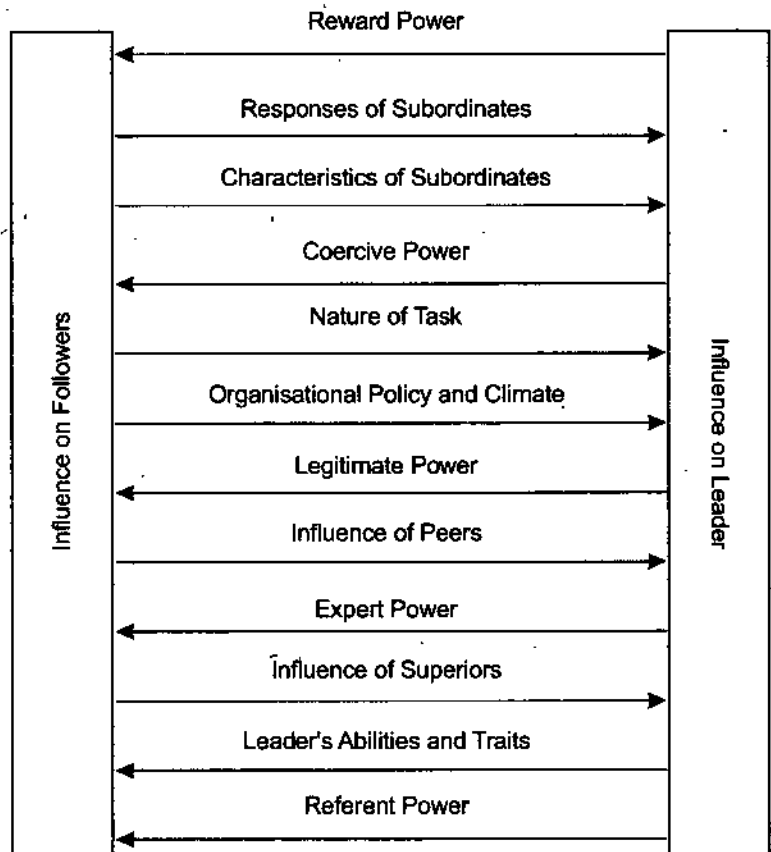
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regarding the task to be performed by subordinates; and *e) referent power* which is dependent upon the extent to which subordinates identify with, look up to, and wish to emulate the leader.

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Followers' Influence on Leader

The fact that the followers and situations will influence their leader is a recent discovery. Several sources of influence on the leader's behaviour are identified. The more important of them are: *a) responses or performance of subordinates; b) characteristics of subordinates, namely, male or female, young or old, personal background, and the like; c) the nature of the task; d) organizational policy and climate; e) peers and their influence on the leaders; f) influence of superiors on the leader; and g) the leaders' abilities and traits.*



The terms Leader Vs. Manager tend to be used interchangeably. Although we understand the temptation to do so. The two terms are not identical. The concept of managerial leadership is important because the term itself suggest necessary bringing together of the managerial and leadership roles for more effective tasks accomplishment, organisational effectiveness and human satisfaction.

A manager can manage by fear and without considering the well being of organisational members—just as long as formal goals are met. Yet clarifying paths towards personal and organizational objective

is a function of the managerial leader. The tasks of making these paths congruent individual can accomplish his/her personal motives while meeting the organisational goals.

The manager's effectiveness is measured by how well formal goals are made through the productive effort of subordinate. The managerial leader should be evaluated for effectiveness on both sets of criteria, both formal goal accomplishment and informal goal accomplishment. The importance of incorporating the leadership role into the managerial role can be seen if we compare the productivity of manager who displayed concern for the well being of the subordinates with those who need not.

Likert demonstrated the superior productivity associated with managers who were seen by their subordinates as "supportive" (building and maintaining employees' sense of personal worth and importance), as compared with those who were not. The supportive managers' units were significantly more productive than the units of the non-supportive managers. The differences between the effective (supportive) and ineffective (non-supportive) supervisors were described in terms of the superior—subordinate relationship; the effective managers considered their subordinates "human beings rather than just as persons to get the work done". Low-producing managers attempted to control through their authority. In contrast, the high-producing managers used extensive participation and group leadership techniques in building an integrated team that was committed to organizational goals. The following table summarizes a portion of results of this study.

Table of Supervisors' Orientation and their Sections Productivity Ratings

	Job-Centered (Non-supportive)		Employee-Centered (Supportive)		Total
	Number	(Percentage)	Number	(Percentage)	
High-Producing Sections	1	(12.5)	6	(66.7)	7
Low-Producing Sections	7	(87.5)	3	(33.3)	10
Total	8	(100)	9	(100)	17

10.5 THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Trait Theory

Before 1945 the most common approach to the study of leadership concentrated on leadership traits, suggesting that certain characteristics

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such as physical energy or friendliness were essential for effective leadership. These inherent personal qualities like intelligence were felt to be transferable from one situation to another. But this is not possible rather requires training of the individuals for future leadership. Leadership training would gain be helpful only to those with inherent leadership traits. Certain traits predict success or failure. As **Gary Yukl** has observed "*leadership traits are relevant and appropriate to the particular situation*". The premise that some leader traits absolutely necessary for effective leadership and possession of this traits increase the effectiveness.

Warren Bennis completed a five years study of 90 outstanding leaders and their followers. He identified 4 common traits or areas of competence shared by all 90 leaders.

1. *Management of Attention.* The ability to communicate a sense of outcome, goal, or direction that attracts followers.
2. *Management of Meaning.* The ability to create and communicate meaning with clarity and understanding.
3. *Management of Trust.* The ability to be reliable and consistent.
4. *Management of Self.* The ability to know one's self and to use one's skills within the limits of one's strengths and weaknesses.

Table of Traits and Skills Found Most Frequently to be Characteristic of Successful Leaders.

Trait	Skill
Adaptable to situation	Clever (intelligent)
Alert to social environment	Conceptually skilled
Ambitious and achievement-oriented	Creative
Assertive	Diplomatic and tactful
Cooperative	Fluent in speaking
Decisive	Knowledgeable about group tasks
Dependable	Organized (administrative ability)
Dominant (desire to influence others)	Persuasive
Energetic (high activity level)	Persuasive
Self-confident	
Tolerant of stress	
Willing to assume responsibility	

Leaders should also create an environment where quality matters and dedication to work energizes efforts.

1. *Business Literacy.* Does the manager know the business—the real feel of it?

2. *People Skills.* Does the manager have the capacity to motivate, to bring out the best in people ?
3. *Conceptual Skills.* Does the manager have the capacity to think systematically, creatively, and inventively?
4. *Track Record.* Has the manager done it before and done it well?
5. *Taste.* Does the manager have the ability to pick the right people-not clones, but people who can make up deficiencies?
6. *Judgement.* Does the manager have the ability to make quick decisions with imperfect data?
7. *Character.* The core competency of leadership is character, but character and judgement are the qualities we know least about when trying to teach them to others.

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The Great Person Theory

The theory views that leaders possess special stress that set them apart from others. And that this traits are responsible for their assuming positions of power and authority. The questions here may be asked. Are some people born to live? It is unequivocally clear that leaders are both born and made. Leaders don't have to great man or women by being intellectual geniuses. But they do need to have the right stuff. Leadership is a demanding , unrelenting job with enormous pressure and gave responsibilities.

This orientation suggests great leaders posses key traits that set them apart from most other human beings. Further more the theory contends that this traits remain stable over time and across different groups.

What are the characteristics of the great leaders?

Researchers have identified the following characteristics of successful leaders.

Table of Characteristics of Successful Leaders

Trait or Characteristic	Description
Drive	Desire for achievement, ambition, high energy, tenacity and initiative.
Honesty and integrity	Trustworthy, reliable, and open.
Leadership motivation	Desire to influence others to reach shared goals.
Self-confidence	Trust in own abilities.
Cognitive ability	Intelligence; ability to integrate and interpret large amounts of information.

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Knowledge of the business	Knowledge of industry and relevant technical matters.
Creativity	Capacity to come up with original.
Flexibility	Ability to adapt to needs of followers and situation.

However we will explain several others traits that are not quite as obvious.

Leadership Motivation

The desire to lead and influence others especially towards the attainment of shared goals. Leaders who demonstrate such personalized power motivation which to dominant others and their desire to do so is often reflected in an excessive concern with status. On the other hand leaders who evidence such socialized power motivation cooperate with others develop networks and collision and general work with subordinates rather than try to dominant and control them.

Flexibility: Another special characteristics of the effective leaders is flexibility. That is they act according to the situational variables.

Multiple Domains of Intelligence

Scientists have acknowledge that leaders have to be smart in a variety of different ways. In other words they have to demonstrate what is known as multiple domains of intelligence. Leaders have to be intelligence in special ways.

- (a) *Cognitive Intelligence.* Leader must be capable of integrating and interpreting large amounts of information. Traditionally this is the measure of ability.
- (b) *Emotionally Intelligence.* Refers to people's abilities to be sensitive to their own or others emotion.
- (c) *Cultural Intelligence.* Most of the research on leadership has focus on culture within which leaders operate and take decision.

10.6 LEADER BEHAVIOUR

Behavioral Theories

Beginning in the late 1940's and continuing through the early 1960's researchers moved away from an emphasis on traits and towards the study of leader behaviours. This new approach differed from the trait oriented research in at least two ways. First, actual leader behaviours instead of personal traits were the main focus. Second,

whereas most trait studies sought to separate leaders from non-leaders, leader behaviour studies wanted to determine how various kinds of specific behaviour affect the performance and satisfaction of followers. Thus, the difference between the two approaches is summarized in Table.

Table of Difference between Trait and Behaviour Theory

Theories	Emphasis	End result
Trait theories	Study personal characteristics	Separate leaders from non-leader
Leader behaviour theories	Study how a leader behaves	Followers' performance and satisfaction.

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10.7 BEHAVIOURS

Another approach has been identifying the behaviours by which the leader fulfills the leadership role; the rationale is that the leader must behave in some consistent set of ways in order to interact with followers, solve problems, or encourage enthusiastic participation in important activities. If sets of behaviours could be found that distinguished between effective and ineffective leaders, then ineffective leaders could be taught how the effective leaders acted and thus become more effective.

The range of behaviours that comprise the role of the leader can be seen from the following list:

1. *Representation*. Speaking and acting as the representative of the group.
2. *Demand Reconciliation*. Reconciling conflicting demands and reducing disorder to the system.
3. *Tolerance of Uncertainty*. Ability to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or being upset.
4. *Persuasiveness*. Using persuasion and argument effectively; exhibiting strong convictions.
5. *Initiation of Structure*. Clearly defining the leader's own role, and letting followers know what is expected of them.
6. *Tolerance of Freedom*. Allowing followers scope for initiative, decision, and action.
7. *Role Assumption*. Actively exercising the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others.
8. *Consideration*. Regarding the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of the leader's followers.

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9. *Production Emphasis.* Applying pressure for productive output.
10. *Predictive Accuracy.* Exhibiting foresight and the ability to predict outcomes accurately.
11. *Integration.* Maintaining a closely-knit organization: resolving inter member conflicts.
12. *Influence with Superiors.* Maintaining cordial relations with superiors: having influence with superiors; the leader is seen as striving for higher status?

The factors most often regarded as differentiating between effective and ineffective leaders are two termed initiation of structure and consideration.

Consideration and Initiation of Structure

More broadly, consideration is the showing of understanding, concern, and sympathy for the feelings and opinions of followers, being considerate of their needs and well-being, and showing willingness to explain what the leader does. Initiation of structure covers task-related behaviours, such as assigning roles and duties to group members, scheduling work assignments, defining goals and establishing task procedures, setting standards, and evaluating followers performance.

In reviewing the literature relating the two items of consideration and initiating structure to group performance, **Stogdill** reported a somewhat higher relationship between group productivity and initiating structure of the leader than the relationship between productivity and consideration. At the same time, job satisfaction was more highly related to consideration than it was to initiating structure, and consideration seemed to be related to both high productivity and job satisfaction.

Productivity and Attitudes

What these findings indicate is that a group can become more productive when the leader exercises initiative, clarifies what the group is trying to accomplish, and clarifies what each member's role is. Certainly a group in which the leader does not have a clear idea of what to do or how to do it (initiation of structure) would have many disputes and conflicts.

Yet the leader who displays "considerate" behaviour shows that his or her followers are important, simply by being concerned with their feelings, attitudes, and relationships. A considerate leader would be expected to develop and maintain warm and personal relationships between herself or himself and the followers, and to make sure that the followers themselves get along well. Such a rationale can explain there relationship between having a considerate leader and followers reporting higher job satisfaction a friendlier and more comfortable

place to work can reduce one's dissatisfaction with those phases of the job.

Conflicts between Behaviours

The two sets of leadership behaviours, consideration and initiation of structure, may create difficulties for the leader, however. In initiating structure (clarifying task, roles and procedures), the leader may have to give task accomplishment a higher priority than the feelings of subordinates or followers. Even though a follower might wish to put off doing a distasteful task, the leader may often have to insist that it should be done so that the overall task can be accomplished. If consideration occupies a higher priority than initiating structure, on the other hand, the leader might well decide not to hurt the feelings of followers; performance feedback of a negative nature might not be given, although this creates a situation in which performance and improvement suffer.

The Considerate Leader, Productivity and Satisfaction

If recognize that both productivity and satisfactions are important and that one need not be realized at the expense of the other, the considerate leader tends more nearly to accomplish acceptable levels of productivity as well as job satisfactions. Although this statement may appear contradictory to what we have found out about how the considerate leader compares with the initiating leader, we should remember that a considerate leader attempts to fulfill the needs and expectations important to his or her followers; in many task situations, this means that followers want and need to know what comprises their work roles, and that they desire feedback and instruction on performance and ways to achieve higher levels of accomplishment. Being considerate, in such a case, can then include the role and expectations clarifications include in initiation of structure.

What do Leaders Do?

The trait approach to leadership, we just reviewed focuses on the idea that various traits distinguish effective leaders from others. In short it focuses on who leaders are. This approach make sense to consider the idea that leaders may be distinctive with respect to the way, they behave. Leadership behaviour examines what leaders do. The general question underline the behaviour approach is quite simple—What do Leaders Do that make them effective as leaders. There are several good answers to the questions.

Participative vs Autocratic Leadership Behaviour

When the behaviours of leaders involves much influence over the subordinates and the decision that are made by him is the autocratic

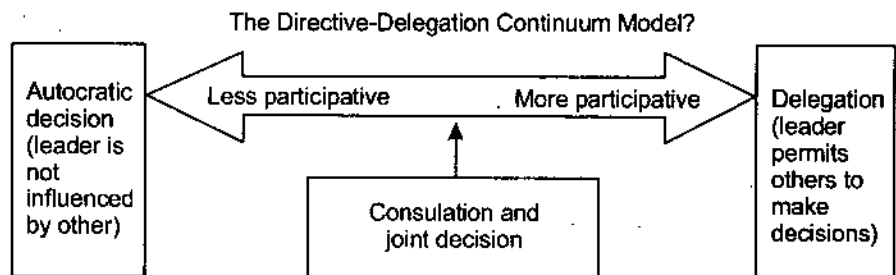
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style of leadership behaviour. Someone who makes all the decision, who makes all the decisions, tell people precisely what to do and wants to run the entire show is an autocrat leader. Such a person is said to have an autocratic leadership style.

In contrast, if the boss or supervisor allow employees to make their own decisions and allow them in decision making process is said to be participative leadership style. They may be consultant with the leader and have a joined decision of some sort.

The two-dimensional model of subordinate participation, if describes subordinate's participation in decision in terms of two dimension. The first dimension characterizes the extent to which leaders permits subordinates to take part in decision. The 2nd dimension involves the extent to which leaders direct the activities of subordinates and tell them how to carry out their jobs. This is the permissive—directive dimension. Many leaders adopt a style that fits at least within one of this following categories. Directive autocrat, Permissive autocrat, Directive democrat, Permissive democrat. Directive autocrat, is a person who makes decision without consulting subordinates and thus close supervision. Permissive autocrat is a leader who combines permissive supervision with an autocratic style of making decisions. The other directive democrat and permissive democrat are also most suited to specific organisational condition. This leaders are to match their own styles the needs of their organisation and to change the needs accordingly.



Each of these styles of management mentioned above has very definite advantages and disadvantages associated with it. While appraising these styles we must keep 4 major points in mind. 1) Value—Laden Style shows emotional responses to the idea associated with the terms. 2) We talk in terms of pure style which must be idealistic in forms. 3) The leadership style must be universal approach to all situation. 4) This pattern of style which seek to attain organisational objectives must be treated first and is of primary concern.

These elements offers insights—need for participation, the result of commitment and the closeness of supervision required.

All managerial styles invites the participation by subordinates. To make the leadership more pragmatic and relevant the involvement of subordinates is a must.

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Commitment to organisational goal is an important element that can more nearly integrate the behaviour of the individual with the activities required by the formal organisation. The rationale is that the individual who identifies with an enproduct or enpurpose, and is committed to attaining it will be more motivated and take initiative towards the end. Closeness and supervision—requires by the nature of the task and the organisational purpose. The term closeness of the supervision is synonymous with control.

One of the advantages of general supervision is that some initiative and originality are important. A bureaucratic phenomenon called goal displacement is typical happening under close supervision. Under goal displacement the way in which something is done, the procedure is more important than what is to be accomplished. The rules and regulations cannot be bent before the subordinates.

Ohio State University studies and the University of Michigan studies are the two important behavioral theories.

Ohio State University Studies: these well publicized studies were started shortly after World War II. The main objective of the studies was to identify the major dimensions of leadership and to investigate the effect of leader behaviour on employee performance and satisfaction. From a list of leader behaviours in a wide variety of situations, two leadership dimensions were identified:

1. The initiating structure which refers to leader behaviour that defines and organizes the group tasks, assigns the tasks to employees, and supervises their activities.
2. Consideration refers to leader behaviour that can be characterized by friendliness, respect, supportiveness, openness, trust, and concern for the welfare of the employees.

The main point in the study is that both consideration and initiating structure are not seen as being placed on a continuum. That is rather than a leader necessarily being low on one dimension when high on the other, the leader could be high on both, low on both, or high on one and low on the other as shown in the quadrants shown in Fig.

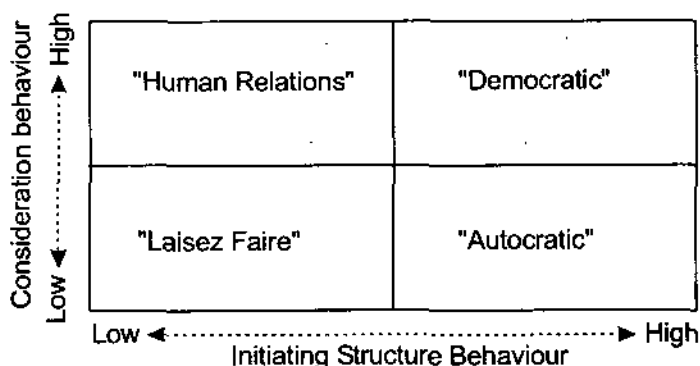


Fig. Leader behaviours and popularized leadership 'Styles'

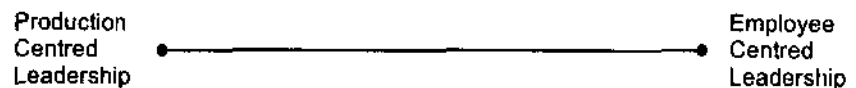
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The findings of the Ohio State studies can be summarized as follows:

1. Consideration was positively related to low absenteeism and grievance, but it was negatively or neutrally related to performance.
2. Initiating structure was positively related to employee performance but was also associated with such negative consequences as absenteeism and grievance.
3. When both consideration and structure were high, performance and satisfaction tended to be high. But in some cases, high productivity was accompanied by absenteeism and grievances.

The University of Michigan Studies: The studies were conducted during the same period as those at Ohio State and resulted in identical conclusions. As in the Ohio State University studies, researchers at the University of Michigan distinguished between two dimensions of leadership: production-centered and employees-centered. Production-centered leaders set rigid work standards, organized tasks down to the last detail, prescribed the work methods to be followed and closely supervised subordinates performance. Employee-centered leaders, on the other hand, encouraged employee participation in goal setting and in other work related decisions, and helped ensure high performance by inspiring respect and trust.

At first the findings of Michigan studies seem to refute the Ohio state research because they place leadership on a continuum such as the one shown in Fig. and concede that the further to right the leaders go, the better off they are. But a deeper analysis reveals that employee and work orientation are two separate dimensions and that a leader can be either high or low on one or both. Thus, the two styles discovered by the Michigan researchers were similar to those of the Ohio State people. The production-centered leadership factor and the initiating-leadership structure factor both measured work orientation, while the employee oriented factor and the consideration factor both measured people orientation.



Evaluation

In Leader behaviour theories, unlike in the trait theories, the focus was on what leaders did-how they delegated the tasks, how they communicated with and tried to motivate their subordinates, how they carried out their tasks, and so on. The theories underlined that the behaviours can be learnt and an individual trained in the appropriate leadership behaviours would be able to lead more effectively. This is the main contribution of the leader behaviour theory.

Behavioural theorists, however, could not successfully identify a consistent relationship between leadership behaviour and group performance. General statements could not be made because results would vary over different range of circumstances. What was missing was consideration of the situational factors that influence success or failure.

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10.8 THE MANAGERIAL GRID

A graphic depiction of a two-dimensional view of leadership style has been developed by **Blake and Mouton**. They proposed a Managerial Grid based on the styles of 'concern for people' and 'concern for production' which corresponded to the Ohio State dimensions of consideration and initiating structure or the Michigan dimensions of employee centered and production centered. Fig. shows a diagram of the Managerial Grid.

Concern for people	High 9								
	8	1,9 MANAGEMENT Thoughtful attention to needs of people for				9,9 MANAGEMENT Work accomplishment is from committed people			
	7	satisfying relationship				interdependence through			
	6					5,5 MANAGEMENT			
	5					Adequate organization performance is possible			
	4					through balancing the			
	3					9,1 MANAGEMENT			
	2	1,1 MANAGEMENT Exertion of minimum				Efficiency in operations			
	Low 1	effort to get required work				results from arranging conditions or work in such			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Low								High
	Concern for production								

Fig. The Managerial Grid

The grid identified five basic styles of leadership. The 9,1 (task management) leader is primarily concerned with production and has little concern for people. This person believes in getting work done at all costs. The 1, 9 (country club management) leader is primarily concerned with people. The 5,5 (middle of the road management) leader represents a moderate concern for both. The 9,9 (team management) style demonstrates high concern for both production and people and is, therefore, has minimum concern for people and production. The model is useful to managers in as much as it helps them identify their current styles and develop the most desirable style.

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The most fundamental criticism of the grid is Blake and Mounton's argument that the 9,9 style is superior to all other styles of management. The critics say, for example that managerial styles based on 9,1 direction with compliance, or 5,5 conformity with compromise, or on 1,9 security and comfort through convenience, or on 1,1 acquiescence and complacency, or the "clever" but corrupt relationships produced by facades or by debilitating paternalism, are, at best, second best. Actually they are quite unacceptable, in long term. In comparison with performance contributed under 9,9 other bases for work relationships seem to fall short.

But the belief that one leadership style is inherently superior to others is clearly contrary to the contingency idea of leadership. It seems unlikely that the 9,9 management style is appropriate for organizations experiencing different growth rates, labour relations, competitions, and a host of other different problems.

Contingency Theories of Leader Effectiveness

This leadership is a complex process, involves intricate social relationship and is affected by a wide range of factors. Thus effective leadership is an essential ingredient in organisational success with effective leadership organisation can grow prosper and compete. Recognition of this basic point lies behind several modern theories of leadership collectively referred to as contingency theories of leader effectiveness. There is no best style of leadership and also no suitable styles appropriate to specific conditions. So the contingency approach to leadership is concerned with effectiveness. Several theories fall into this category. Four that we will describe here are LPC contingency theory, situational leadership theory, path goal Theory, and three-dimension theory.

Contingency Theory

Fred Fredler has investigated the ways in which group productivity is affected by the behaviours of group leaders.

Fredler recognizes that the critical element in effective leadership is the nature of the situation in which the leader is acting. The appropriateness of the leaders behaviours to the dictate of the situation affects the effectiveness of the leader. In other words goal accomplishment is contingent (dependent) on matching leader behaviour and situation. The theory develop the two-dimension—task oriented (comparable to directive or initiating structure). Leaders and relationship oriented comparable to (considerate) leaders.

The task oriented leaders basic purpose is accomplishing the task. The relationship oriented leader is more concern with creating and maintaining warm and personal ties with others. In Fiedler's work the basic leadership style was identified through questionnaire called

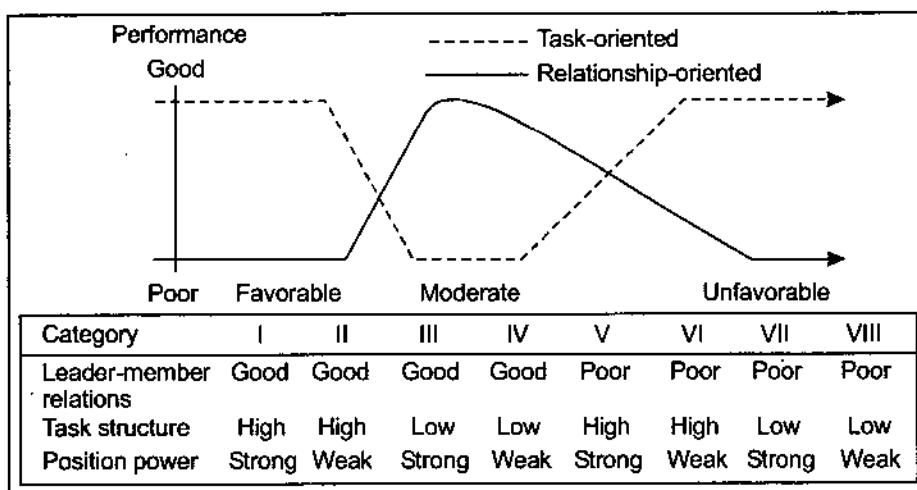
the List Preferred Co-Worker questionnaire in which the leader was asked to describe on a number of scale the characteristic of the person with whom here the most trouble working.

The leader who describe his or her least preferred worker in negative terms (e.g., unpleasant, cold, hostile) was considered task oriented. The task oriented leader has his/her basic goals for the accomplishment of the task. The co-worker who create difficulties in achieving the goals are rejected by the leader. By contrast the leader who reported the characteristics of his/her list preferred co-worker in positive terms (e.g., pleasant ,warm, supportive) has apparently separated the goals of task accomplishment and of having the relationship oriented approach, leader gives first priority on close personal relationship.

We would expect the task oriented leader to be directly, to initiate task structure for subordinates because task accomplishment is so important. The relationship oriented leader would tend to be much more considerate because a leader can achieve the personal motives of creating a warm personal relationship between leader and subordinates. **Hersey, Balanchard and Johnson** describes Fredlers contingency model in the following: In this model there are 8 possible combination of these three situational variables. Leadership situation varies from good to poor on leadership—membership relations, high to low on task structure, and strong to weak on position power. Eight combination can be formed out of this. The most favourable situation for leaders to influence the followers is one in which they are well liked by the members (good leader member relation, have a powerful position (strong position power) and are directing a well defined job (high task structure) on the other hand the most unfavourable situation for leaders is one in which they are disliked, have little position power, and face an unstructured task.

Having develop this model for classifying situations Feedler attempted to determine what the most effective leadership style—task oriented or relationship oriented is for each of the eight situation.

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Let us now describe in the following situational variables in detail.

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Leader-Member Relations

In a small group, especially, the interpersonal relationship between the leader and the group members is the most important single factor in determining the influence of the leader. The wholeheartedly endorsed leader has a favourable situation because of the followers' willingness to follow him or her. If relationships are strained or poor, the leader is in a rather unfavourable situation. Group members must be urged and influenced in the performance of task activities, hardly satisfactory for promoting enthusiasm and involvement.

Task Structure

The second most important determinant of leadership effectiveness is the extent to which the nature and requirements of the task are specified. The highly structured task influences member behaviour through the impersonal requirements of job instructions, policy statements, and workplace arrangement. The leader need not rely on interpersonal (and hence tenuous) relationships, for the situation itself influences behaviour in task-related directions. The leader can rather quickly ascertain performance, and sanctions may be applied as necessary. The leader in a highly structured task situation faces a rather favorable (for her or him) situation.

A task with low structure is an ambiguous, poorly defined task. Little direct support is given the leader through technological requirements, and he or she enjoys no such favorable situation as in a highly structured task. No formal specifications are available, nor are readily observable performance measures. The leader has no more appropriate knowledge than the members, and she or he operates under rather difficult conditions. Influence and ability to specify behaviours are inappropriate, and motivation is more important than authority. A committee chairperson might be in such a position, as would a research-and-development supervisor.

Task structure depends on:

1. *Goal clarity.* The extent to which task requirements are specified or known by members.
2. *Goal-path Multiplicity.* The extent to which there are alternative ways to accomplish the task.
3. *Decision Verifiability.* the extent to which task accomplishment can be evaluated by objective, logical, or feedback means.
4. *Decision Specificity.* the extent to which the task has but one correct outcome (an arithmetic problem) or several equally good results (establishing several alternative budgets from which the president will choose).

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The right of the leader to "direct, evaluate, and reward and punish" group members is related to the power he has by virtue of being the leader. High position power, characteristic of most management positions in industry, goes with the positive and negative incentives and sanctions available to the leader. Low position power, associated with committee chair people, implies that the leader has very few means of influencing members to comply.

Situation and Its Favourableness

Because each of these elements is divided into high and low categories, Fiedler suggested that various combinations of these three factors would describe all possible situations; by grouping studies according to the characteristics of the situation investigated, as well as by the leader's task effectiveness, one would be able to determine which leadership style was more effective for that particular type of situation. Eight possible situations were then identified. When they were ranked by the extent to which each particular situation was favorable for the leader's influencing the accomplishment of the assigned task, a continuum was created.

Fiedler has pointed out that the task situation is very favourable for the leader that is, he or she exerts more influence and has more control over task performance when support and acceptance are given by members, when the leader knows what is to be done and how to go about it, and when the organization has granted the leader the authority to reward and punish the subordinates. Conversely, the situation becomes very unfavourable for the leader's ability to control and influence task performance when the leader is not accepted, when the task and its duties are ill defined and ambiguous, and when the leader cannot reward or punish the followers. Fig. shows the continuum so developed, as well as the effective leadership style that was derived from intensive research efforts; "T" identifies the situations in which a task orientation is most effective, and R those in which a relationship orientation is most effective.

Leader Effectiveness in Situation

Very Favourable

Situation I is defined as being highly favourable, because the leader has the respect and loyalty of his or her subordinates (good leader-member relations), the task is well-structured so that the leader does not have to impose controls and performance-related sanctions (because these are provided by the task itself), and his or her power is strong. In this particular situation, the relationship-oriented leaders' considerate behaviour is redundant with the already existing factor of good leader-member relations; the task-oriented leader, on the other hand, is

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able to focus attention on accomplishing the task goals. Such a situation would be commonly found on any assembly line when the workers and the supervisor had good relations.

Very Unfavourable

In Situation VIII, we see that the leader and the group members do not get along well, the task is ill structured, and the leader has very weak position power all of which go to make up a situation highly unfavourable to the leader's ability to accomplish the task. If the leader were to be relationship-oriented, interpersonal relations would probably improve somewhat, but the ambiguities and frustrations created by the lack of structure would create a condition in which the group's task objectives could still not be met. Because the leader has low position power, in this situation it becomes crucial that the leader adopt the strategy of initiating structure, so that the barriers to task accomplishment may be eliminated.

Leadership Perception

Fiedler's leadership-effectiveness model allows one to analyze any particular situation and derive a prescription of which leadership approach is likely to be more effective; the prescription is based on extensive studies of similar situations, so the analysis can prove to be of significant help. What is especially important about Fiedler's and House's theories are the findings and implications that no one leadership style is appropriate under all conditions. When promoted, the effective assembly-line supervisor, for example, leaves the situation in which her or his behaviour patterns have proved to be effective and finds herself or himself in another and perhaps completely different situation.

Promotion

As most people tend to repeat those patterns of behaviour that have proved successful in the past, any supervisor or administrator who is promoted or transferred to another type of situation can find himself or herself employing leadership behaviours that were effective in the past, under different conditions, but that are completely inappropriate in the new situation.

Human Relations Training

The advocates of the "human relations" school of thought, especially popular in the 1950s and 1960s, asserted that the administrator who was consistently considerate would be universally effective. If we look at either Fiedler's or House's models, we can see that the "considerate" (human relations) approach is, in fact, effective—under certain conditions. With the help of Fiedler's model and we note that relationship orientation

is effective in only half of the total number of situations specified. Three fourths of the situations in which the relationship approach is effective are those in which leader-member relations are poor, which might typify a large number of bureaucratic industrial, business, or has good leader—member relations and VII (which calls for a task orientation, even though leader—member relations are poor).

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Path goal Theory of Leadership

One of the most respected approaches to the study of leadership currently discussed is the path goal theory developed by **Robbert House**.

The essence of the theory is that the leader's job is to use structure, support, and rewards to create a work environment that helps employees reach the organization's goals. According to the theory, the leader must clarify goals for the subordinates and clear the path for realizing the goals. The theory is called path goal because its major concern is how the leader influences the subordinates perceptions of their work goals, personal goals, and paths to goal attainment. The theory suggests that a leader's behaviour is motivating or satisfying to the degree that the behaviour increases subordinate goal attainment and clarifies the paths to these goals.

The path goal theory is closely to the expectancy theory of motivation. The expectancy theory holds that motivation is the product of a desire for an outcome (valence) and the belief that effort will lead to performance (instrumentality), and the hope that performance will result in desired outcome (expectancy). The path goal theory focuses on how leaders might influence motivation by increasing the availability and attractiveness of rewards and by strengthening the expectancies that effort can result in performance and performance in rewards.

As was mentioned earlier, the path goal theory is one of the contingency models. The leader's effectiveness, according to the path goal theory, in influencing rewards and expectancies depends on the characteristics of the environment and the characteristics of the subordinates. The ultimate effect of leadership behaviour on motivation and satisfaction is contingent upon the characteristics of environment and of the subordinates.

Evaluation of the Theory

On the plus side, it may be stated that the path goal theory is an improvement over Fiedler's model in as much as the former takes into account the personality characteristics of subordinates, as well as situational variables. On the minus side, it can be mentioned that it is a post-hoc theory and is yet to be extensively tested.

Situational Leadership Theory

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Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard have developed a situational model of leadership that adds “maturity” of followers as a contingency variables which deserves due consideration. The two authors feel that situational leadership requires adjusting the leader’s emphasis on task behaviours (*i.e.*, giving guidance and direction) and relationship behaviour (*i.e.*, offering socio-emotional support) according to the maturity of followers in performing their tasks. Maturity in this context is understood not as age or emotional stability but as desire for achievement, willingness to accept responsibility and task-related ability and experience. The goals and knowledge of followers are important variables in determining effective leadership style.

Hersey and Blanchard believe that the relationship between leader and subordinates moves through four phases-a kind of life cycle-as subordinates develop and mature and that managers need to vary their lead directing, selling, delegation, supporting styles subordinate first enter the organization a high task orientation by the manager is most appropriate. Subordinates must be instructed in their tasks and familiarized with the organization’s rules and procedures. At this stage a non-directive manager causes anxiety and confusion among new employees, however, a participatory employee relationship approach would also be inappropriate at this stage because subordinates cannot yet be regarded colleagues. This style is called the “directing” or “telling” approach of leadership.

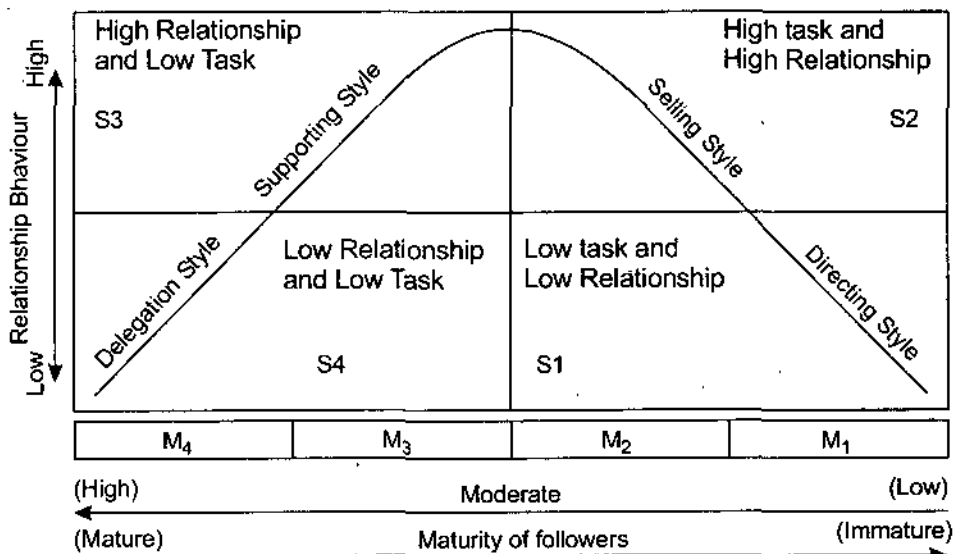


Fig. Situational theory of Leadership

As subordinates begin to learn their tasks, task-oriented management remains essential as subordinates are not yet willing or able to accept full responsibility. However, the managers’ trust in and support of subordinates can increase as the manager becomes familiar with subordinates and desires to encourage further efforts on their part.

Thus, the manager may choose to initiate employee-oriented behaviours. This style is called "selling" or "coaching" approach to leadership.

In the third phase (here it is the "participating" style), the subordinates' ability and achievement motivation are increased, and subordinates actively begin to seek greater responsibility. The manager will no longer need to be directive (indeed, close direction might be resented). However, the manager will continue to be supportive and considerate in order to strengthen the subordinate's resolve for greater responsibility.

"Delegating" is the style which the manager follows in the final stage. Here, the manager can reduce the amount of support and encouragement as subordinates gradually become more confident, self-directing, and experienced. Subordinates are "on their own" and no longer need or expect a directive relationship with their manager.

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Evaluation of the Trait Theory

The trait approach to leadership has been severely criticized by many. Some of the limitations of the theory are the following:

1. The list of personality traits of successful leaders is too long and there seems to be no finality about it. Although hundreds of traits have been identified, no consistent pattern has emerged.
2. How much of which trait a successful leader must have is not clear. Furthermore, certain traits, particularly psychological, can not be quantified.
3. The theory assumes that a leader is born and not trained. This assumption is not acceptable to the contemporary thinkers on the subject.
4. Contrary to what the theory assumes, leadership effectiveness does not depend on the personality of the leader alone. Other variables like the situation, the task, the organization and the characteristics of followers will equally determine the effectiveness of leaders.
5. It is a well-known fact that the people who fail as leaders and people who never achieve positions of leadership often possess some of the same traits as successful leaders. Thus, for example, although taller people may generally be more successful as leaders, many tall people have neither the inclination or the capabilities to be leaders. At the same time, many short people have risen to positions of leaders.
6. There is little consensus on the meaning of words used to label traits. In a study of extensive leadership qualities, a researcher demonstrated the magnitude of this problem when he asked 75 top executives to define the term "dependability", a trait associated with effective leadership. The executives defined this trait in

147 different ways. Even after similar definitions had been combined 25 different definitions remained.

It does not mean to say that the trait theory of leadership is irrelevant. With all its limitations, the theory is still relevant because of certain merits.

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One merit relates to the qualities of successful leaders. Focusing on personality traits, a review of studies carried out from 1900 to 1957 showed that leaders tend to be consistently better adjusted, more dominant, more extroverted, more masculine, and more conservative, and have greater interpersonal sensitivity than non-leaders.

The second merit relates to the influence of personality on one's effectiveness. To define person's personality, what he fundamentally is as a person, is an ever present and massive influence on how, and with what success, he functions as a manager.

The personality of man is his inner life, including such inner elements as background, life history, beliefs, life experiences, attitudes, prejudices, self-image, fears, loves, hates, hopes and philosophy of life. In this sense, a man is like an iceberg: only a small fraction of what he appears above the surface (his observable behaviour, what he does); the rest is his inner life, the 7/8th of the iceberg that lie, unobservable, below the surface.

However, the managers inner personality causes or 'spills over' into his behaviour which in turn affects others with whom he works, eliciting from them either cooperative or resistance reactions. And, therein lies the manager's fate: cooperative reactions from his people spell success, resistance reactions, however irrational from the manager's viewpoint, usually assure his failure.

"It is clear that there is an influential relationship between a manager's total personality and his success as a manager on the job. I have submitted this precise concept to several thousand practising managers over the years and based on their experience virtually all acknowledge its validity".

Third, the view that leaders are born, not made is in fact, still popular (through not among researchers). After a lifetime of reading popular novels and viewing films and television shows, perhaps most of us believe, to some extent, that there are individuals who have re-disposition to leadership, that they are naturally braver, more aggressive, more decisive, and more articulate than other people.

Finally, the theory has certain practical implications also. If leadership traits could be identified, then nations and organizations would become far more sophisticated in selecting leaders. Only those people who possess the designated leadership traits would become politicians, officers, and managers. Presumably, organizations and societies would then operate more effectively.

Evaluation

The situational leadership theory has generated considerable interest because it recommends a leadership type that is dynamic and flexible rather than static. The motivation, ability and experience of subordinates must be constantly assessed in order to determine which style combination would be most appropriate under flexible and changing conditions. If the style is appropriate, according to Hersey and Blanchard, it will not only motivate employees but also help them move towards maturity. Further, the theory gives specific attention to followers and their feelings about a task or job to be done. Finally, the theory is one of the more popular leadership training models available today. Partly enhanced by success of Balanchard's book *The One Minute Manager*, many organisations make use of the model and its associated instruments.

10.9 LEADERS AND FOLLOWERS

So far we have focused on leaders—their traits and their behaviour. Followers by and large have ignored. But followers are the essence of leadership. Without them there is no such things as leadership.

The importance of followers and the complex reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers are widely recognised by organisational researcher. Now let us consider three such approaches: The leader member exchange model. The practice of team leadership, and the Attribution approach to leadership.

The Leader—The Member Exchange (LMX Model)

This theory suggest that for various reasons leaders form different kinds of relationship with various groups of subordinates. One group referred to as the in-group, is favoured by the leader. Members of in-groups receive considerably more attention from the leader and larger shares of the resources they have to offer (such as time and recognition) by contrast other subordinates fall into the out group. This individuals are disfavoured by leaders. Because of these importance of potential differences in this respect the focus of the model regarded as leader member exchange (LMX). Such findings suggest that attention to the relation between leaders and their followers can be very useful. The nature of such relationships strongly affects the morale commitment and performance of employees.

Leaders Relationship with Teams

Traditionally leaders make decision on behalf of followers who are responsible for carrying them out. But in todays organisation where teams predominant leaders are called on to provide special resources to team members. These teams are empowered to implement their

own mission in their own ways. Team leaders help subordinates take responsibility for their own work as such they are very different from the traditional command and control leadership role.

The role of leaders in self managed work team tend to think of individual and responsible for their decision, help fulfill their reasons we shall view the following guidelines that should be followed to achieve success as a leader.

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Leading Group versus Leading Team	
The popularity of teams in today's organisations has important implications for how leaders go about fulfilling their roles. Some of the key differences between leading traditional work groups and leading teams are summarized here.	
Traditional Work Groups, Leaders...	But, In Teams, Leaders.....
Tell people what to do.	Ask people what they think and share responsibility for organizing and doing the work.
Take all the credit.	Share the lime light with all their teammates.
Focus on training employees.	Concentrate on expanding their team's capabilities by functioning primarily as coaches who build confidence in team members; cultivating their untapped potential.
Relate to others individually.	Create a team identify by helping the team set goals, helping members meet them, and celebrating when they have been met.
Work at reducing conflict between individuals.	Make the most of team differences by building respect for diverse points of view and ensuring that all team member's view are expressed.
Respond to change reactively.	Recognize that change is inevitable and foresee it, better preparing the organization to make appropriate adoptions.

From the above description of leadership corresponding to subordinates/followership we can draw the conclusion in the following:

1. Instead of directing people, team leaders work at building trust and inspiring team work.

2. Rather focusing simply on training individual effective team leaders concentrate on expanding team capabilities.
3. Instead of managing one-on-one team leaders attempt to create a team identity. In other words leadership helps in building followers missions and recognize their capability to establish objectives and goals.
4. Leaders always prevents conflicts between individual and encouraged the followers to resolve the differences.
5. Leaders should foresee and influence change to the extent that the leader recognize that change is inevitable. They may be prepared to make the adaptation required in the situation.

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The Attribution Approach—Leaders Explanation of Followers Behaviour

Just now we have discussed about the leaders relationship within individual subordinate playing an important role in determining the performance and satisfaction of this individuals. The attribution approach to leadership that focuses on leaders attributions of followers performance—*i.e., their perception of its underlined causes.*

Leaders observed the performance of their followers and then attempt to understand why these behaviour met, exceeded or failed to meet their expectation. Poor performance often possess greater difficulties than effective performance. Leaders are very much alert against why the poor performance and analyze immediately. At this stage leaders examine these three kinds of information (Consensus, Consistency and Distinctiveness and on the basis of such information formed an *initial judgement as to whether followers performs stemmed from internal causes (e.g., low effort, commitment, or ability) or external causes (factors beyond their control such as faulty equipment, unrealistic, deadlines or illness).* Then on the basis of such attribution they formulate specific plans to change the present situation and improve followers performance.

This attribution theory suggest that such actions are determined by leaders explanation of followers behaviour.

So far we discussed the attributions leaders make about followers behaviour. However followers also make attribution about their leaders behaviour. Followers tend to rally around their leaders in times of crises what is known as the RALLY ROUND THE FLAG EFFECT. In other words they make positive attributions about their leaders during a crises situation. Recently a dramatic boost in popularity of US President Bush following the victory in Iraq and drastic action following the terrorist attack on Sept' 11, 2001. The American public put aside its political difference and supported the president during this crises.

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In summary the attribution approach suggest that the attitude of the behaviours, leaders and the followers often reflect the attribution they make about one another behaviour. From this prospective leadership lies as much in the prescription of the people, who exercise such influence as in the prescription of those who confer the light to wield it over them.

10.10 HOW TO BE AN EFFECTIVE LEADER

Determining Effectiveness

One of the most important issues facing the apply behavioural science that are human productivity—the quality and quantity of work. Productivity concerns both effectiveness (the attainment of goals) and efficiency (resource cost including those human resource cost affecting the quality of life). **Peter Drucker** wrote *“Effectiveness is the foundation and of success—efficiency is a minimum condition after success has been achieved. Efficiency is concerned with doing things right. Effectiveness is doing the right things”*.

Leadership Effectiveness

Leadership can be successful or unsuccessful in producing the desired response. A basic responsibility of a leader in any type of organization is to get work done with and through people, show their success is measured by the output and productivity of the group they lead. **Bernard M. Bass** suggested a clear distinction between successful and effective leadership.

1. Successful or unsuccessful depending on the extent to which one accomplishes the job. Let us assume that A's leadership is successful when the response on B's to A's leadership is immediate and stimulant. If A's leadership style is not compatible with the expectation of B', B will not be willing to do the job sincerely and effectively. But because of A's position power he does the job. In this case A has been successful but not effective.

On the other hand if A attempts to lead to a successful response B will do the job and be motivated to bring about success in the job. In fact B sees this personal goals (either promotion or reward as being accomplished by this activity). This is what is mean by effective leadership. Effectiveness describes the internal state or predisposition of an individual or a group and thus it is attitudinal in nature. The following figure will clear this concept.

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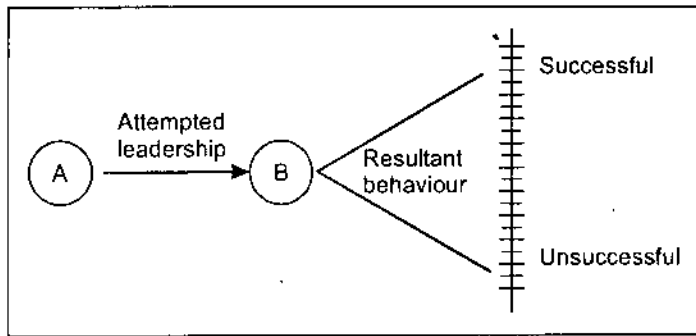


Fig. Bass's successful leadership continuum.

Source: based on Bernard M. Bass, *Leadership, Psychology, and Organizational Behaviour* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960), pp.90,448.

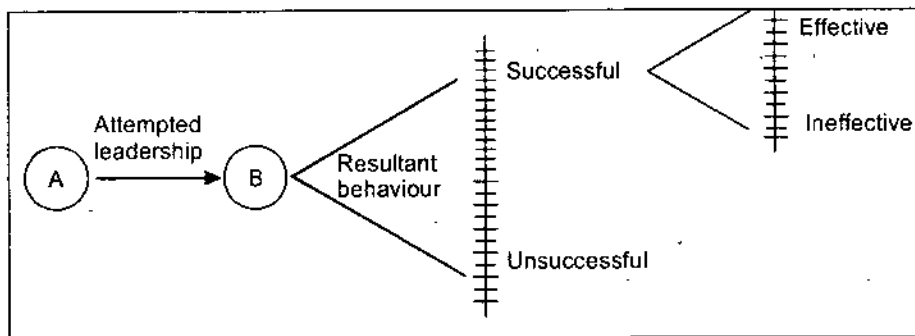


Fig. Bass's successful and effective leadership continuums

Source: Based on Bernard M. Bass, *Leadership, Psychology, and Organizational Behaviour* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960), pp.90,448.

Fred Luthans a professor of management of the university of Nebraska conducted a 4 year observation study to determine the seniority and differences between successful manager and the effective manager. The study reported that successful managers spend more of that time and effort inside and outside the organization and effective manager did less than the successful manager. Planning, decision and controlling activities of management are performed by effective managers to achieve the goal. The following are the activities of the real managers recognised as effective—*a*) communication—exchanging information with the subordinates, *b*) planning decision and controlling (managerial process) and determine the effectiveness of the manager. Networking—interacting with the outsiders, socializing/politicking, *d*) Human Resource Management—(motivating—reinforcing, discipline/punishing, managing conflict, staffing, training/ developing). In summary managers could be successful but ineffective having only a short lived influence behaviour of others. On the other hands if managers are both successful and effective there influence tends to lead to long ran productivity and

organizational development. This really is what leader effectiveness is all about.

Charismatic Leadership: that “Something Special”

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Charismatic leaders

Leaders who exert especially powerful effects on followers by virtue of their commanding confidence and clearly articulated visions.

Qualities of Charismatic Leaders: Researchers have found that charismatic leaders tend to be special in a number of important ways. Specifically, several factors differentiate charismatic leaders from non-charismatic leaders. These are as follows:

- *Self-Confidence.* Charismatic leaders are highly confident in their ability and judgement. Others readily become aware of this. For example, John Bryan, CEO of Sara Lee, is both extremely knowledgeable and widely regarded as such by his employees.
- *Vision.* A leader is said to have vision to the extent that he or she proposes a state of affairs that improves on the status quo. He or she also must be able to articulate that vision clearly and show willingness to make sacrifices to make it come true. This is precisely what Lee Iacocca did when he took the \$1 salary during Chrysler’s troubled period. For some further examples of visions stated by some well-known charismatic leaders, see table.
- *Extraordinary Behaviour.* Charismatic leaders are frequently unconventional. Their quick ways, when successful, elicit admiration. For example, much of the success of Southwest Airlines is attributed to the zany antics of its CEO, Herb Kelleher, who has been known to dress in funny costumes aboard planes.
- *Recognized as Change Agents.* The status quo is the enemy of charismatic leaders. They make things happen. This can be said about the late Roberto Goizueta, who made Coca-Cola one of the most admired—and profitable—companies in America.
- *Environmental Sensitivity.* Charismatic leaders are highly realistic about the constraints imposed on them and the resources needed to change things. Consequently, they know what they can and cannot do.

In the 1970s, Chrysler Corporation was being written off as terminal by many analysts of the automobile industry. **Lee Iacocca**, Chrysler’s CEO, however, refused to accept this economic verdict. Instead, he launched a campaign to win government loan guarantees for Chrysler, having the way for the company’s survival. By setting an example of personal sacrifice—taking only \$1 as salary for the year during Chrysler’s crises—Iacocca rallied Chrysler’s tens of thousands of employees to

unheard of levels of effort and, thus saved the day. Chrysler not only paid back all its loans ahead of schedule, but also it is now thriving. World history and the history of organizations are replete with similar examples. Through the ages, some leaders have had extraordinary success in generating profound changes in their followers. Indeed, it is not extreme to suggest that some such people (e.g., Microsoft co-founder Bill Gates and former New York City Mayor Rudolph Giuliani) have changed entire societies through their words and actions. Individuals who accomplish such feats have been referred to as charismatic leaders. These are individuals who exert especially powerful effects on followers by virtue of their commanding confidence and clearly articulated visions.

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The Effect of Charismatic Leadership: Both Good and Bad

As you might imagine, charismatic leaders have dramatic effects on the behaviour of their followers. Because these leaders are perceived as being so heroic, followers are very pleased with them—satisfaction that generalizes to perceptions of the job itself. In short, people enjoy working for charismatic leaders and do well under their guidance. On a larger scale, research has found that U.S. presidents believed to be highly charismatic (as suggested by biographical accounts of their personalities and their reactions to world crises) received higher ratings by historians of their effectiveness as president. In short, evidence suggests that charismatic leadership can have some very beneficial effects.

It is important to caution, however, that being charismatic does not necessarily imply being virtuous. In fact, throughout history, many of the most vicious dictators (Adolph Hitler and Osama Bin Laden, among them) were able to rise to power because of the considerable charisma they had. Indeed, it was their clear visions of different worlds, misguided though they may have been, that led them to have such profound effects on their followers.

Transformational Leadership: Beyond Charisma

Although Charisma is important, the most successful leaders also do things that revitalize and transform their organizations. Accordingly, their orientation is referred to as transformational leadership—leadership in which leaders use their charisma to transform and revitalize their organisations.

Characteristics of Transformational Leaders

Transformational leaders may be described in terms of several characteristic. First they have charisma (provide strong vision and a

sense of mission). For e.g., **Dr. Martin Luther King** had vision of world peace and also executed charisma all along his leadership. But charisma alone is insufficient for changing the way an organisation operates. For this transformational leaders must provide the following:

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- (a) *Intellectual Stimulation.* Transformation leaders help their followers recognised problems and ways of solving them.
- (b) *Individualized Consideration.* Transformational leaders give their followers the support, encouragement and attention they need to perform their jobs well.
- (c) *Inspirational Motivation.* Transformational leaders clearly communicate the importance of the company's mission and rely on symbols to help focus their efforts.

In so doing transformational leaders seek to elevate followers to do their own things. Transformational leaders do a good job of inspiring change in the whole organisation.

The following guidelines:

Guidelines for Becoming a Transformational Leader

Being a transformational leader is not easy. However, by following these suggestions, leaders may transform and revitalize their organisations.

Suggestion	Explanation
Develop a vision that is both clear and highly appealing to followers.	A clear vision guides followers toward achieving organizational goals and makes them feel good about doing so.
Articulate a strategy for bringing your vision to life.	Don't present an elaborate plan. Rather, state the best path toward achieving the mission.
State your vision clearly and promote it to others.	Visions must not only be clear but made compelling, such as by using anecdotes.
Show confidence and optimism about your vision.	If a leader lacks confidence about success, followers will not try very hard to achieve that vision.
Express confidence in follower's capacity to carry out the strategy.	Followers must believe they can implement a leader's vision. Leaders should build follower's self-confidence.

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Build confidence by recognizing small accomplishments toward the goal.	If a group experiences success easily, it will be motivated to continue working hard. (This is based on the concept of positive reinforcement)
Celebrate success and accomplishments.	Formal or informal ceremonies are useful for celebrating success, thereby building optimism and commitment.
Take dramatic action to symbolize key organizational values.	Visions are reinforced by things leaders do to symbolize them. For example, one leader demonstrated concern for quality by destroying work that was not up to standards.
Set an example; actions speak louder than words.	Leaders serve as role models. If they wasn't followers to make sacrifices, for example, they should do so themselves.

SUMMARY

- Leadership is the process where one individual influences other group members towards the attainment of defined group or organisational goals. Leader is an individual within a group or an organization who wields the most influence over others. Leadership influences is goal directed and involves non-coercive influence.
- Management is a process of planning, organizing, coordinating, directing, and controlling the activities of others.
- Managership as mentioned above is the process of influence for the purpose of achieving shared goals.
- A considerate leader would be expected to develop and maintain warm and personal relationships between herself or himself and the followers, and to make sure that the followers themselves get along well.
- All managerial styles invites the participation by subordinates. To make the leadership more pragmatic and relevant the involvement of subordinates is a must.
- The leader's effectiveness, according to the path goal theory, in influencing rewards and expectancies depends on the characteristics of the environment and the characteristics of the subordinates.

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- **Effectiveness** is the foundation and of success—efficiency is a minimum condition after success has been achieved. Efficiency is concerned with doing things right. Effectiveness is doing the right things.

GLOSSARY

- **Leadership:** It is the process where one individual influences other group members towards the attainment of defined group or organisational goals.
- **Path goal theory:** According to the theory, the leader must clarify goals for the subordinates and clear the path for realizing the goals.
- **Delegating:** It is the style which the manager follows in the final stage.
- **Effectiveness:** Effectiveness is doing right things. It is the foundation of success.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define leadership.
2. Explain theories of leadership.
3. Evaluate Trait theory.
4. Describe how to be an effective leader.
5. What are the qualities of charismatic leaders?

UNIT 11 GROUP

NOTES

★ STRUCTURE ★

- 11.1. Learning Objectives
- 11.2. The Nature and Concept of the Group
- 11.3. What is Group?
- 11.4. Why do People Join Groups?
- 11.5. The Effects of Cohesiveness of Group Productivity
- 11.6. Group Decision-Making
- 11.7. Team Building

11.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After learning this unit, you will be able to understand the nature and concepts of group, the effects of cohesiveness of group productivity and team building. A great deal of work performed in organizations is done by people working together in group. You can be also aware that teams can produce impressive results in improving quality, customer service, productivity and bottom line.

11.2 THE NATURE AND CONCEPT OF THE GROUP

The concept of the group is fundamental to understanding the social system. Individuals from social and task groupings to satisfy some basic and powerful needs such as companionship, security, or task achievement. A great deal of work performed in organizations, is done by people working together in groups. This may be due to several variables governing the interrelationships between them and individuals—commonly referred to as group dynamics.

Group dynamics—the social science field focusing on the nature of groups—the factors governing their formation and development, the elements of their structure and their interrelationships with individuals, other groups and organizations.

Group behaviour is not the sum total of the behaviours of all members; it is something more behaviours of all members; it is something more yet something less. The behaviour of each member is modified constrained, and directed into channels approved by the groups.

To understand the dynamics of groups and their influence on individual and organizational functioning, we must begin by raising some basic questions—namely what is a group, types of groups exist, why do people join groups, how do groups come into being?

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Very few of us exist only, for or by ourselves. We are social beings; the basic need is the social need, belonging and being accepted. This need can be satisfied only through social activity, which requires other people.

11.3 WHAT IS A GROUP ?

Social scientists have formally defined a group as a “*collection of two or more interacting individuals with a stable pattern of relationships between them who share common goals and who perceive themselves as being a group*”.

Herbert Theodore defines group as “*the largest set of two or more individuals who are jointly characterized by a network of relevant communications a shared sense of collective identity and one or more shared disposition with associated normative strength*”.

Implicit in this definition is the notion that:

1. The real entity is group and is at the same time abstract.
2. We cannot identify a member of people as a group standard,
3. A group exists with shared sense of collective identity and relationships.

Robins refers to formal and informal groups and defines group as two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent who have come together to achieve particular objectives.

To understand better the definitions we can summarize the four key characteristics of groups.

1. *Social Interaction*—Interaction among members of the group have some influence on each other.
2. *Stability*—Groups must possess a stable structure.
3. *Common Interests or Goals*—Members share common interests or goals. For example, members of a club constitute a group on mutual interests; they try to achieve a common goal.
4. *Recognition as Being a Group*—Finally, to be a group the individuals involved must perceive themselves as a group. Groups are composed of people who recognize each other as a member of their group and can distinguish these individuals from non-members.

By defining groups in term of these four characteristics, we will now review the types of groups within organizations.

Types of Groups

Groups can be either formal or informal. By Formal Groups we mean those defined by the organisational structure and establish task or work groups.

In contrast Informal Groups are neither formally structured nor organisational determined. These groups are natural formation in the work environment that appear in response to the need for social contact.

Groups may be either command group, which is determined in the organisational chart is composed of the subordinates, who report directly to a manager.

Task Group: represent those working together to complete a job task. A Task Group boundaries are not limited to its immediate hierarchical superior. It can cross command relationship. Task Group members are responsible for particular goals or objectives to be achieved.

Interest Groups: are those working together specific objective with which each is concerned.

Groups are sometimes form out of affinity or social objectives. They are called friendship groups.

Informal Groups: provide an important service by satisfying their social needs. Interaction amongst the members achieve certain specific goals or objectives.

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11.4 WHY DO PEOPLE JOIN GROUPS ?

People often join groups to satisfy their mutual interest and goals. Coming to the proximity with others allows us to achieve ends that would not be possible alone. In fact organisation can be thought of as collection of groups that are focussed towards achieving the mutual goal of achieving success for the company.

This is a kind of motivation that people have for joining groups. There are other reasons:

1. Not only do groups form for the purposes of mutually achieving goal. They also form for purpose of seeking protection from other groups. Security is the main aim of the people to join the groups. There are professional association such as American Medical Association, Bar Association etc., for purposes of seeking protection against abuses by management and also for purposes of protecting people in their respective fields.
2. Groups exist because they appeal to a basic psychological need to be social. Human beings are social animals, they have a basic need to interact with others. Groups provide good

opportunities for friendship to develop and hence for social needs to be fulfilled. If a group to which one belongs is successful, the self esteem of all members may be boosted. Group membership provides opportunity for people to be recognised.

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Group Cohesiveness

Effective work groups are cohesive. In this section we want to determine whether the cohesiveness as a group characteristics is desirable.

Meaning of Cohesiveness

Degree to which group members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the group.

According to **H. Theodore** cohesiveness has dimension along which we classify a group as cohesive. Cohesiveness relates to the strength of the inter personal attraction among group members. A highly cohesive group is composed of members who value their associations with the group as a whole, as well as with other group members. In low degree of cohesiveness members are not dedicated to the group and each purposes.

What makes a Group Cohesive?

Factors that influence degree of cohesiveness are stated below:

1. *Time Spend Together.* If you really get an opportunity to see or interact with other people, you are unlikely to be attracted to them. The amount of time people spend together influence cohesiveness. If they spend more time together, they become more friendly. This opportunity is available, when group members are in proximity,
2. *Severity of Initiation.* The competition to be accepted into a good institution(for e.g., medical school) that are highly cohesive, the initiation become so severe that entrance create or contribute to this cohesiveness.
3. *Group Size.* The size of the group tends to create cohesiveness because of greater interaction with the members and the total ability of the group increases.
4. *External Threats.* Most of the research support the proposition that a group cohesiveness will increase if the group comes under attack from internal sources. This is the cooperative spirit of the groups that can be developed, if there is cohesiveness.
5. There are other points which can be mentioned in regard to this cohesiveness.
 - (i) *Homogeneity.* The more alike the group members are the more likely they will be to see each other as similar to

themselves. And the easier it is to identify with the others. Such perceived similarity can create a strong basis for mutual attraction.

- (ii) *Communication.* We pointed out earlier that a requirement for a group to exist is opportunity to communicate. The more group members are able to communicate (interact) the stronger the sentiments and greater the interpersonal attractions among the members.
- (iii) *Status of the Group.* Individuals in high status groups display greater cohesiveness. Membership in such a group is more highly valued than membership of a group. That is widely held in contempt.

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11.5 THE EFFECTS OF COHESIVENESS OF GROUP PRODUCTIVITY

Generally speaking group cohesiveness is increased when members spend time together and undergo a severe initiation, when the group size is small and predominantly female, when external threats exist and when the group has a history of previous successes. The group cohesiveness is related to increase productivity. Because cohesive groups are more effective than those with less cohesiveness. High cohesiveness is both a cause and an outcome of high productivity. Secondly the relationship is moderated by performance—related norms. Cohesiveness influences productivity and productivity influences cohesiveness.

11.6 GROUP DECISION-MAKING

Many decisions in organizations are made by groups, teams or committee. In this section, we review group decision-making.

Group decision-making may be widely used in organization. Are these decisions preferable to those made by an individual alone? The answer to this question depends on a number of factors.

Group decisions have their strength but subject to situation. The following are the advantages:

1. More complete information and knowledge. Members of the group bring more input into the decisions process.
2. *Increased Diversity of Views.* This opens up the opportunity for more approaches and alternatives to be considered.
3. *Increased Acceptance of a Solution.* People participate in group discussion and get at the consensus. They will be more likely to accept if and encourage others to accept it.

4. *Increased Legitimacy.* The group decision making process is consistent with democratic methods, and ideals. Therefore may be perceived as being more legitimate than decisions made by a single man.

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There are certain disadvantages in the group decision making—It takes time to assemble a group. The result is time consuming. There are social pressures in groups. Group discussion can be dominated by one or a few members. Responsibility is not fixed on any individual.

Effectiveness and Efficiency. Both the terms are not same. Effectiveness is the result of efficiency (doing the things in a right way). In terms of accuracy or effectiveness, group decisions tend to be more accurate. On the average, groups make quality decisions than individuals. Though in terms of speed, individual decisions are superior, yet groups tend to be more effective and creative than individuals in case of decision making.

Groups offer an excellent vehicle for reforming many of the steps in the decision making process. Groups consist of individuals who come from different backgrounds, culture, knowledge etc. So it is very much possible to develop alternatives and select the particular course of action.

Group think when a group functions well, its result may be of high quality; free exchange of information among high-ability members.

Commitment to the task and diversity of viewpoints help action good results. Yet many different factors seem to conspire against the group. Members with high status, ability and experience may be more forceful, imposing their ideas on others and inhibiting free exchange.

What has been termed the risky shift phenomenon also operates to affect the nature of the group decision. Group decisions have been formed to be more rescues than the decisions made individually by the members of the group.

Janis adopted the term groupthink (from George Orwell's Nov 1984) for a kind of consensus—seeking process that goes on in a cohesive group. Seeking consensus between an end in itself.

Under group think conditions a member of immediate consequences may be noticed. They are the products of poor group decision-making practices:

1. Discussion is limited to only a few alternatives no attempt is made to determine all feasible choices.
2. A course of action, originally preferred but later rejected because of risks and drawback, is discarded rather than reexamined.
3. Little or no time is spend, trying to find ways to overcome the problems that have made rejected, alternatives seem undesirable.

4. Interest is shown only for those facts and opinions that support the consensus; contradictory or non-supportive facts and opinions are ignored.
5. No contingency plans are developed by which to cope with foreseeable difficulties that could endanger the success of the group's chosen course.

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To overcome group think tendencies, Janis recommends practices he found to be used in two successful group activities—the formulation of Marshall's handling of the Cuban missile crises.

1. The leader should formally assign each member responsibility for critical evaluation and encourage the airing of objectives and doubts.
2. An impartial noncommittal stance should be adopted; in these ways, group members are encouraged to explore and evaluate all of the feasible options fully.
3. Before final consensus is reached, each member should be required to discuss the group's deliberations with the other members of the organization and to report back her or his reactions.
4. Outside experts should be brought to the meetings to challenge and expand the views of the group members.
5. Before a final commitment is made to one alternative a careful review should be made to revive all doubts and rethink the entire problem.

So far we have discussed two-products of group decision making—Group think which is related to norms (oversides the realistic appraisal of alternative courses of action).

The second phenomenon which is called group shift, indicates a change in decision risk between the group's decision and individual decision can be either towards conservation or greater risk.

In comparing group decisions with individual decisions of members within the group, there are differences. In some cases, the group decisions are more conservative than the individual decisions. More often, the shift is towards greater risk. The groupshift can be viewed as a special case of group think.

Techniques of Group Decision-Making

1. Common form of group decisions making is face-to-face interacting groups.
2. *Brainstorming*. An idea generation process that specifically encourages any and all alternatives while withholding any criticism of those alternatives. In a typical brainstorming session, the group leader states the problem in a clear manner. Participants/

members suggest alternatives that are discussed and analyzed. Out of the several alternatives, selection of a course of action is made in the decision making process.

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Normal Group Technique. Restricts discussion or interpersonal communication during the decision making process hence the term nominal.

Delphi Technique. A group decision method in which individual members, acting separately pool their judgements in a systematic and independent fashion.

It does not require the physical presence of the group's members. This technique of group decision can be applied through designed questionnaires. Each member unanimously and independently completes the questionnaire. Results are compiled at a central location and announced.

Delphi technique can be used for decision making among geographically scattered groups.

11.7 TEAM BUILDING

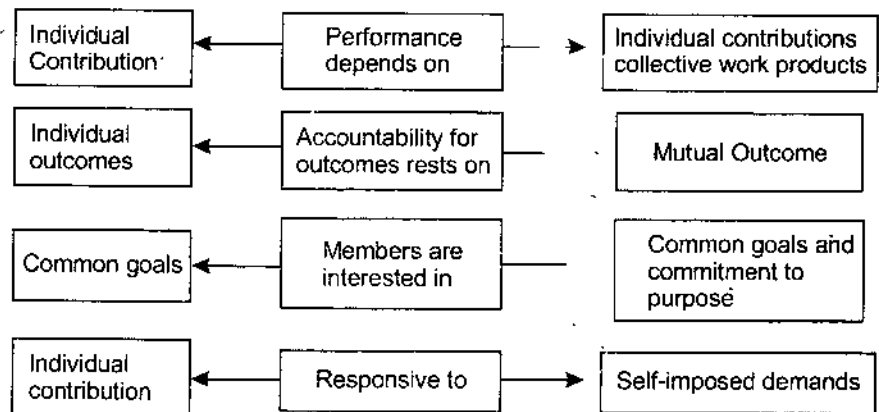
Effective Team Building

"A team is defined as two or more people who interact and influence each other towards a common purpose". Traditionally two types of teams have existed in organizations; formal and informal. Today however, teams exist that have the characteristics of both.

"A team may be defined as a group whose members have complementary skills and are committed to a common purpose or set of performance goal for which they hold themselves neutrally accountable".

Group vs Team—A Comparison.

Groups may be distinguished from team in terms of the various characteristics—



1. Performance depends on the work of individual members. Performance (Groups) of a team depends on both individual contributions and collective work products—the going outcome of team members working in consort.
2. Group members usually do not take responsibility for any results, other than their own teams focus as both individual and mutual accountability—*i.e.*, they work together towards outcome.
3. Group members are interested in common goals—Team members also share a common commitment to purpose.
4. Teams differ from groups with respect to the nature of their connections to management. *Work groups are typically required to be responsive to demands regularly placed on them by management. Teams are generally self-managing—free to set their own goals.*

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There are many different kinds of team namely command team (a manager and employees) committee (formal organizational team created) taskforce or project team—(a temporary team formed to address a specific problem).

Some groups today have characteristics of both formal and informal teams. Super teams or high performance team (groups of 3 to 30 workers from different areas of corporation). Others are reference group and self-managed teams.

Team Building—Creating Team

Building and creating a team is not easy so combination of skilled willing people is the precondition of team building. It involves four *precondition of team building*. It involves four distinct stages:

B.N. Tuokman suggested five stages—Forming, Storming, Norming, Performing, Adjourning.

1. *Forming*. During the initial stage, the group forms and learns what sort of behaviour is acceptable to the group. Before teams are created a decision has to be made about whether or not a team should be formed—a stage known as pre-work. Certain things are to be considered namely what works need to be done are to be done objectives to be established.
2. *Storming*. As individual has desire to assert his personality, he would oppose the formation of a group. Further, it is also desirable to know the performance conditions— proper resources needed to carry out its work; (both financial and physical resources).
3. *Norming*. At this time, the conflicts that arose in the previous stage are addressed and hopefully resolved. Group utility emerges as members establish common goals, norms, and ground rules. Members begin to voice personal opinions and develop close relationships.

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4. *Performing*. At this stage, the group begins to operate as a unit. The structure of the group, new supports and cases group dynamics and performance.
5. *Adjourning*. For temporary groups such as task forces, the focus of the group shifts from high task performance to closure. Tuckman does not suggest that all groups adhere strictly to such a framework.

Lastly for building a team (i) Managers should form boundaries, clearly establish who is and who is not a member of the team.

(ii) The members must accept the team norms—expectations about how they and the other members will behave. Norms are the methods of enforcing conformity. The measures of non-conformance are sarcasm, criticism, ostracism and such physical harassment.

(iii) Organizational officials should clarify the teams mission and responsibilities.

(iv) Once a team is functioning, supervisors may be needed to help the team to eliminate problems and perform later. The solidarity or cohesiveness of a team is an important indicator of how much influence the group has over its individual members. *“Team cohesiveness is critical in helping the individual feel good about his or her contribution to the effort”*.

It is no gain saying the fact managerial skill and hard work is required to create and manage teams effectively. Now-a-days we are led to believe that teams can produce impressive results in improving quality, customer service, productivity and the bottom line.

SUMMARY

- Social scientists have formally defined a group as a collection of two or more interacting individuals with a stable pattern of relationships between them who share common goals and who perceive themselves as being a group.
- People often join groups to satisfy their mutual interest and goals.
- Effectiveness is the result of efficiency (doing the things in a right way).
- Groups offer an excellent vehicle for reforming many of the steps in the decision making process. Groups consist of individuals who come from different backgrounds, culture, knowledge etc. So it is very much possible to develop alternatives and select the particular course of action.

- A team is defined as two or more people who interact and influence each other towards a common purpose.

GLOSSARY

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- **Group:** A group is defined as a collection of two or more interacting individuals with a stable pattern of relationships between them who share common goals and who perceive themselves as being a group.
- **Cohesiveness:** It is the degree to which group members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the group.
- **Delphi Technique:** A group decision method in which individual members, acting separately pool their judgements in a systematic and in dependent fashion, is named as Delphi Technique.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain the nature and concept of the group.
2. Why do people join groups?
3. What makes a Group Cohesive?
4. What are the techniques of Group Decision-Making?

UNIT 12 CONFLICT

NOTES

★ STRUCTURE ★

- 12.1. Learning Objectives
- 12.2. Nature of Conflict
- 12.3. Conflict Due to Frustration
- 12.4. Role Conflict and Ambiguity

12.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you can discuss about the nature of conflict, conflict due to frustration, role conflict and ambiguity. You will understand that productivity suffers as long as conflict remains unsolved

12.2 NATURE OF CONFLICT

Conflict arises from disagreement over the goals to attend all the method to use to accomplish them. In organisations conflict among different interest is inevitable and sometimes the amount of conflict is substantial.

Writer **D.H.Stamatis** in his book describe the nature of conflict: Conflict occurs when two or more parties in an organization have to interact to accomplish a task, make a decision, meet an objective, or solve a problem and the party's interest class. Secondly one party's actions cause negative reaction of the others and also parties who are unable to resolve controversy among themselves.

Productivity suffers as long as conflict remains unsolved. The party's in conflict influence co-workers, who begin to take sides or withdraw with the situations. In the end conflict adversely affects not only productivity but also working relationship.

These two definitions are different from each other and share a common buyer: That conflict is an able and has a negative impact on individuals and organisations. On the other hand there are two kinds of conflicts. Conflict that cost very little and that which cost a great deal. Both cause disruption in an organisation and loss of productivity. Low cost conflict in contrast may be considered constructive controversy and out of such controversy new ideas and improvement arise.

Fred luthans describe the nature of conflict as interactive behaviour that can occur and the individual, personal, group or organizational labour. It often results in conflict at each of this levels. Although such conflict as intra individual conflict is very closely related to stress.

According to him conflict has been defined as the condition of inconsistencies between values or goals. Because deliberate behaviour coming in the way of goal achievement and in terms of hostility. Further conflict behaviour in terms of objective conflict of interest, personals styles, reaction to threats and cognitive distortions.

These intra individual conflicts steams from frustration, goal displacement and roles ambiguity. These conflicts are examining from the prospective of transitional analysis and the Johari Window.

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12.3 CONFLICT DUE TO FRUSTRATION

Frustration occurs when a motivated drive is blocked before reaching a desired goal. The following figure illustrates what happened. The barriers may be either overt (outward or physical) or covert (inward or mental socio psychological). Frustration normally triggers defence mechanism in the person.

Aggression has come to be viewed as only one possible reaction.

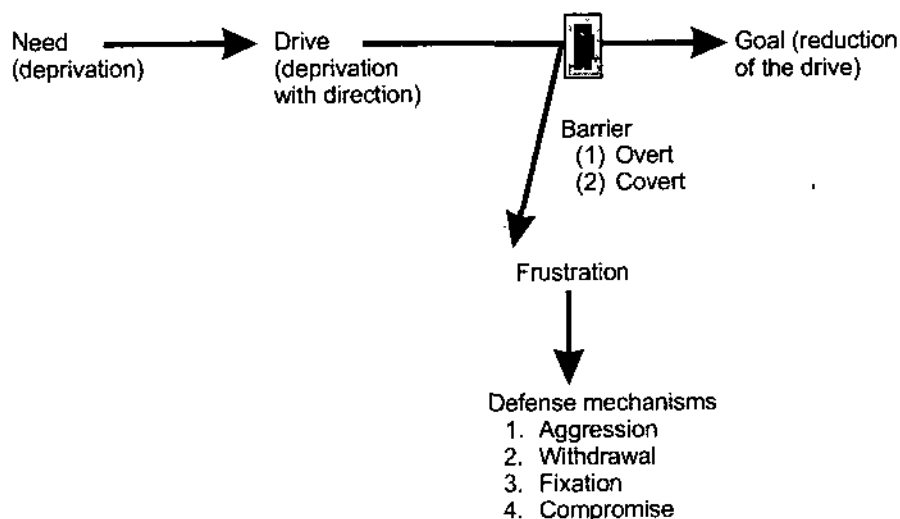


Fig. A simple model of frustration

There are four broad category of mechanism: Aggression, withdrawal, fixation and compromise. One example reveals that a frustrated person from the low educational background has intense need for pride and dignity might have frustration, if his needs are not fulfilled the drive

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set up to alleviate the need and accomplish the goal would throw a person in a feet of frustration.

In most of the cases frustration leave a positive impact on individual performance and organisational goal.

Goal Conflict—Another common source of conflict for an individual is a goal which has both positive and negative feature or two or more competing the goal. But in frustration a single motive is brought before the goal is reached. In goal conflict two or more motives brought one another. There are three separate types of goal conflict:

1. *Approach-approach Conflict*. Where the individuals are motivated to approach two or more positive but mutually exclusive goals.
2. *Approach-avoidance Conflict*. Where the individual is motivated to approach a goal and at the same time is motivated to avoid it. The single goal contains both positive and negative characteristics for the individual.
3. *Avoidance-avoidance Conflict*. Where the individual is motivated to avoid two or more negative but mutually exclusive goals.

To varying degrees, each of these forms of goal conflict exists in the modern organization.

12.4 ROLE CONFLICT AND AMBIGUITY

Role Conflict and Ambiguity is closely related to the concept of norms. Role is defined as a position that has expectation evolving from establish norm. Most of the Role Conflict in an organization steam from expectation and demands of the person in the position. Generally we come across Role Conflict and Ambiguity in the position of a supervisor. His role is both a part of the management and one set of expectation of the role. This set of expectation is exclusively based on his values and attitude but as a supervisor, he is to keep link between management and workforce. Conflict arises because of this dual position, he holds in the organizational setting.

Role Conflict: The LESSER of Two Evils

Filly and **House** conclude after an extensive review of the research on organisational role conflict that it has undesirable consequences but may be the lesser of two evils. This conflict could easily be resolved by granting the final decision making authority. Filly and House also report that research indicates the extent of the undesirable effects from role conflict depends upon four measure variables:

1. Awareness of role conflicts
2. Awareness of conflicting job pressures

3. Ability to tolerate stress
4. General personality make up.

Conflict Resolution

Robert Blake and Jane Mouton have defined five methods of handling conflicts: avoidance, accommodation, competition, compromise, and collaboration.

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- Avoidance is withdrawal from the conflict or failure to take a position on it. The employees involved make no attempt to understand or correct the cause of the conflict. The human resources manager, when asked to help resolve it, denies its existence.
- In accommodation, employees overlook their own concerns and allow the other employees involved in the conflict to obtain what is important to them. Differences are downplayed in the attempt to reach an agreement. The accommodating HR manager, concerned with a quick fix for the problem, rolls the issues together and decides what will be the best, most quickly achievable solution.
- In the competitive mode, a simple "win-lose" mentality prevails. Each employee strives to obtain his or her objectives, to win even at the expense of the other employee(s). The competitive HR manager called in to resolve a conflict, chosen an employee he or she believes should win and works to achieve a "victory" for that employee.
- Employees using the compromise method are willing to give up part of their own objectives in order to resolve the conflict. Compromising HR managers obtain concessions from each employee and guide the negotiations until a settlement is reached. This settlement may not fully satisfy either employee, but both agree that it is the best resolution for the conflict.
- During collaboration, a mutual problem is resolved. Each employee accepts the others' objectives and they work together to achieve the best outcome for both. During the collaboration process, trust and openness are required because attempts are made to identify and resolve concerns underlying the conflict. Trust and openness, in turn, are increased through the process. The HR manager involved in a collaboration works along with the employees to find the best possible solution.
- Before selecting a method of resolving a particular conflict, the HR manager must consider the nature of the conflict and the likely consequences of the solution.

- Again, keep in mind that successful conflict resolution always benefits the organization. In general, collaboration and accommodation are desirable methods because they promote employee cooperation and harmony.

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But because such methods may be time-consuming and may produce results that are not entirely satisfying to any of the employees involved, these methods are inappropriate in some cases.

Like “confrontation” is a word with a bad reputation. It conjures up image of one person shouting at another telling another person that “this is the last straw” and stomping away. But confrontation is also a learned, step-by-step process or sequence of events that is used by two parties who are in conflict and who are trying to resolve their differences. Certain conditions contribute to the success of a confrontation:

- At least one of the parties (or third party) is aware that a conflict exists.
- One of the parties is willing to start the confrontation process.
- Both parties are willing to use a clearly defined confrontation process and problem-solving framework (*i.e.*, collaboration, compromise, *etc.*).
- Both parties expect, or at least hope, that this process will resolve their differences.

The process of confronting a conflict involves six major steps.

Step 1: Awareness. During the awareness step an individual or group (Party ‘A’) recognizes that a conflict exists between that individual or group and another party (Party “B”). (Party “A” recognizes a conflict with Party “B”).

Step 2: The Decision to Confront. Party “A” decides the conflict is important enough to warrant a confrontation with Party “B” and that such a confrontation is preferable to avoid the concern.

Step 3: The Confrontation. Party “A” decides to use the collaboration or comprise model and confronts Party “B”. At this point, Party “B” may indicate a willingness to accept the confrontation, or may attempt to deny the existence of the conflict or reduce its seriousness. Often, the conflict is resolved in this step. If not, both parties must proceed to Step 4.

Step 4: Determining the Cause of the Conflict. The confrontation is most likely to succeed if parties “A” and “B” are specific about their grievances. The parties should try to describe their own feelings, opinions, reactions, and fears in relation to the conflict. A key objective of this step is determining the cause of the conflict. If the two parties cannot agree on the cause of the conflict, then the confrontation has failed.

Step 5: Determining the Outcome and Further Steps. Upto this point, both parties have been involved in defining the problem and sharing information. In Step 5 the parties attempt to devise specific means of reducing or eliminating the cause of the conflict. If both parties agree on a solution, then the confrontation has been successful.

Step 6: Follow-through. After the solution has been implemented, both parties should plan regular checks at specific times in the future to ensure that their agreements are being kept.

A successful confrontation can have many positive outcomes for the parties involved and the larger organization: a good solution to a problem, increased work productivity, a raised level of commitment to decisions by both parties, a willingness to take greater risks in the future, and a more open and trusting relationship between the parties.

The collaboration process as well as the methods of conflict resolution described above, is primarily for use in solving conflicts between individuals or small groups. But conflicts also arise between much larger organizations; such conflicts, in fact, are quite common in today's economy. (Labour disputes are a typical example.)

There are two basic strategies for resolving conflicts between large organizations. In both approaches a neutral third party acts as a mediator for the parties in conflict. In the first approach, an "interpersonal facilitator" plays this role. He or she meets not with the conflicting groups, but with an individual representative from each. These representatives do not deal directly with each other, but communicate through the facilitator. The facilitator plays an active role in the resolution process by identifying areas of agreement as well as disagreement between the groups and guiding the representatives toward an acceptable solution. The interpersonal facilitator's functions include:

- *Building Anticipation.* Before holding any meetings with both representatives, the facilitator meets with each individually to prepare him or her to meet the opponent. Each representative is encouraged to be open-minded, positive, and constructive.
- *Controlling Discussions.* During meetings, the facilitator controls and directs the discussions and maintains order.
- *Reversing Antagonists' Roles.* The facilitator helps each group's representatives to express their anger and frustration in a constructive way, so tensions and tempers are defused.
- *Transmitting Information.* Often the facilitator acts as the "go-between" for the two representatives, passing information between them to prevent the resolution process from breaking down.

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- *Formulating Proposals.* With the information obtained from the two representatives, the facilitator drafts possible solutions and presents them to the representatives.

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The second strategy is called the “interface conflict-solving” approach. In this approach, the group members attend meetings and are actively involved in the process, and disputants deal with each other directly. In this strategy, as in the first a neutral person helps the groups through a programme of steps that help them identify and resolve their differences. In this approach, however, this neutral third party plays a less active role. Instead, it is the representatives of the conflicting groups, called the facilitators, who lead the meetings and guide the groups toward as resolution. The functions of these facilitators include:

Exhibit 1: Selecting a Conflict-Resolution Approach

Use the Interpersonal Facilitator Approach When:	Use the Interface Conflict-Solving Approach When:
Only representatives of the organizations, and not organization members, are meeting.	Presence of group members at meeting will strengthen implementation of any change
Personal chemistry blocks direct discussions between the principals.	Personal chemistry problems are not sufficient to prevent cooperation between group leaders.
Group members will not reject their representatives for agreeing to change or compromise.	Group members will not allow their leaders to agree to change or compromise without their say-so.
The representatives understand the depth and scope of the problem.	The leaders do not understand the depth and scope of the problem.
The change can be implemented successfully without group member’s agreement about its soundness.	Successful implementation of the change requires that the group agree to its soundness.
A deadline is near and quick decisions, even though imperfect, necessary to prevent a total breakdown.	Sufficient time is available to develop the best possible solutions.
A multiplicity of views exists within each group and members are not unified.	Each group’s members are united in their stances.

- *Setting Expectations.* The facilitators describe the objectives and activities involved in each step of the programme to their respective groups’ members.

- *Establishing Round Rules for the General Sessions.*
- *Determining Sequence.* The facilitators establish the sequence of speakers within their groups to maintain order during meetings.
- *Monitoring for Candor.* They encourage openness and participation by group members.
- *Curbing Open Expression of Hostile Attitudes between Groups.* The facilitators sometimes have to intervene to let their own groups' participants know they are breaking the ground rules.
- *Avoiding Evaluation.* The facilitators direct but do not evaluate the progress or quality of the groups' efforts by resolving the conflict.
- *Introducing Procedures to Reduce Disagreements.* When the groups reach an impasse, the facilitators should suggest way to break the deadlock.
- *Ensuring Understanding.* When members of a group have finished speaking, its facilitator should make sure the other group's questions have been answered satisfactorily.
- *Following Up.* After a solution has been achieved, the facilitator should arrange follow-up meetings to ensure that the changes have been implemented.

Exhibit 1 contrasts the circumstances when the interpersonal facilitator approach and the interface conflict-solving approach are most appropriate.

Conflicts, an inevitable part of life in the workplace, are generally regarded as a negative force that creates tension, lowers productivity, and disrupts employee relationships. As a result, human resources managers, who are frequently called upon to resolve employee conflicts, often regard them with dread. But for the human resources manager who learns to resolve them skillfully, conflicts can become, instead, welcome opportunities to improve and benefit the workplace.

Transactional Analysis

Eric Berne and Games People Play

Following Alfred Adler in several ways, **Eric Berne**, a psychiatrist from San Francisco, also was rejected by traditional psychoanalysts; when he applied for membership in a psychoanalytical society he was not accepted. His revenge was inventing transactional analysis, or TA. Berne had his own weekly meeting (on Tuesday) or TA analysts which began at 8:30 in the evening (if you rang the bell at 8:20 according to one of his colleagues, the door remained shut) and finished at 10:00.

The experience of psychoanalysts seems to suggest that people function best in small groups of dedicated individuals. When the group members,

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who usually go through some form of baptism to gain admission, know enough, they go elsewhere to spread the word. This is good for the populace, who get a choice in terms of therapies, but bad for prophets and psychoanalysts.

Transactional analysis is a system of individual and social psychiatry which is concerned with the psychology of human relationships. In Games People play Berne describes 36 scripts people have devised to govern their transactions—the rules they play by. A typical game is “Courtroom”, in which the husband says to a third person something like, “What do you think she has done now? She did.....” And the innocent bystander pleads neutrality as the wife opens up with “This is the way it really was.....”

In presenting the idea that people tend to spin out their lives by engaging in certain games, Berne strips the surface innocence of conventional relations and reveals what is simmering just below the surface in most human encounters. His penetrating and stimulating analysis takes as its starting point the idea of stimulus hunger—which he summarizes by noting, “If you are not stroked, your spinal cord will shrivel up,” He uses this term, stroke, to describe a social stimulus such as “Hello,” and defines a transaction as an exchange of strokes.

The Repertoire of Ego States: The Parent, The Adult, The Child

To explain games, Berne makes use of the idea that each individual has a limited repertoire of ego states. There are three kinds of principal:

1. Ego states similar to those of the parental figure.
2. Ego states which are concerned with the objective appraisal of reality.
3. Ego states which are fixated in early childhood.

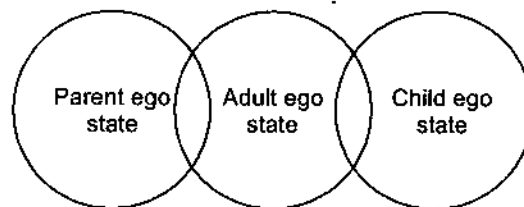


Fig. Berne's repertoire of ego states

In talking about the Child ego state, Berne is careful to avoid the words childish and immature. In the Child are to be found intuition, creativity, and spontaneous drive and enjoyment. The Adult is essential for survival because of its reality-testing function, which enables it to process and analyze data and compute probabilities. The Parent has two functions: It enables an individual to assume the role of

parent, and it automates many decisions. According to Berne, these three aspects of personality are necessary for survival.

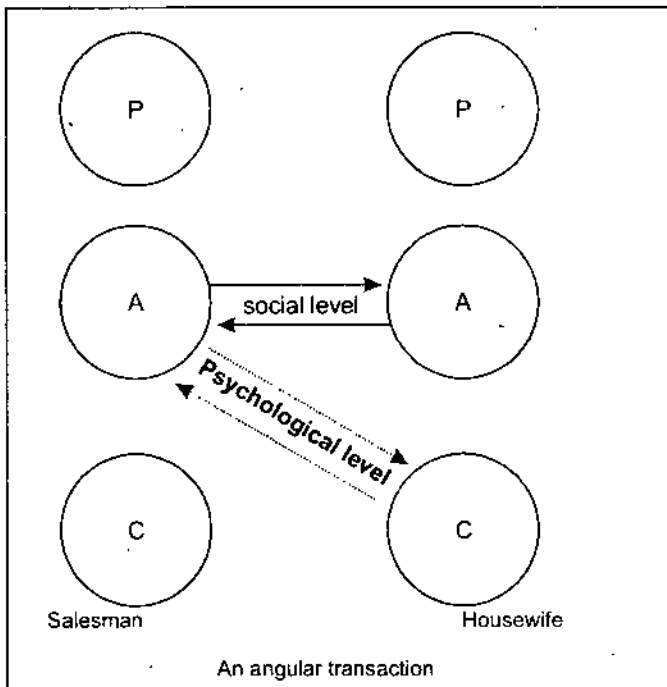
Sales people are professional games players, as the following example provided by Berne illustrates:

Salesman: This one is better, but you cannot afford it.

Housewife: That is the one I'll take.

Analysis of this transaction is shown in figure. At the conscious, ostensible, social level, the salesman (Adult ego) is stating two objective facts: "This one is better" and "You cannot afford it." At the Adult level, the housewife should reply, "Right, both times." However, an ulterior or psychological vector was aimed at the housewife's Child. The validity of the salesman's judgement is vindicated by the Child's response, which in effects is "Irrespective of cost, I'll show you that I'm as good as anybody."

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Berne's theory of games has considerable relevance for the student of organisational behaviour. For a start, Berne's idea of stroking certainly has relevance to the way in which salutations are exchanged by executives.

Although Berne's theory lacks theoretical consistency and has no considerable body of empirical data to lend it's validity, it has considerable pragmatic relevance. A psychiatrist who refers a troubled patient to the works of Freud, Jung, or Adler runs the risk of adding mental confusion to the patient's other problems, but a copy of Games People Play may give the patient a valuable insight into her or his own personality dynamics. As a tool for analyzing organizational behaviour, it has considerable potential, to say nothing of the fun it is to use.

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Dr. Thomas A. Harris, a psychiatrist, developed Berne's ideas into a teaching and learning device which is of great interest to executives because of its simplicity and ease of understanding and the extent of its application to organizational problems. The device is transactional analysis (TA), the central thesis of which is that most people suffer from a vague sense of inferiority (they feel that they're "not OK").

Differing balances among these ego states result in four basic life positions:

1. I'm not OK—you're OK (the anxious, dependent position).
2. I'm not OK—you're not OK (the "give-up position).
3. I'm OK—you're not OK (the thug position).
4. I'm OK—you're OK (the balanced, Adult position).

Transactional analysis can be taught to executives and other employees—and in spite of its simplifications, it is useful. For example, in the American Airlines training school for flight attendants, trainees spend a fair amount of time learning about ego states. On the basis of the Berne gospel that people are divided into three types—the Parent, domineering and scolding; the Adult, reasoning and reasonable with; and the Child, creative and innovative but also likely to throw a tantrum or to sulk—the trainees are encouraged to covertly categorize their passengers and react accordingly. Having been introduced to the mysteries of Berne and Harris, they move on to learn TACT—transactional analysis and customer treatment.

SUMMARY

- Avoidance is withdrawal from the conflict or failure to take a position on it. The employees involved make no attempt to understand or correct the cause of the conflict.
- A successful confrontation can have many positive outcomes for the parties involved and the larger organization: a good solution to a problem, increased work productivity, a raised level of commitment to decisions by both parties, a willingness to take greater risks in the future, and a more open and trusting relationship between the parties.
- The facilitator plays an active role in the resolution process by identifying areas of agreement as well as disagreement between the groups and guiding the representatives toward an acceptable solution.

GLOSSARY

- **Conflict:** It is defined as the condition of inconsistencies between values or goals.
- **Role:** Role is defined as a position that has expectation evolving from establish norm.
- **Transactional Analysis:** It is a system of individual and social psychiatry which is concerned with the psychology of human relationships.

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REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Give a brief description about conflict.
2. How to handle conflicts? Explain.
3. What are the conditions which contribute to the success of confrontation?

UNIT 13 DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL DESIGN

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★ STRUCTURE ★

- 13.1. Learning Objectives
- 13.2. Introduction
- 13.3. Implications for Managers
- 13.4. Significance of Power and Politics in Organizations
- 13.5. Structural Determinants of Organisational Power
- 13.6. Power Imbalances: Sources of Organizational Conflicts
- 13.7. Managing Organizational Conflicts: A Contingency Perspective
- 13.8. A Comparison among the Three Modes of Resolving Inter-group Conflict
- 13.9. Role of Power in Organization

13.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to understand the implications for managers, significance of power and politics in organizations, symbols of organizational power and power imbalances. You can also compare the three modes of resolving inter-group conflict. And you will come to know what behaviours constitute power-play.

13.2 INTRODUCTION

In the following section we will consider some of the given salient determining factors.

A. Environment

One of the most obvious determinants of organizational design is, of course environment in which the organization operates. The external environment subject the organization to a complex set of forces. The environmental influences organization are diverse in nature and include the competitors, suppliers consumers, trade unions, technological breakthroughs, governmental regulation etc. These affect the organization both directly and indirectly. The entry competitor in the market would

directly affect the organization, while it may be indirectly influenced by the changes in the socio-political environment. For example, the reunification of Germany and the opening of the European market in the 1990's created new opportunities for exports for many Indian companies.

The open systems view of the organization (Katz and Kahn, 1978) is that the effectiveness of the organization would largely depend on its ability to develop mechanisms for coping with these environmental influences. Organizations sometimes deal with such environmental demands through non-structural means, such as advertising, public relations or changes in organizational goals. Often, however, the coping strategies are structural in nature and result in changes in the organizational design. For example, in the 1980s, Eicher Goodearth reorganized their operations and the manufacturing setup, to cope with increasing competition (Skaria, 1991). The three plants of the company, which were all making tractors earlier, were converted into specialized plants manufacturing tractors, gears, and engines, respectively. In general, the studies on organization-environment interface (Stalker, 1961; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967) suggest a relationship between the amount of environmental uncertainty and the extent of flexibility in the organizational design. For example, industries dealing with products related to the fast changing areas of society (e.g., computers, fashion garments, advertising, etc.) tend to develop more flexible structures to cope with the changing environmental demands. On the other hand, industries in the traditional core sector (e.g., steel, coal, fertilizers, etc.) exist in a relatively stable environment, and, therefore, are more likely to have an inflexible (and often rigid) organizational design.

B. Objective/Mission

The objective or mission of the organization is a critical factor which influences its design. In a way, the organization's objectives determine which particular segment of the environment it is prepared to interact with. For example, a polyclinic housing specialist doctors may pursue the objective of providing highly personalized total health-care to its clientele. This objective automatically implies greater amount of attention to the patient (and not just to his symptoms), more coordination and communication among specialists, and greater informality. On the other hand, a hospital following the objective of providing basic health-care to a large population at minimal cost would need to be designed so as to allow a high and quick turnover of patients. To achieve this, the hospital may introduce formal routines to ensure the operating efficiency. It may also break up the total job into a number of smaller routine jobs (e.g., the specialist doctor may recommend an injection, but it would be administered by the nurse, so that the doctor's time is saved).

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A clear statement and understanding of an organisation's mission or objective has a critical influence on its functioning.

C. Strategy

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While the objective mission of the organization defines what the organization wishes to do, the strategy focuses on the manner in which it will go about accomplishing it. **Chandler** (1973) defined strategy as the determination of the basic long term goals and objectives of an enterprise, and adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals. Decisions to expand the volume of activities, to set up different plants and offices, to move into new economic functions, or to become diversified along many lines of business involve the definition of new basic goals.

Based on his studies of different organisations, Chandler also concluded that structure follows strategy, that is, the structure or design of an organization is determined by its choice of strategy. For instance, in 1993, the strategy adopted by Voltas to pull out of trading in favour of manufacturing, led to a restructuring of its thirteen divisions, and the formation of its three strategic business units. Many other studies (e.g., Channon, 1972; Dyas and Thanheiser, 1976) have also supported Chandler's contention.

One must note that strategy formulation involves an act of choice regarding how the organization intends to deal with the environmental opportunities and threats. One obvious way it would adopt would be to develop appropriate structural mechanisms. For example, in responding to increased competition in the business environment, an organization has a choice between two strategic courses of action: (1) it can diversify into different product markets, so as to spread out its risks, or (2) it can concentrate and protect its market niche, and try to counter competition by decreasing its overall operating costs. Clearly, the first strategic option will necessitate development of a complex and decentralised structure, while to implement the second option, the organization will have to create a structure with tighter controls and greater accountability of roles.

D. Technology

Another important influence on organizational design comes from the nature of technology used for transforming the environmental inputs into organizational outputs. Some theorists (e.g., Newman, 1971) have defined technology as an intervening variable between the strategy and organizational design.

We cannot jump directly from strategy to management design because we have not yet classified the array of actions that will be necessary to execute the strategy. Thinking of technology helps us to elaborate

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the work implications of strategy. Sufficient research evidence exists to support the technological imperative hypothesis (e.g., Woodward, 1965; Harvey, 1968; Perrow, 1967, etc.). The essential logic of these research findings is that since different technologies (mass-production; batch-processing, craft, etc.) call for different kinds of control systems, they give rise to different structural mechanisms.

There is, however, considerable confusion regarding the definition of the term "technology". Technology, as a term, is normally used to describe the manufacturing process. But then, what about service organisations (e.g., hospitals, advertising firms, banks, etc.)? Moreover, different researchers have defined technology in different ways, often making it difficult, if not impossible, to integrate the research findings.

One way of getting over this confusion is to understand technology as the process used by the organization for transforming the inputs into outputs. The input can be raw materials, capital, labour or information, while the output can be a product or a service. Defined in this manner, technology refers to, in Newman's words, the "work to be done". Thus, for example, if the organization is using a customised technology (e.g., as in an advertising agency, a construction firm, or a tailoring shop, etc.), there is a greater need for integration and coordination of the marketing, designing and manufacturing functions. This would necessitate the development of a loose and flexible matrix structure. On the other hand, an organization aiming to offer a standardised product or service in large quantity (whether railway transport or cigarettes) would need to standardize its operations, and so, is likely to evolve a formalised structure.

E. People and Culture

It would be too naive to assume that any specific organizational structure (whether it is centralised or decentralised, formalised or flexible, tall or flat, etc.) is an automatic and inevitable consequence of its environment, objectives, strategy, and technology. A more realistic perspective would recognise that any organizational structure is an outcome of a managerial decision-making process. After all, somebody (a person or a group) has to decide as to, what particular structure is most appropriate for the organization in a given situation. It is, therefore, but natural that the personal preferences, needs, aspirations and anxieties of these people would play a dominant role in the development of the specific organizational design.

One person, who has a decisive influence on the choice of organizational design is, of course, the CEO (or the departmental/divisional head, in the case of the organizational subunit). Based on their study of a number of "troubled" companies, **Kets de Vries and Miller (1987)** concluded that the "*strategy, organizational structure, and culture*

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will often reflect the personality and fantasies of the top manager," For example, if the top manager is autocratic by nature, he/she would prefer an organizational arrangement which would allow him/her to have closer control over people and operations. On the other hand, CEOs predisposed to taking risks would favour the selection of opportunity-based diversification strategies, which may result in less centralised divisional structures.

F. Age

The age of the organization is another factor which makes certain choices of organizational design more appropriate at one time as compared to others. Some organizational theorists (Cameron and Whetten, 1981; Quinn and Cameron, 1983) have suggested that the criteria of organizational effectiveness changes during the course of its life-cycle. This is so because as the organization grows and matures, it has to cope with different kinds of environmental demands. Correspondingly, each developmental stage of the organization will favour specific structural mechanisms for coping with these demands. A young organization, for example, is more likely to be informally structured with loose control mechanisms, since it is still vulnerable to even minor fluctuations in its environment, and must deal with them swiftly. On the other hand, an old well established organization would need to maintain its successful levels of performance, and so, would need to streamline and formalise its structure and systems.

G. Size

While the size of an organization is often related to its age, it is useful to consider it as an independent influence on organizational design. Many organisations, in fact, do not evolve from a small to large size, as is assumed by the life-cycle theorists. Rather, with huge initial capital investments, they start with the advantage (or disadvantage) of being large. Many studies have identified recognisable relationships between the size and structure of the organization. **Blau** (1970), for example, found that organisations become more structurally differentiated with increase in size. Similarly, **Pugh** et al. (1969) concluded that "*an increased scale of operation increases the frequency of recurrent events and the repetition of decisions*". Such a condition favours standardisation of activities. Another study (Child, 1973) supported these findings and concluded that "larger organisations are more specialised, have more rules, more documentation, more extended hierarchies, and a greater decentralisation of decision making further down such hierarchies." In comparison, the smaller organisations would be more amenable to centralised control, which is exerted through informal contacts.

13.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERS

The preceding discussion highlights the complexities involved in the organizational design process. Designing an effective organization seems to be far from a straightforward linear activity. It appears more like an act of balancing the diverse influences and forces. Before proceeding to the next chapter, let us briefly consider what implications this discussion holds for practising managers:

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1. One must recognise that the specific design of an organization is not an arbitrary arrangement rather, it emerges out of the influences of many diverse factors. The relationship between the organizational design and its determinants is somewhat complicated by the fact that these various influences on the organizational structure are also interrelated with each other (see Fig.). A change occurring in any one factor (say, the influencing coalition or the environment) is bound to create pressure for corresponding changes in the others. An effective organizational design (and the managers) must, therefore, be cognizant of such interdependencies and should evolve mechanisms for coping with the pressures arising from change.

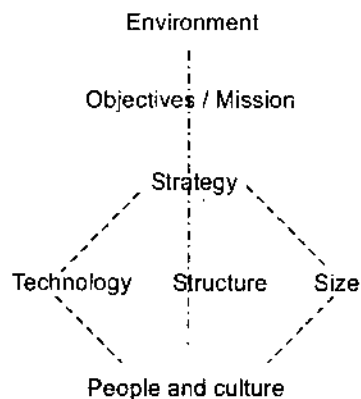


Fig. Illustration of interdependencies among the determinants of organizational design

2. One needs to appreciate that designing an organization requires dealing with both the tangible and the intangible aspects. An effective organization structure takes as much care of the formal business requirements as it focuses on the underlying human processes. As **Newman** (1971) pointed out:

“Some managers make a change in their formal organization and assume everything else will fall in place. To be effective, ...these changes must be incorporated into informal behaviour, and supporting adjustments must be made in other facets of management”.

Thus, for example, implementation of an organizational design incorporating decentralisation of decision-making is not merely a

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matter of formal documentation of delegation of powers across different hierarchical levels. To be successful it would also require upgradation of decision-making skills across different levels, as well as the development of an organizational climate supportive of such change. During the mid 1980s, due to the liberalisation of economy (and the consequent boom in the consumer durable market), many organisations floundered due to the inconsistencies in their efforts. Various organisations changed their strategic posture and introduced structural changes to meet the strategic requirements. They failed because these changes were resisted by their own culture. On the other hand, organisations which could effectively deal with changes were those which adapted a more integrated view of these contingencies.

3. Lastly, while the various determinants of organizational design are interrelated, the designing process almost always has to cope with certain constraints. An ideal design would, of course, be one which is totally consistent with the different requirements of the various influences (see Table). For instance, an ideal situation would be when the strategic requirements call for a flexible decentralised design, which matches with the cultural orientation of the employees, as well as with the influences arising from the nature of required technology. Such a happy situation, however, rarely exists in reality. One may find oneself, for instance, saddled with a technology which cannot be changed without sacrificing the basic operating efficiencies (e.g., even if the strategy calls for greater autonomy and flexibility, the highly routinised assembly-line still remains the cheapest alternative for mass-producing automobiles). Such mismatches, while posing a major constraint on the logic of the designing process, are also a challenge to the ingenuity and creativity of the manager.

Determinants of Organizational Design	Required Design Options	
Perceived environment	Simple, stable	Complex, changing
Required organizational response	Slow and conventional	Quick and flexible
Appropriate organizational structure	Mechanistic, formal and decentralized	Organic, informal and centralized
Appropriate technology	Routine, mass-production	Non-routine, customized
Culture and people	Conservative and formal	Innovative and informal

Organizational Power, Conflict, and Politics

As already discussed; organizations are self-consistent systems. The effective organizational structures, it was suggested, somehow follow a logic, in which the nature of environment, strategy, technology and structure match the demands and requirements of each other. We also saw that this consistency in the pattern, is achieved through the coordination and control mechanisms, which appropriately and rationally distribute the power and positions across the organizational roles.

Thus, the rational approach assumes that people occupying equal hierarchical positions or similar roles will be vested with equal power, while people in subordinate positions will exercise less power than their superiors (with a few exceptions, as in professional bureaucracies and adhocracies). Such an understanding of the organization, however, only presents a part of the picture. While environment, strategy, size and technology do determine the structure, they are not the only determinants. Studies (Child, 1972; Pugh, 1973) have shown that these tangible variables, at best, only explain about 50 to 60 percent of variance in the structure (Robbins, 1987).

Such studies suggest that there are also other somewhat non-tangible, and even non-rational factors, which influence what happens to/within the organizations. This seems realistic also. Organizations do not always function in a rational manner. For example, it is not uncommon to find, that among colleagues having similar seniority and functional responsibilities, some exert more influence on organizational affairs than the others. Similarly, even among departments, there exists an implicit hierarchy, which makes certain departments more powerful than others. Among the equals in the corporate animal farm, it seems, some are invariably more equal than others.

What these realities also point to, is the fact that the authority (*i.e.*, the right to influence) of a position, is not necessarily equal to the power (*i.e.*, the ability to influence) of that position. While the authority may be rationally delegated in the organization, the power of a position depends on a number of- "extraneous" (personal and situational) factors. These differences in the extraneous factors result in inequities and imbalances in the power structure within the organization, opening up opportunities for many apparently non-rational factors (*e.g.*, conflicts, politicking, *etc.*) to creep in the organizational functioning. In this Chapter, we will focus on the role and dynamics of power and politics in organisations.

13.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF POWER AND POLITICS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Earlier we had noted the inevitability of power inequity and the political struggle and conflicts surfacing in an organization. The hierarchical

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and authority-based nature of the organisations, the differences in the need for power, the organization's need to optimise, leading to struggle for resources, etc. makes them ideal grounds for exercising legitimate and illegitimate influences. Moreover, these inherent anachronisms, which characterize the power relationships among the organizational members, further encourage them to adapt political means for achieving personal, and organizational goals.

The popular connotation of terms like politics and political skills is rather negative, implying that their use in the organization is bound to have dysfunctional consequences. However, the fact that exercise of political skills (or exercise of power through political skills) is so inherently interwoven in the fabrics of organizational life, suggests that their use may not always be dysfunctional for the organization. Power, after all, refers to one's ability to influence, flows of available energy and resources towards certain goals as opposed to other goals. In this sense, both power and political skills serve similar purpose.

Symbols of Organizational Power

Executives can use power and political skills in many different, concrete and symbolic, ways. Acquiring status symbols (e.g., size of the office, number of telephones, perks, etc.) is one of the most common ways in which an executives power in the organization gets manifested. Effective, and really powerful executives, however, tend to use power in a manner which contributes to their effectiveness. Some of the indicators of effective utilisation of ones power are (Kanter, 1979):

- The executive has early access to crucial organizational information about major decisions and changes.
- The executive can favourably intercede on behalf of someone who is in trouble with the authorities.
- The executive can gear a desirable placement, promotion or above-average salary for subordinate(s).
- The executive can get approval for expenditure which is beyond budget.
- The executive can influence the agenda for meetings.
- The executive has fast, easy and regular access to top decision-makers.

It is worth noting that, in contrast to authority, which refers only to downward influence, the above manifestations of power, describe power as predominantly referring to horizontal and upward influence.

Both refer to the ability to influence, and both can be equally used to achieve legitimate or illegitimate goals. The difference, probably, lies in the means of influence: exercising power would involve the

use of legitimate means (one's position, expertise, reward and punishment, etc.), whatever be the ends, while political skills refer to the use of illegitimate means (withholding information, ingratiating, game-playing, etc.) to achieve ends, which may be quite legitimate.

These arguments are not intended to convey, that playing politics is a necessarily desirable form of organizational behaviour. Undoubtedly, politics in organizations has dysfunctional consequences: it wastes organizational energies, is used to resist necessary changes (or to bring about those changes which are not required), creates unnecessary stress, hampers with goal achievement, and so on. But it would be equally unrealistic to ignore the positive contributions which power-politics makes to the organizations. **Mintzberg** (1989) argued that politics has at least four functional uses in organisations:

1. Politics ensures that the stronger members of the organization are brought into positions of leadership (specially, since bureaucratic structures and autocratic superiors tend to suppress strong subordinates). It allows those with more initiative and competence to prove their worth by getting ahead and to start taking organizational responsibilities matching with their potential.
2. In organizational decision-making, the tendency of those in authority is to present a one-sided case on any issue. Politics ensures that all sides of the issue come to surface and can be debated. Thus, politics can provide an alternative way to a more democratic functioning.
3. Most organizational changes are resisted by the established systems of authority (the "vested interests"), for whom the change is threatening. Politics turns out to be necessary for removing these blocks to the required changes.
4. Political skills of the executive are also necessary to make it easier to arrive at and implement decisions. Effective executives do need to rely much on their skills of persuasion, negotiations, making trade-offs, building networks, etc., to achieve perfectly legitimate organizational goals.

13.5 STRUCTURAL DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL POWER

Power has often been understood as a personal characteristic—some people, because of their personality, expertise, or skills, have it, while others don't. However, if one takes a broader view of power, *viz.*, the "ability to influence", this ability derives not only from the personality and interpersonal skills of the individual, but also from the particular

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structural situation, in which he or she is placed. After all, the personal secretary of the CEO is always likely to wield more power over others as compared to other secretaries. Similarly, if a particular job is more important to achieve organizational goals (or the job-holder is able to convince others that it is so), its occupant will enjoy greater power. Many studies (*e.g.*, Hickson et al., 1971; Kanter, 1979; Astley and Sachdeva, 1984; Brass, 1984; Hackman, 1985) have supported the contention that the peculiar characteristics of a job contribute much to the person's organizational power. The following discussion on such job/structural characteristics is based on these findings.

A. Hierarchical Position

Obviously, the most common base of power is the position which the individual occupies in the formal hierarchy of the organization. This position gives him formal authority to influence subordinates' behaviour, by legitimately demanding compliance, and by sanctioning rewards and punishments for performance. By virtue of position, one can even make organizationally legitimate demands on one's colleagues (*e.g.*, the production in-charge can legitimately ask the purchase manager to plan purchases for spare parts). The higher the position, the more power one is likely to exercise.

Of course, hierarchical position is not the only basis' of power. There are also individual differences in the manner in which people exercise their authority, some of which can be more effective than others. **Bachman** et al. (1968), for instance found that use of power based on ones position, and the ability to reward and punish appears to be negatively or inconsistently related to organizational performance. **Shetty** (1978), reviewing the research literature, also found that use of such power is more likely to have dysfunctional consequences, whereas power stemming from expertise and relationship with subordinates may be more functional. These findings suggest that the formal, position-related power may not be the most effective basis for influencing others.

B. Non-Routineness

If a job is of routine nature, it is more likely to be controlled through standardisation of work procedures. This would decrease the degree of freedom which the occupant can exercise. A non-routine job, on the other hand, allows the person performing the job a high degree of autonomy and flexibility. In an organization, if the nature of the job is non-routine, it justifies a variety of behaviours, which the person can indulge in. Moreover, since there are no standards to decide the legitimacy of his demands or behaviours, it also allows him to make a variety of demands on the organizational infrastructure.

C. Centrality to Workflow

Centrality refers to how critical a job is, for the organization to achieve its strategic goals. Often a job can be quite a non-routine one, without wielding any power, because it does not contribute very significantly to the process of organizational goal achievement. On the other hand, jobs, which are central to the workflow of the organization, even the routinised ones, are likely to have more influence on organizational decision-making.

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Which are the Powerful Jobs?

- if the job involves dealing with environmental uncertainties, e.g., marketing jobs in a competitive industry;
- if the job has innovative and creative goals, for which a standard cannot be predicted;
- if the job is new in the organization (new department or function, few predecessors) so that the process of standardisation is not yet complete;
- if the job has high interpersonal component (dealing with clients and customers, liaisoning, etc.), making it difficult to formalise its contents;
- if the job is central to the strategic intent of the organization, e.g., finance and accounts jobs, if the organizational strategy emphasises cost-control;
- if the job is critical to organizational performance, and cannot be substituted, e.g., a specialist's job which is central to the workflow;
- if the job allows one to have control over critical resources, e.g., finance jobs in a capital-intensive industry;
- if the job involves access to sought-after information, e.g., job of the secretary to the CEO; and so on.

D. Control Over Inputs

If a job, by virtue of its position in the structure, has control over resources, which are required for others' functioning, it will have power over others, more so, if these resources are scarce and critical to others' functioning. For instance, the power which trade unions exert on the management is mostly based on this demand and supply equation. The unions control the workers, who are a critical input for effective organizational functioning. This control gives the unions an advantage in the exercise of power and in getting their demands met by the management.

Often, many support functions (e.g., industrial engineering, maintenance and finance) exert power over line-functions because of their control

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over critical inputs. Unless the industrial engineers recommend the work norms or manpower requirements, or until the finance people sanction the money, the activities of the line department would remain affected. One important input, which is often used for power maximisation is the information.

E. Uniqueness

Related to control over inputs is the insubstitutability of the resources. If a machine breaks down, and the maintenance support is not forthcoming, it is likely that some experienced shop floor operator may devise a makeshift arrangement to continue with the work uninterrupted. But if the problem to be solved is complex, such as a sudden fire on the Bombay High (or in the oil wells of Kuwait), only a person with highly specialised competence, like Red Adair, can solve it. Such jobs are unique and cannot be substituted, which makes them quite powerful in the system.

In the organisations, jobs which require specialised skills invariably carry greater power. Actually, almost all jobs require a certain level of specialised competence and skills. However, many of them can be substituted. For instance, even the job of a car-driver in the transport section of an organization requires special skills. But these skills can be substituted by those of taxi-operators. That is why car-drivers do not influence organizational matters (unless, of course, they force the management to enter into an agreement barring it from hiring taxis, thereby, making their own skills in the organization insubstitutable). But the skills of doctors in the hospitals, professors in academic institutions, cost accountant in an industry, executive chefs of five-star hotels, etc., cannot be easily replaced by another operator. This explains why these job-occupants enjoy a considerable say in the organizational matters.

F. Proximity to Power

Finally, if the job allows one to be in the proximity of the place where crucial organizational decisions are taken, it gives one greater opportunities to influence these decisions. Of course, this influence is more often informal in nature than formal. Young and junior subordinates are sometimes invited to make presentations (e.g., the marketing executive looking after a new territory may be asked to make a presentation in the annual sales conference), but such occasions are rare. Mostly, the influence is informal, as the subordinates may be interacting with their senior officers on an informal level only while sharing a table in the executive cafeteria, or commuting in the company bus. It is important to understand that this proximity to power can be both in terms of chain of command, as well as physical in nature.

13.6 POWER IMBALANCES: SOURCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICTS

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People like to be powerful, to have control and mastery over their life and work. **Adler** (1927), in fact, proposed power as a basic human motive. An ideal condition of organizational life would be, if every job-occupant feels equally and adequately empowered to manage his work. However, it is generally accepted that organizations do not (and probably cannot) distribute power equally across different hierarchical levels. In addition, as we saw in the previous section, power is also not distributed rationally in the organizations. The structural arrangements in organisations, inadvertently end up by giving some departments or jobs more power than they rationally require, while leaving others with lesser influence than they deserve.

These power imbalances stimulate the less powerful to put in efforts to enhance their power, leading to organizational conflicts. Like organizational power, organizational conflicts also have their roots in organizational structure. Many studied (e.g., **Seiler**, 1963; **Strauss**, 1964; **Walton and Dutton**, 1969 and **Walton, Dutton and Cafferty**, 1969) have identified a number of structural factors, which contribute to organizational or interdepartmental conflicts. In this section, we will briefly review these findings under four broad categories—horizontal differentiation; interdependence among subunits, performance and reward criteria, and incongruent relationships.

A. Horizontal Differentiation

The very fact that organizations put people in different groups and functions, creates potential for conflicts. This peculiar aspect of human nature was reported by **Bennis and Slater** (1968), when in an experiment the students were randomly divided into 'red' and 'green' groups. These groups did not compete, or even interact; they just sat in the same room and completed a questionnaire. It was found that "only 10 minutes are needed to activate defensiveness and fear, reflected in the hostile and irrational perceptions of both "reds" and "greens"." Similar findings were reported by **Blake, Shephard and Mouton** (1964) with a group of executives. These executives were divided into two groups, where they automatically developed their own group structure, norms and cohesiveness. When they were given identical problems, for which they had to find the "best" solution, there was a marked tendency to enter into a win-lose power struggle, to perceive the other group members as adversaries, and to down-grade their solution.

Similar dynamics is likely to occur in organizational settings. **Lawrence and Lorsch** (1967) noted that as organizations become more differentiated, the different sub-units (departments, groups, divisions, etc.) develop

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significant task-based internal differences. These differences are in terms of (a) the degree of structure, (b) the orientation among members towards the environment, (c) their planning time perspectives, and (d) their interpersonal orientations. **Shapiro (1977)**, for instance, noted that marketing and manufacturing executives typically differ from each other in their assessment of and problems related to planning, quality assurance, cost control, customer service, product development, etc. It is important to note, however, that horizontal differentiation only creates a potential for conflicts, but does not necessarily lead to conflicts (much would depend on the integrating mechanisms in the organization).

B. Interdependence among Sub-Units

Obviously, if two units are mutually independent of each other, and have no opportunity to interact, there would be no reason for any conflict to develop between them. Conflicts occur only when there is some extent of interaction and interdependence among units. This interdependence can be in three ways:

1. The units may be mutually dependent on each other to accomplish their goals. This dependence can be for receiving and giving assistance, information, compliance or doing other coordinative acts, which help each unit to achieve their specific goals. For instance, consultants in a team, or executives in a task force are mutually dependent on each other. The problem they often experience, is related to overlapping of issues, such as task overload, sharing of common resources, dealing with common clients, etc.
2. The units may be asymmetrically dependent on each other. That is, while unit A may be dependent on unit B for assistance, coordination, information, or inputs, etc., this dependence is only one-way. In such an arrangement, unit B would have little incentive to coordinate. Moreover, since the units are arranged in a sequential long-linked chain, it also encourages a unit to get away by blaming the preceding unit for its own failure. For instance, the marketing department may blame the production for low quality, while the production department may pass off the blame to the purchase department for low-grade materials, and so on.
3. The dependence among the units can also be because of their dependence on common resources. For instance, in most organisations different sub-units depend on a common pool of organizational resources, such as physical space, equipment, personnel, operating or capital funds, and centralised services, etc. In situations when these resources are scarce in an organization,

and where their allocation is not mediated effectively, the chances of competition and conflict among the sub-units are high.

One would notice that such interdependencies are quite common in any organization. Organizations are, after all, composites of interdependent units, which are bound together by common goals. It follows, therefore, that the potential for conflicts is always inherent in any organization.

C. Performance and Reward Criteria

The interdependence among horizontally differentiated units has some noteworthy consequences for the organisations. As organizations grow in complexity, often the goals of their sub-units become more and more independent and compartmentalised from each other—even to the extent that the goals of one unit may interfere with the goals of other units. For example, one of the goals of the stores and purchase function is to keep the inventory low to avoid the blocking of capital. But achievement of this aim can sometimes seriously hamper the smooth functioning of the production department.

Organizations, of course, evolve coordinating mechanisms to integrate such separate goals. The fact, however, remains that organisations expect their different wings to perform in manners which may not be very consistent. This often results in conflicts among the sub-units. Work in most organisations stipulates the units working as a team. The performance, however, is appraised and rewarded for each units achievements. We can consider, for instance, the following case: a construction company, different projects in the region were expected to share the common plant and equipment facilities. In practice, however, some projects would hoard certain critical equipments (even when not required immediately) which would hamper with the other projects' progress. The conflict situation arose because those who violated the norm of sharing, were able to finish their projects without time and cost overruns (and correspondingly, their executives received more recognition, bonus and promotions).

The inconsistencies in the performance and reward criteria among different sub-units also arise on account of the differences in the nature of their activities. **Shukla (1986)**, for instance, noted that organizations are often divided between the innovating functions (*e.g.*, R&D, value engineering, product development, HRD, *etc.*) who are responsible to bring about change, and operating functions (*e.g.*, production, finance, *etc.*) whose task-efficiency depends on maintaining the status quo. Similarly, in his discussion on the marketing-manufacturing conflict, **Shapiro (1977)** noted:

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Because the costs of a broader (product) line are primarily in the manufacturing area, the manufacturing manager emphasises the advantages of a narrower line. The reverse is true of marketer. Thus the situation literally forces each manager into an adversary position. Each creates pressure for the policy that minimises his costs, maximises his benefits, and leads to positive evaluation and an appropriate reward.

Differences in performance and evaluation criteria also arise because of the variety of goal characteristics among the sub-units. Some have more long-term goals (e.g., R&D, HRD), while others have short-term targets (e.g., production, marketing); certain goals can be measured (e.g., rejection rate, machine down time, etc.), while others are immeasurable (e.g., industrial harmony); some are based on "hard" data (e.g., capacity utilisation, inventory levels), while others rely on "soft" data (e.g., customer satisfaction), and so on. Naturally, such different goals cannot be measured on a common criterion, even though use of differential criteria paves way for conflicts to occur.

D. Incongruent Relationships

Through their control and coordinating mechanisms, organizations aim at structuring and regulating the relationships among their members and sub-units. This, unfortunately (or fortunately), is not completely possible. Certain areas of ambiguities are invariably left unattended. In fact, as we saw in some of the earlier Chapters, certain environmental, strategic or structural considerations encourage deliberately ambiguous definitions of roles and relationships. Some of the common sources for these incongruences in inter-role/functional relationships are:

1. The organizational definition of a relationship contradicts the cultural norms. For instance, many old workers resent complying to young professionals, since culturally age is related to authority.
2. Certain roles and functions, particularly the creative ones, need to be characterised by low formalisations, which encourages ambiguities in expectations from/by the incumbents. Since the perceived legitimate expectations may not be met, conflicts can result.
3. Organizations, which consist of heterogeneous and specialist groups, are more likely to experience conflicts. This is so because diversity of expertise and orientations makes it difficult for the organization to perfectly coordinate their activities.
4. The more complex (horizontally, vertically and geographically) an organization is, the greater are the chances for communication distortions to occur. This, in turn, would create potentials for conflicts.

13.7 MANAGING ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICTS: A CONTINGENCY PERSPECTIVE

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Like power and politics, conflict is also a largely negatively understood term. Most often, it is interpreted as a hindrance in the teamwork, which is supposed to be essential for achieving a common organizational goal. Correspondingly, management off conflicts is often equated with elimination or avoidance of conflicts. Responsible managers, it is assumed, must ensure that conflicts do not arise and harmony prevails. This popular view (shared by many managers) was further strengthened in a study by **Singh and Parthasarthy** (1985). Based on the responses of 242 executives, they concluded that avoidance of conflicts and compromising when a conflict situation arises, appeared to be the most prevalent styles of conflict management among Indian executives.

Conflicts, however, are not always dysfunctional (even if they are uncomfortable). **Boulding** (1964) demonstrated that groups which contained deviant members who would challenge the established order, produced better ideas and more elegant solutions, than the perfectly harmonious groups (ironically, when asked to drop one group member, the groups ousted their deviant members, inspite of their positive value). Similarly, **Pareek** (1982) concluded that conflicts give impetus to richer exploration, more extensive debate and better solutions.

There are, admittedly, conflicts which can lead to disruption of organizational activities. However, as **Robbins** (1987) noted:

“An organization totally devoid of conflict is probably also static, apathetic, and nonresponsive to change. Conflict is functional when it initiates the search for new and better ways of doing things and undermines complacency within the organization.... The manager’s job is to create an environment in which conflict is healthy but not allowed to run to pathological extremes.”

Related to this negative connotation attached to conflict is also the assumption that the best way of managing conflicts is through collaboration (this view is even shared by many management experts, e.g., Blake, Shepard and Mouton, 1964). Practising managers do realise that while collaboration may be an ideal worth striving for, it is often not the most feasible one in reality. In this section, we will propose that, besides collaboration, there are also other strategies which can be effective and useful to manage conflicts in organizational situations. **Derr** (1978) proposed that besides collaboration, two other methods, bargaining and power-play, can be equally useful in managing conflicts, depending on the nature and context of conflicts (see Table 8.1). Moreover, organisations also use structural and procedural strategies to contain and resolve conflicts. We will discuss these in this section.

13.8 A COMPARISON AMONG THE THREE MODES OF RESOLVING INTER-GROUP CONFLICT

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A. Collaboration

Collaboration is one of the most popularly recommended approach for managing conflicts. Most of the OD intervention techniques, in some way or the other, rely on establishing a collaborative climate among conflicting parties. It stands to reason also, that if people have problems with each other, the most rational and civilised way to deal with them is to understand each other's point of view and to arrive at a mutually acceptable solution.

There are numerous advantages of using a collaborative approach (Thomas, 1976; Derr, 1978) to manage conflicts. Some of the most significant ones are listed below.

- Collaboration creates a climate of authentic and open interpersonal relationships among organizational members and sub-units. Such a climate is conducive to long-term smooth functioning of the organization.
- Collaboration is a problem-solving approach, and therefore, encourages more creative and innovative activities in the organization.
- Collaboration facilitates information flow and feedback processes in the organization. In doing so, it also lays the foundations for the emergence of self-correcting mechanisms in the organization.
- Collaboration ensures long-term commitment of the organizational members to problem-solving, and thus, it also reduces the need for the introduction of more formal coordinating mechanisms.

Organisations can achieve collaboration among sub-units as also among member's roles in a number of ways. OD techniques describe both structural as well as process-oriented interventions for collaboration. Three of the most common methods for managing conflicts through encouraging collaboration are described below.

1. *Creating Superordinate Goals.* Inter-group conflicts often develop because people get so involved in the achievement of their compartmentalized objectives, that they neglect the common goals for which they are working. These priorities, often perceived at the level of the group heads, also get pushed down the hierarchy, and become a major contributor to interdepartmental conflicts.

Many researchers (e.g., Sherif, 1966) suggest that a common understanding of shared goals can greatly facilitate a climate of collaboration. The current popularity of promoting a corporate vision (quality of product, customer service, increasing exports, etc.,) also highlights this process

of creating superordinate goals, which help in unifying conflicting organizational energies. Research findings of Sherif and Sherif (1969) suggested that introduction of a "common enemy" helps in reducing hostility between groups. Thus, when organizations face stiff competition in the market, it provides an opportunity of pitting the organizational team against the market forces (it is interesting to note the extent to which the popular managerial terminology reflects this metaphor of battle, e.g., winning and losing, capturing the market, beating the competition, flagship company).

2. *Joint Problem Solving.* This is one of the most frequently used techniques for increasing collaboration. It requires the conflicting parties to come together, analyse and define the problem, understand each other's viewpoints, and arrive at a rational and objective solution through mutual interactions.

Intervention Format for Building Collaboration

A number of formats have been described by management theorists and practitioners (e.g., Blake, Shepard and Mouton, 1964; Beckhard, 1969; Homstein et al., 1971; Burke and Homstein, 1972; Harrison, 1972; Likert and Likert, 1976, etc.) for effectively facilitating collaboration-building processes between conflicting groups. The underlying commonality among these interventions is in terms of the process, which they commonly follow. The typical format for conducting these interventions:

- *encourages conflicting parties to define and articulate their problems and perceptions separately;*
- *provides them opportunity for sharing these perceptions;*
- *once sharing is done, is to discuss and arrive at a common understanding of the problem;*
- *jointly explores alternatives for solving this problem, and arrives at a mutually acceptable solution;*
- *builds an action plan for implementation of this solution; and*
- *follows up and reviews the implementation at a future date.*

The aim is to solve a problem, which is experienced by all parties, not to win or lose against each other. The usefulness of bringing people, face to face, lies in helping them to identify not only the differences, but also the similarities in their perceptions.

3. *Increasing Interactions.* Often many interdepartmental conflicts are rooted in misperceptions and lack of understanding between different units. As we saw earlier, the functional segmentation is further augmented by each sub-unit developing its own norms of working and interacting. In the process of doing so, they also becomes insensitive to problems and requirements of other sub-units.

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These demarcations can be broken down, if organisations provide more opportunities to the employees in these sub-units to interact with each other. If people interact with each other, not only would they develop better understanding of each other's way of functioning, but also may discover common interests, problems, and priorities. For instance, the annual sales conferences, besides dealing with substantive organizational issues, also create a sense of camaraderie and understanding among executives looking after different territories. In many organizations, the same purpose is achieved through more formalised means: they create a system of inter-unit, inter-divisional, and even inter-functional transfers (e.g., Hindustan Lever).

In spite of the popularity of collaboration as a conflict management strategy (at least in the management literature), it is often not the most feasible one. Derr (1978) pointed out that success of collaborative efforts depends on four basic preconditions:

- (a) conflicting units must be interdependent, i.e., should have long-term stakes in solving the problem;
- (b) they must be equal in terms of their power in the organization;
- (c) there should be potential for mutual benefit as a result of solving the common problem; and,
- (d) there should be organizational support (in terms of time, money and energy) available for the collaborative efforts.

It needs no great emphasis to point out that these conditions are not always present in the organisations. Sub-units lack power parity (in fact, that itself may be the reason for conflict); for most departments, the stakes in solving a problem are short-term (meeting the annual targets); and only a few organisations are willing to invest resources in real team-building efforts (except as a cosmetic training programme). Most of the time, divisions and departments are left with no other alternative, than to adopt other strategies for managing conflicts.

It is also worth noting that the primary goal of any organization is not achieving harmony and collaboration, but achievement of its strategic objectives. In many complex organisations, collaboration may not be a realistic, or even desirable, goal to strive for. Too much emphasis on collaboration ("we must live like a happy family") can increase the chances of "group think" (Janis, 1982). Or, it can even become a tool in the hands of the political forces. As Rico (1964) remarked: *The individuals or groups who are most vocal in advocating 'harmony and happiness' in an environment devoid of conflict, may only be protecting their vested interest in status quo.*

B. Power-Play

Power-play or power-politics is the archetypal antithesis of collaborative strategy. Whereas collaboration is a win/win strategy, which aims at

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establishing acceptable rules of interaction, power-play aims at a win/lose situation by circumventing or distorting the established rules. Derr (1978) defined power-play as *"a secretive mode that could work in the best interest of those, whose covert objective is autonomy and whose desired impression is that of being committed."* He also noted that this method of conflict management has often been condemned because it unleashes aggressive and hostile feelings, distorts or suppresses valid organizational information, displaces energies to unproductive purposes, and at times, even subverts organizational goals.

Nonetheless, power-play is an organizational reality, which often fulfils useful aims. There are a number of situations in which power-play and politicking may be an appropriate (or at least, an efficient) means of dealing with conflicts. Some such situations are:

- When people need to work for their rational self-interest (which may not necessarily be contrary to organizational interests). For instance, experts in the organization may like to maintain their autonomy, use their specialisation for organizational purposes, but without wanting to invest too much of their energies in building collaborative relations.
- When the organizational environment is competitive, in which a collaborative stance may make one more vulnerable. For instance, if different divisions have to compete for budget allocation, then the sharing of critical information with others would make them aware of one's weaknesses, and give them a strategic advantage.
- When preconditions for collaboration are not met, but coexistence is necessary for achievement of personal goals. Such a situation would result in a sort of dynamic equilibrium between the conflicting parties. For instance, the relations between management and union often endeavour to maintain a balance between compatible self-interests (also note that inspite of their power-play, both often benefit. While the management is able to save through redeployment of labour, the workers manage to get better salaries or amenities).
- When the dispute is ideological in nature. For instance, the conflicting parties may be unwilling to look at the dispute as a problem to be solved or negotiated over. The only course open in such a situation is to achieve one's ends at the cost of others.

What behaviours constitute power-play? Often the political behaviours in organisations have been described as "games", Mintzberg (1983a) listed out a number of political games, which are often played by people in the organization with the intent of optimising their power.

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For instance, experts in the organization may seek to safe-guard their power, by keeping their skills from becoming common to all, or privileged information may be used by a less powerful member to “blow the whistle” to an influential outsider on questionable/illegal behaviour by the organization. Similarly, **Wofford, Gerloff and Cummins (1977)** identified a list of power tactics used by executives and sub-units in the organisations. Let us look at some of the commonly used political behaviours.

1. *Withholding Information.* This is the most common power tactic. Information is a source of power. If one retains control over this source, it would ensure others' dependence, and give one an advantage. For instance, if the copies of personnel policies manual are not made available to all line managers, it leads to their dependence on the personnel department.
2. *Blocking-off Incoming Information.* If one can manage to block or delay the information from reaching oneself, it not only allows one to avoid or delay making commitments, but also ensures that the other party is forced to make a “personal request”. Departments often build complicated (and vague) procedures, nurture inefficiencies, or create internal bottlenecks to ensure that they can seal off requests and demands from other departments. For instance, the stores section may develop a complex system for indenting spare parts (with the legitimate excuse of avoiding pilferage) to emphasise its power over the shop floor sections.
3. *Delaying Sgreements and Decisions.* The longer one can delay an agreement which would make one accountable, the greater maneuverability one would have. Often this tactics is used in the form of appointing a committee to look into the problem. The trick involved is in making a vague commitment (e.g., “we need to discuss it in detail”), which ostensibly indicates one's sincerity, but in reality keeps the problem hanging.
4. *Emphasising perfectionism.* Being perfectionists, quality-conscious and uncompromising on solutions is a legitimate behaviour in most organizations. But it can also be used as a tool to obstruct the work processes of other organisations. It is often used both ways—one may demand perfectionism from others (e.g., the maintenance crew will not be released till the machine runs noiselessly), or one may practice perfectionism oneself (e.g., the finance department will not pass a bill till all related documents, even the trivial ones, are enclosed). In either case, it puts pressure on the other party.
5. *Protecting One's Territory.* Organizations are horizontally differentiated along functional specialities. The more one can

maintain the uniqueness of one's job activities, the greater would be one's value. This is true of not only highly skilled specialists, but even of the unskilled job categories (e.g., the cleaning staff may get unionised and protest against their jobs being made a part of the helpers' jobs on the shopfloor).

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C. Bargaining

Bargaining is a middle-ground between the collaborative and political strategies of conflict management. It incorporates elements from both strategies—the problem-solving stance of the collaborative approach, as well as the tactical moves and counter moves of the power-play. It is also one of the most commonly practised conflict management strategy.

Bacharach and **Lawler** (1981) noted:

Bargaining is a central element in a mixed-motive setting. Given simultaneous incentives to cooperate and compete, mixed-motive relationships are inherently unstable and inevitably involve some distrust. In this context, bargaining is the primary means for keeping the conflict within acceptable bounds and avoiding a complete bifurcation of the relationship.

Bargaining may not be the ideal approach, but it is definitely a practical one. It has its limitations: the win/lose stance can create new interpersonal or organizational conflicts; it can only help arriving at less than perfect compromise solution; and, it involves commitments which are more legal and formal than intrinsic in nature. In spite of these imperfections, it is useful in a number of ways:

- It ensures that the conflicting parties openly share their concern for, and also arrive at, some immediate solution.
- It provides an opportunity to the conflicting parties to interact with each other, implicitly or explicitly acknowledge mutual interdependence, and thus, build grounds for better understanding.
- It is an efficient way of establishing power parity, paving way for future collaboration. Not only can the two parties recognise the value of what each can give or withhold, they also enlarge their areas of agreement by arriving at some common solution.
- It is probably the most efficient way in which scarce resources can be distributed.

While bargaining is a rather complex and dynamic process, it does invite certain predictable forms of behaviour from the involved parties. Based on studies on bargaining behaviour (Thomas, 1976; Derr, 1978; Bacharach and Lawler, 1981; Walton, 1987), one can identify the following four critical features of this approach:

1. *Selective Sharing of Information.* In the bargaining process, parties use information selectively and strategically. While much information

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may eventually be exchanged by the parties during the process, this sharing is done in stages, to enable one to maintain some strategic advantage. On certain issues, complete information may not even be shared altogether. For instance, the Management may reveal its budget for welfare activities only after it has gauged the nature of demands the union is likely to insist upon.

2. *Continuous Reevaluation of One's Position.* Since the picture of the problem as construed/presented by the other, emerges gradually during the process, it becomes necessary for each party to re-evaluate their position during the process. This is often because each may realise that their insistence on some preferred alternative can have undesirable consequences for some other important concerns. For instance, the marketing wing may stop insisting on a new product-line, when it realises that this may affect its other important orders.

3. *Variations in Pressure Tactics.* Corresponding to reevaluation of one's position, the process is characterised by what **Thomas** (1976) described as the "escalation/de-escalation" dynamics. Thus, during the bargaining process, the conflicting parties may increase or decrease the amount of pressure during various phases. For instance, one may increase or decrease the number of disputed issues, adopt flexibility on extreme demands, switch from an environment of agreement to that of hostility, and so on.

4. *Trade-offs.* The solutions in bargaining are achieved through periodic trade-offs during the bargaining process. Each party successively gives some concessions to the other, in exchange to certain items of perceived importance. The net result is that most of the solutions arrived through bargaining are compromise solutions,

D. Structural and Procedural Strategies

Organisational conflicts, as we discussed earlier, often originate from the specific organizational conditions. It would be a reasonable contention, that manipulation of organizational elements would also help in resolving these conflicts. In fact, one of the purposes of coordinate and integrating mechanisms is basically to ensure avoidance of conflicts among the various sub-units. In this section, we will discuss some of the conflict management strategies, which involve rearrangement of organizational elements.

1. *Reducing Interdependence Among Units.* Since one of the main reasons for conflicts to occur is the interdependence of the sub-units, to reduce the conflicts these sub-units could be made more autonomous and independent. For instance, if one unit is dependent on the outputs of another the conflict can be reduced by creating a buffer stock in the first unit. Alternatively, the first unit may be given freedom to obtain its inputs from

other sources. Organisations, when they rearrange themselves by creating profit centres, also reduce the interdependence among the sub-units

2. *Top-down Interventions.* If two parties fail to resolve their disagreements, it can be handled at the level of the mutual superior. The superior, in this case, takes up the role of an arbitrator and integrator. In certain cases, this role can also be played by a formal organizational system. For instance, the grievance redressal system in an organization often helps in resolving conflicts which cannot be ordinarily resolved by one parties involved.
3. *Enlarging Resources.* Since conflicts often arise because of scarce resources, expanding the resource base can be a successful strategy for eliminating conflicts. This, however, is easier said than done. Organisations work on the principle of optimising output even with limited resources, and increasing resources would definitely involve greater investments, which the organization may not be willing to make. The ultimate decision would depend upon considerations such as the relative costs of resources and the adverse impact of conflicts. Even within these limitations, however, it is often possible for the organisations to increase their resource utilisation. Manpower, equipments, and other resources can often be creatively and flexibly redeployed to overcome periods of scarcity.
4. *Combining Conflicting Units.* This strategy is sometimes used in the organisations by restructuring the conflicting units in a manner so that one incorporates the other. For instance, in many manufacturing companies the quality control function is a part of the production department. It ensures that conflict between the two functions can be resolved at a local level. Similarly, in one of the academic institutes, the conflict between the Personnel and IR Department and Organisational Behaviour Department arose due to the overlapping nature of these disciplines. The strategy used was to combine the two and form a new department of HRD.

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13.9 ROLE OF POWER IN ORGANIZATION

A focus on the role of power in organisations is important for one to understand and to cope with the reality of organizational life. For the practising managers, the preceding discussion offers numerous insights for effective functioning:

- It is important to recognise that organisations are not merely rational entities, designed by tangible situational contingencies.

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Rather, many intangible human and structural factors also conspire to create what an organization would ultimately be. In fact, as we saw, many rationally structured activities also carry an underlying implication for power distribution and sharing among the members. An awareness of these implications is essential for managers to function effectively.

- Ideologically, a collaborative stance is necessary for the organizations to become more humane systems to work in. It is equally important, however, to recognise that collaboration may not always be a successful strategy to deal with the conflicts and power-issues. The ability and skills for using other strategies for conflict-resolutions (*i.e.*, bargaining and power-play) are perhaps equally important for managers to be effective in achieving results.
- Lastly, a fuller appreciation of the role of power in organisations would be incomplete, without focusing on how it influences the decision-making and leadership processes in the organization. This we will do in the next Chapter.

SUMMARY

- Executives can use power and political skills in many different, concrete and symbolic, ways. Acquiring status symbols (e.g., size of the office, number of telephones, perks, etc.) is one of the most common ways in which an executives power in the organization gets manifested. Effective, and really powerful executives, however, tend to use power in a manner which contributes to their effectiveness.
- If two units are mutually independent of each other, and have no opportunity to interact, there would be no reason for any conflict to develop between them. Conflicts occur only when there is some extent of interaction and interdependence among units.
- An organization totally devoid of conflict is probably also static, apathetic, and nonresponsive to change. Conflict is functional when it initiates the search for new and better ways of doing things and undermines complacency within the organization.... The manager's job is to create an environment in which conflict is healthy but not allowed to run to pathological extremes.
- The individuals or groups who are most vocal in advocating 'harmony and happiness' in an environment devoid of conflict, may only be protecting their vested interest in status quo.