ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR COURSE MATERIAL

VISION & MISSION STATEMENTS

VISION:

To emerge as the most preferred Business School with Global recognition by producing most competent ethical managers, entrepreneurs and researchers through quality education.

MISSION:

Knowledge through quality teaching learning process: To enable the students to meet the challenges of the fast challenging global business environment through quality teaching learning process.

Managerial Competencies with Industry institute interface: To impart conceptual and practical skills for meeting managerial competencies required in competitive environment with the help of effective industry institute interface.

Continuous Improvement with the state of art infrastructure facilities: To aid the students in achieving their full potential by enhancing their learning experience with the state of art infrastructure and facilities.

Values and Ethics: To inculcate value based education through professional ethics, human values and societal responsibilities.

PROGRAMME EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES (PEOs)

PEO 1: Placement - To equip the students with requisite knowledge skills and right attitude necessary to get placed as efficient managers in corporate companies.

PEO 2: Entrepreneur - To create effective entrepreneurs by enhancing their critical thinking, problem solving and decision-making skill.

PEO 3: Research and Development - To make sustained efforts for holistic development of the students by encouraging them towards research and development.

PEO4: Contribution to Society - To produce proficient professionals with strong integrity to contribute to society.

Program Outcome:

PO1: Problem Solving Skill -
Apply knowledge of management theories and practices to solve business problems.

PO2: Decision Making Skill -
Foster analytical and critical thinking abilities for data-based decision making.

PO3: Ethical Value -
Ability to develop value based leadership ability.

PO4: Communication Skill -
Ability to understand, analyze and communicate global, economic, legal and ethical aspects of business.

PO5: Individual and Leadership Skill -
Ability to lead themselves and others in the achievement of organizational goals, contributing effectively to a team environment.

PO6: Employability Skill -
Foster and enhance employability skills through subject knowledge.

PO7: Entrepreneurial Skill -
Equipped with skills and competencies to become an entrepreneur.

PO8: Contribution to community -
Succeed in career endeavors and contribute significantly to the community.

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Subject Code	Subject Name	L	T	P	S	C
PMF1C	Organizational Behaviour	4	-	-	1	4
Course Objectives						
C1	To understand the foundations of organizational behavior					
C2	To elucidate the individual differences like personality, perception, learning, attitude, value and motivation.					
C3	To throw light on group dynamics and factors affecting group and team performance with decision making and interpersonal communication.					

C4	To explain leadership, power, politics and conflict negotiation.
C5	To create awareness of work stress, organizational culture, climate, emotional intelligence and work life integration

SYLLABUS

Unit. No.	Details	Hours
Unit I	**Introduction to Organizational Behavior:** Historical background of OB Concept, Relevance of OB – Contributing disciplines - to the field of OB, challenges and opportunities for OB, foundations of Individual Behavior. Theory – Social Theory-	08
Unit II	**Individual Difference** - Personality – concept and determinants of personality –theories of personality – type of theories – trait theory – psycho analytic theory -social learning theory – Erikson's stages of Personality Development Chris Argyris Immaturity to Maturity Continuum. Personality – Job fit. **Perception:** Meaning Process – Factors influencing perception – Attribution theory. **Learning:** Classical, Operant and Social Cognitive Approaches – Managerial implications. Attitudes and Values; – Components, Attitude – Behaviour relationship, formation, values. **Motivation:** Early Theories of Motivation – Hierarchy of needs theory, Theory X and Theory Y, Two factor theory, McClelland's theory of needs and Contemporary theories of motivation – Self – Determination theory, Job Engagement, Goal Setting theory, Self – efficacy theory, Re–inforcement theory, Equity theory, Expectancy theory.	16

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Unit III	**Group Dynamics** – Foundations of Group Behavior – Group and Team - Stages of Group Development–Factors affecting Group and Team Performance – Group Decision making. Interpersonal Communication – Communication Process – Barriers to Communication– Guidelines for Effective Communication	12
Unit IV	**Leadership** – Trait, Behavioral and Contingency theories, Leaders vs Managers. **Power and Politics:** Sources of Power – Political Behavior in Organizations –Managing Politics. **Conflict and Negotiation:** Sources and Types of Conflict – Negotiation Strategies –Negotiation Process	12
Unit V	**Work Stress:** Stressors in the Workplace – Individual Differences on Experiencing Stress - Managing Workplace Stress. **Organizational Culture and Climate:** Concept and Importance – Creating and Sustaining Culture. Emotional Intelligence, Work Life Integration Practices.	12
	Total Hours	60
	Reference Books	
1.	Stephen P. Robins, Timothy A. Judge and Neharika Vohra, Organizational Behavior, 15th Edition, Pearson Education, Inc. publishing as Prentice Hall, 2013.	

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2.	K. Aswathappa, Organizational Behavior, Himalaya Publishing House, 10thEdition, 2012.
3.	Luthans. F. Organizational Behavior, 12th Edition, Tata McGraw Hill, Education, 2011.
4.	McShane, S.L., Von Glinow, M.A., and Sharma, R.R., Organizational Behavior, 5th Edition, Tata McGraw-Hill Education Pvt. Ltd., 2011.
5.	Blanchard, K.H., Hersey, P. and Johnson, D.E., Management of Organizational Behavior; Leading Human Resources, 9th Edition, PHI Learning, 2008.
6.	Newstrom, J.W., Organizational Behavior, 12th Edition, Tata McGraw-Hill Education Pvt. Ltd., 2010.

E-Sources	
1.	https://www.ebsglobal.net.documents/couse-toasters/english.pdf/h17.ob-bk-toasters.pdf
2.	https://iedunote.com.organisational-behaviour
3.	www.yourarticlelibrary.com/organisation/
4.	www.oxfordbiliographies.com
5.	www.himpub.com

Assessment Tools Used			
1.	Assignments	6.	Group Discussion
2.	Internal Assessment Tests	7.	Videos
3.	Model Exams	8.	Simulation
4.	Seminars	9.	Brainstorming
5.	Case studies	10.	Quiz

Content Beyond Syllabus	
1.	Job Design and employee reactions to work
2.	Job design ,Job satisfaction and employee reactions and employee reactions to work
3.	Emotions and moods in the workplace
4.	Work force diversity
5.	Career Management

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	Additional Reference Books
1.	K. Aswathappa, Organizational Behavior, Himalaya Publishing House, 10th Edition, 2012.
2.	McShane, S.L., Von Glinow, M.A., and Sharma, R.R., Organizational Behavior, 5th Edition, Tata McGraw-Hill Education Pvt. Ltd., 2011.
3.	Newstrom, J.W., Organizational Behavior, 12th Edition, Tata McGraw-Hill Education Pvt. Ltd., 2010

Course Outcomes (CO)		
CO No.	On completion of this course successfully the students will;	Program Outcomes (PO)
C103.1	Be able to learn the importance and the foundations of organizational behavior.	PO4
C103.2	Have knowledge on the individual differences like personality, perception, learning, attitude, value and motivation.	PO3, PO6
C103.3	Understand the group dynamics and factors affecting group and team performance with decision making and interpersonal communication	PO2, PO4, PO5
C103.4	Be aware of leadership, power, politics and conflict negotiation.	PO5
C103.5	Be aware of implication of work stress, organizational culture, climate, emotional intelligence and work life integration.	PO6, PO8

LESSON PLAN

Name of the Course	Organizational Behaviour		Lecture	4
Type of the Course	Core course		Theory	0
Course Code	PMF1C		Practical	0
Semester	I		Seminar	1
Maximum Hours	60		Credits	4

Unit. No.	Details	Teaching type	Level	Method	Hours
Unit I	**Introduction to Organizational Behaviour:** Historical background of OB concept,Relevance of OB	Understanding	L2	Lecture	2
	Contributing disciplines - to the field of OB, challenges and opportunities for OB	Understanding	L2	Lecture	2
	Foundations of Individual behaviour	Understanding	L2	Lecture	4
	Theory - Social theory	Understanding	L2	Lecture	4
Unit II	**Individual Difference:** personality- concept and determinants of personality- theories of personality- types of theories- trait theory-	Understanding	L2	Lecture	4

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	psycho analytic theory- social learning theory- erikson stages of personality development Chris Argyris 2 immaturity to maturity Continuum personality- job fit				
	Perception: meaning process- factors influencing perception- attribution theory	Understanding	L2	Lecture	2
	Learning: classical, operant and social cognitive approaches- managerial implications. attitudes and values- components, attitudes- behaviour relationship, formation, values	Understanding	L2	Lecture	3
	Motivation: early theories of motivation -hierarchy of needs theory- theory X and theory Y, two factor theory,McClelland's theory of needs and contemporary theories of motivation- self- determination theory, job engagement, goal setting theory, self-efficacy theory, reinforcement theory, equity theory, expectancy theory	Understanding	L2	Lecture	3
Unit III	**Group dynamics:** foundations of group behaviour	Understanding	L2	Lecture	3
	group and team- stages of group development- factors affecting group and team performance	Understanding	L2	Lecture	3
	group decision making	Understanding	L2	Lecture	4
	interpersonal communication- communication process- barriers to communication- guidelines for effective communication	Understanding	L2	Lecture	2
Unit IV	**Leadership:** trait, behavioural and contingency theory	Understanding	L2	Lecture	2
	leaders versus managers	Understanding	L2	Lecture	4
	Power and politics: sources of power- political behaviour in organisations- managing politics	Understanding	L2	Lecture	3
	Conflict and negotiation: sources and types of conflict- negotiation strategies- negotiation process	Understanding	L2	Lecture	3
	Work stress: stressors in the workplace				3
	individual differences on experience in stress- managing workplace stress	Understanding	L2	Lecture	4
	Organisational culture and climate: Concept and importance- creating and sustaining culture	Understanding	L2	Lecture	3

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emotional intelligence, work life integration practices	Understanding	L2	Lecture	2
TOTAL HOURS				60

Note:

Teaching Type	Level	Method
Memory level	L1	Drill, Review and Revision and Asking the question
Understanding level	L2	Lecture method, lecture demonstration method, discussion method, inductive and deductive, exemplification and explanation methods
Reflection level	L3	Problem solving method, investigating projects, Heuristic method, Experimental method, Inquiry oriented method, analytic method

UNIT I

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Introduction

An organization is a system of two or more persons, engaged in cooperative action, trying to reach a purpose. Organizations are bounded systems of structured social interaction featuring authority relations, communication systems, and the use of incentives. They usually have a hierarchical form, whether narrow or broad. Organizations have formal legal status and are recognized by the governments. Examples of organizations include businesses, hospitals, colleges, retail stores, and prisons (Champoux, 2010). Organizational behavior (OB) is a field of study that concentrates on the effect of people, groups, and structure on behavior of individuals within the organizations. OB examines the three determinants of behavior in organizations: people, group, and structure. OB is the investigation of what individuals do in an organization and how their behavior influences the organization's performance. According to McShane&Vonglinow, "OB is the study of what people think, feel and do in and around organisations." In the words of Hellriegel, Solcum& Woodman, "OB is the study of human behaviour, attitude and performance in organisations".

Factors Impacting Individual Behavior

The behavior of each individual is influenced by several factors. Every individual has particular motives, ambitions, perceptions and abilities. To understand the human behaviour a careful study of all the factors is necessary. The factors affecting individual behavior are:

☐   Personal Factors

☐   Environmental Factors

☐   Organizational Factors

☐   Personal Factors

The personal factors can be:

Biographical characteristics

Personal characteristics such as age, gender, and marital status that are objective and easily obtained from personnel records. Biographical characteristics are generic in nature and are inherited.

Physical characteristics- : These characteristics are related to height, skin, complexion, vision, shape and size.

Age-: The relationship between age and job performance is an issue of increasing performance. Psychologically, young people are expected to be more energetic, innovative, adventurous, ambitious and risk taking. Whereas old people are supposed to be more conservative, set their own way and less adaptable. Though it is incorrect to generalize in all the cases.

Gender -: Studies and research has proved that there are few, if any, important differences between man and woman that will affect their job performance. Gender has its impact on absenteeism. The tendency to abstain from work is more in females than in men, because historically, our society has placed home and family responsibilities on the females.

Religion -: Religion and religion based cultures play an important role in determining some aspects of individual behaviour.

Marital status -: There are not enough studies which could draw any conclusion as to whether there is any relationship between marital status and job performance.Research has consistently indicated that as marriage imposes increased responsibilities, to have a steady job becomes more valuable and important.

Experience: -It is considered to be a good indicator of employee performance. There is a positive relationship between experience and job performance. There is negative relationship between seniority and absenteeism.

Intelligence: -Whether it is an inherited trait or acquired trait, intelligence affects the behaviour of the people.

Ability: - Ability is the criterion used to determine what a person can do.

Learned characteristics

The following characteristics comes under learned characteristics

☐   Personality: -Personality is dynamic concept describing the growth and development of a person's whole psychological system.
☐   Perception: - Perception is the viewpoint of how one person interprets situation.

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☐ Attitude: -Attitude expresses an individual's positive or negative feeling about some object.

☐ Values: -Values carries an individual's ideas as to what is right and what is wrong.Values are global beliefs that guide actions and judgments across a variety of situations. Values represents basic convictions that a specific mode of conduct is personally or socially preferable to an opposite mode of conduct.

☐ Environmental Factors

The external environment is known to have a considerable impact on a person's behaviour.

A brief description of the external factors follows:-

☐ Economic factors.

☐ Employment level:-The employment opportunities available to individuals, the wages payable to them, the general economic environment and the technological development affect the individual behaviour to a large extent, either directly or indirectly.

☐ Wage rates: -The major considerations of every employee working in any organization is his wages. Monetary factor is the major factor affecting the job satisfaction of the worker.

☐ Technological development: - The advancement of technology helps in finding the right person for the right job easily. Moreover, with the help of technology the gap between job seekers and job providers is reduced.

☐ Socio-culture factor: -The social environment of an individual includes his relationship with family members, friends, colleagues, supervisors and subordinates. The behaviour of other people not with the individual, but in general, is also a part of his social environment.

☐ Political factors: -Political environment of the country will affect the individual behaviour not directly, but through several other factors. Like stable political situation means better employment and high level of capital investment.

☐ Legal environment: -Rules and laws are formalized and written standards of behaviour.

☐ Organizational Factors

Individual behaviour is largely affected by a variety of organizational system and resources.

☐ Physical facilities: -the physical environment at a work place is the arrangement of people and things so that it has a positive influence on people. Some of the factors which affect the individual behaviour are noise level, heat, light, ventilation, nature of job, office furnishing, and number of people.

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☐ Organizational structure and design: -these are concerned with the way in which different departments in the organizations are set up, what is the reporting system, how the line of communications are set among different level of organizations.

☐ Leadership: -the system of leadership is established by the management to provide direction, assistance, advice and coaching to individuals.

☐ Reward system: -the behaviour and performance of the individuals is also influenced by the reward system established by the organization to compensate their employees.

Historical Foundations Organisational Behavior

Modern organizational behavior and management has a rich intellectual history. This section describes some key people and ideas that are the historical base for what we know today.

Division of Labor: Adam Smith (1776)

The division of labor is the way an organization divides its tasks, duties, and responsibilities among its members. Smith described what we term the manifest functions of the division of labor. Smith believed higher productivity would follow from the division of labor because it helps workers increase their skill and dexterity in doing their tasks. As the division of labor limits the number of tasks a person does and the number of places where a person does a task, workers save time by not moving from one task location to another. By repeatedly doing the same task, workers may discover better ways of doing it. These innovations can then be introduced into the work process, improving it. Lastly, from doing the task repeatedly, the workers' skills improve until eventually they have mastered the task. Smith also felt the division of labor could have some latent dysfunctional consequences. Doing the same task repeatedly could lead to mental degradation. The workers would no longer perceive the task as stimulating, and their mental processes would slow. Smith felt that lack of involvement in work led to decreased political and social involvement. Workers also would become physically inactive because their work did not require them to move about.

Scientific Management: Frederick W. Taylor (1911)

"The principal object of management should be to secure the maximum prosperity for the employer, coupled with the maximum prosperity for each employee." Those words appear in the opening paragraph of Frederick W. Taylor's book The Principles of Scientific Management. Taylor felt he had developed a new approach to management that produced positive results for both employer and employee.
Taylor based his scientific management on the following four principles:

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☐   Carefully study jobs to develop standard work practices. Standardize the tools used by workers.

☐   Select each worker scientifically.

☐   Management and workers cooperate to ensure that work is done according to standard procedures.

☐   Management plans and makes task assignments; workers carry out assigned tasks.

Toward a Theory of Administration: Henri Fayol (1919)

Henri Fayol, managing director of Commentry-Fourchambault Company in France, prepared a theory of administration based on his management experiences. His theory described the major management functions and several principles that act as administrative guides. Fayol took a broad view of administration. He felt his theory of administration applied to all types of organizations, public and private. Fayol's five functions of management are planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. These management functions have endured the test of time. A review of research that focused on managerial activities showed that an impressive number of activities fell into Fayol's five functions. Managers not only performed those classical functions then, but should continue to do them today. The time spent on these areas and the skills required to do them were associated with higher performance of the manager's unit or organization.

Bureaucracy : Max Weber (1922)

Max Weber was a prominent German political scientist, economist, and sociologist. He made a major contribution to several fields of study with his Bureaucracy. Itis an administrative structure with well-defined offices or functions and hierarchical relationships among the functions. The offices orfunctions have clearly defined duties, rights, and responsibilities. Each office or function is designed without regard for who will hold the office. Relationships within a bureaucracy are impersonal. Decisions are made according to existing rules, procedures, and policies. Bureaucracies reach goals with precision,reliability, and efficiency.

Hawthorne Studies

The publication of these findings headed to a revolution in worker treatment. The Hawthorne studies were conducted at Western Electric Company near Chicago by Elton Mayo. This is an aggregation of fourstudies as explained below

Illumination Experiments

Illumination Experiments were commenced to figure out how changing levels of illumination
i.e. the amount of light at the workplace (a physical factor) affected the productivity.

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A group of workers was selected and placed in two separate groups. One group was exposed to varying intensities of illumination. This group was named experimental group as it was subjected to experimental changes. Another group was called controlled group as it continued to work under constant intensities of illumination. The researchers found that as they increased the illumination in the experimental group, both groups increased production. When the intensity of illumination was decreased, the production continued to increase in both the groups. The production in the experimental group decreased only when the illumination was decreased to the level of moonlight. Thus it was concluded that illumination did not have any effect on productivity but something else was interfering with the productivity. Therefore another phase of experiments was undertaken.

Relay Assembly Test Room Experiments

Relay assembly test room experiments were designed to determine the effect of changes in various job conditions on group productivity as the illumination experiments could not establish relationship between intensity of illumination and production. For this two girls were chosen and these girls were asked to choose four more girls as co-workers. The work was related to the assembly of telephone relays. Output depended on the speed and continuity with which girls worked. An observer was appointed with girls to supervise their work. Following were the changes and resultant outcomes:

☐   The incentive system was changed so that each girl's extra pay was based on the other five rather than output of larger group, say, 100 workers or so. The productivity increased as compared to before.

☐   Changes were made in rest intervals. Two to five minutes of rest intervals were introduced one in morning and other in evening session. These were than increased to 10 minutes. The productivity was increased.

☐   The rest period was reduced to five minutes but frequency was increased. The productivity was decreased slightly and the girls complained that frequent rest intervals affected the rhythm of the work.

☐   The number of rest period was reduced to two of ten minutes each, but in the morning, coffee or soup was served along with sandwich and in the evening, snack was provided. The productivity increased.

☐   Changes in working hours and workday were introduced, such as cutting an hour off the end of the day and eliminating Saturday work. The girls were allowed to leave at 4:30 p.m. instead of usual 5:00 p.m. Productivity increased in this case.

As each change was introduced absenteeism decreased, morale increased, and less supervision was required. It was assumed that these positive factors were there because of the various factors being adjusted and making them more positive. When conditions were reverted back to the original, the productivity was supposed to decrease but it increased further instead of decreasing. Thus it was concluded that the productivity increased not because of positive changes in physical factors but because of change in

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girl's attitude towards work and their work group. They developed a feeling of stability, sense of belongingness, responsibility and self- discipline because of more freedom of work given to them. The relationship between workers and supervisors flourished and became more friendly.

Mass Interviewing Programme

During the course of experiments, about 20,000 interviews were conducted between 1928 and 1930 to determine employee's attitude towards company, supervision, insurance plans, promotion, and wages. During the interviews, it was discovered that worker's behavior was being influenced by group behavior.

This study demonstrated:

☐ Powerful influence of upward communication.
☐ Complaints were symptoms of deep-rooted disturbances.
☐ Workers are governed by experience obtained from both inside and outside the company.
☐ The social organization of the company represents a system of values from which the worker derives satisfaction or dissatisfaction.
☐ The social demands of the worker are influenced by social experience in groups both inside and outside the work plant.

As a result of this study, the Working Condition Improved, Better Wages are introduced and the counselling system is brought into practise.

Bank Wiring Observation Room Experiments

These experiments were conducted to analyze the functioning of small group and its impact on individual behavior. A group of fourteen male workers was employed in the bank wiring room out of which nine wiremen, three soldiers and two inspectors. The work involved attaching wire to switches for certain equipment used in telephone exchange. Hourly wage rate for each worker was based on average output of each worker while bonus was to be determined on the basis of average group output. The hypothesis was that in order to earn more the workers will work more and in order to gain more group bonus they would help each other in their work. But the hypothesis did not hold valid. Worker decided the target for themselves which was lower than the company's target. The workers gave the following reasons for the restricted output:

☐ Fear of Unemployment: The fear among workers was that if there would be more production per head, some of the workers would be laid off.
☐ Fear of Raising the Standards: Most of the workers believed that if they will reach the standard rate of production determined by the company, the company may raise the standards reasoning that it must be easy to attain.

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☐ Protection of Slower workers: The workers were friendly on the job. Since slower workers were likely to be retrenched, the faster workers protected then by not overproducing.

☐ Satisfaction on the part of Management: According to workers, management seemed to accept the lower production rate as no one was being fired or even rebuked for restricted output. The workers in the group set certain norms of behavior including personal conduct. This study suggested that informal relationships are an important factor in determining the human behavior. The supervisors tended to understand and accept the problems of workers and management tried to sense their feelings which were helpful in formulating the action for resolving management employee conflicts.

Implications of Hawthorne Studies
- Illumination Study (November 1924): The mere practice of observing people's behavior tends to alter their behavior (Hawthorne Effect).
- Relay Assembly Test Room Study (1927-1932): Relationships between workers and their supervisors are powerful. Human interrelationships increase the amount and quality of worker participation in decision making.
- Interviewing Program (1928-1930): Demonstrated powerful influence of upward communication. Workers were asked for opinions, told they mattered, and positive attitudes toward company increased.
- Bank Wiring Room Observation Study (November 1931 - May 1932): Social groups can influence production and individual work behavior. Informal organization constrains employee behavior within formal organizational structure, Led future theorists to account for the existence of informal communication.

Taken together, these studies helped to document the powerful nature of social relations in the workplace and moved managers more toward the interpersonal aspects of organizing.

☐ Need for Organizational Behavior

It is very important to study organizational behavior because it provides an understanding of why people behave as they do in organizations. OB helps us to study the complex nature of human beings in organizations by identifying causes and effects of that behavior. Some of the importance of Organizational Behavior (OB) in any type of organizations is as follows:

☐ OB helps in understanding Organization and Employees in a better way

OB aids in understanding the organization and individuals better. When we can understand organization and employees, it grows cordial relationship amongst organization and employees making an appropriate workplace in an organization. OB discovers the factors causing the behavior, and applies different procedures to control the critical behavior which hurts the organization.

☐   OB helps in motivating employees

Studying OB encourages managers to persuade the employees improve organizational performance. As each individual differs from each other, subsequently OB causes managers to apply suitable motivational methods as per the nature of individual employees. This aids in accomplishing the organizational objective properly.

☐   OB helps in improving Industrial / Labor relations

OB enhances industrial/work relations. OB helps in understanding the basic reason of the issue, anticipate its future action and control its negative outcomes. As, managers know about the positive and negative outcomes of the behavior, it empowers managers to keep up cordial relations with their employees which makes peace and harmony in the organization.

☐   OB helps in predicting and controlling Human Behavior

OB predicts and control human behavior. It is the most essential purpose behind studying OB. Knowledge of OB is particularly imperative for the management understudies who will become managers in future. If OB is examined appropriately then it brings organizational effectiveness.

☐   OB helps in effective utilization of Human Resources

Knowledge of OB causes managers to oversee individuals effectively in the organization. It empowers managers to move and propel employees toward higher productivity and better outcomes as the administrator can examine and understand the nature and behavior of his employees.

☐   Disciplines that Contribute to OB Field

Organizational behavior is an applied behavioral science constructed on contributions from many behavioral disciplines, principally psychology, social psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Psychology's contributions are significantly at the individual or micro level of analysis, however the other disciplines have backed to our understanding of macro concepts such as group processes and organization.

Psychology

Psychology tends to measure, clarify, and sometimes change the behavior of people. The individuals who have contributed and keep on adding to the information of OB are learning

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theorists, personality theorists and, most critical, industrial and organizational psychologists.

Early industrial and organizational psychologists examined the issues of boredom, fatigue, and other working conditions that could block proficient work performance. Nowadays, their commitments have expanded to incorporate perception, attitude measurement, emotions, training, work design, learning, needs and motivational forces, decision-making processes, performance appraisals, personality, employee-selection techniques, job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and job stress.

Social psychology

Social psychology, by and large considered as a branch of psychology, mixes ideas from both psychology and sociology to concentrate on individuals' effect on each other. One noteworthy study area is change—how to actualize it and how to reduce obstaclesin its acceptance. Social psychologists also contribute in measuring, understanding, and changing attitudes; identifying communication patterns; and building trust. Lastly, they have made significant contributions to the study of power, conflict and group behavior.

Sociology

Psychology emphasis on the individual, sociology studies individuals in connection to their social culture or environment. Sociologists have contributed to OB through formal and complex group behaviour in the organization. Most critical, sociologists have explained organizational culture, formal organizational theory and structure, communication, power, and conflict.

Anthropology is the investigation of societies to find out about people and their activities. With the help of Anthropologists' work on cultures and environment we can easily understand the differences in the basic attitudes, values and behaviour between individuals in different organizations and countries.

☐   Challenges in Organisational Behavior
☐   Responding to Economic Pressure

Amid troublesome financial circumstances, successful management is regularly at a premium. Anyone can maintain an organization when business is success on the grounds that the contrast between great and unpleasant management mirrors the contrast between loss and profit. Managers are on the cutting edges with workers who must be terminated, who are requested to manage with less, and who stress about their prospects. The distinction amongst great and terrible management can be the contrast amongst benefit and misfortune or, eventually, amongst survival and disappointment.

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☐   Responding to Globalisation

The managers have to deal with increased foreign assignment, working with employees from different nations and taking care of the movement of jobs to the countries with lower cost.

☐   Managing workforce diversity

The most important difficulties for organizations is workforce diversity, Though globalization centres on contrasts among individuals from various nations, workforce diversity addresses contrasts among individuals inside given nations. Workforce diversity recognizes a workforce of women and men; numerous racial and ethnic groups; people with a range of physical or psychological abilities; also, individuals who contrast in age and gender. Dealing with this diversity is a worldwide concern.

☐   Improving customer service

Numerous organizations have disappeared in light of the fact that its representatives neglected to please customers. Administration needs to make a customer-responsive culture. OB can give extensive direction in making the managers who are respectful, open, proficient, prompt in reacting to customer needs, and willing to do what's important to satisfy the customer.

☐   Stimulating innovation and change

The present effective organizations must encourage development and change, or they'll move toward becoming unsuccessful. Success will go to the organizations that keep up their adaptability, ceaselessly enhance their quality, and beat their opposition with a consistent stream of creative items and administrations.

☐   Working in networked organizations

The manager's job is different in a networked organization. Motivating and leading people and making collaborative decisions online requires different techniques than when individuals are physically present in a single location. As more employees do their jobs by linking to others through networks, managers must develop new skills continuously. OB can provide valuable insights to help with improving those skills.

☐   Helping employees' work-life conflicts

Ongoing examinations recommend employees need occupations that give them adaptability in their work plans so they can better oversee work– life conflicts. Indeed,

adjusting work and life requests outperforming professional stability as an employee's important need.

☐   Improving ethical behavior

The present managers must make an ethically sound atmosphere for the employees, where they can do their work beneficially with clear idea about right versus wrong practices. Organizations that advance a solid ethical mission, urge employees to carry on with trustworthiness, and give solid initiative that can impact employee choices to act ethically.

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS:

1. What are the factors that contribute to the individual behavior?
2. Why is it important to study the Organisational Behavior?
3. Explain Hawthorne studies in detail.
4. What are the challenges to OB?

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UNIT II
PERSONALITY

Introduction

The definition of personality we most frequently use was produced by Gordon Allport nearly 70 years ago. Allport said personality is "the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment."

According to Salvatore Maddi, "Personality is a stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalties and differences in the psychological behaviour (thoughts, feelings and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment". In the words of R.T. Hogan, "Personality refers to the relatively stable pattern of behaviours and consistent internal states that explains a persons behavioural tendencies".

☐   Determinants of Personality
☐   Heredity
☐   Environment
☐   Situation
☐   Culture

Heredity

Heredity implies the factors decided at origination. Physical stature, facial attractiveness, gender, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are generally considered to be either completely or substantially influenced by who your parents are: that is, by their biological, physiological, and inherent psychological characteristics. The heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual's personality is the molecular structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes.

Environment

The environment is everything that influences the person with the exception of our genes. There are numerous potential environmental factors that shape the personality. These factors include ate the place we live and the general population around us. Our encounters in our everyday life, and in addition the general population whom we connect with, for

example, our family, companions, individuals in the school, in the congregation and the network impact our personality at a larger level.

Situation

Human personality is also influenced by situational factors. According to Milgram "Situation exerts an important pressure on the individual. It exercises constraints and may provide push.

In certain circumstances it is not so much the kind of person a man is, as the kind of situation in which he is placed, that determines his actions." Milgram certainly does not completely rule out the importance of the developmental aspects of personality but in addition demonstrated that the situation may potentially have a very big impact on the behavioural expression of personality.

Culture

Culture directs our lives and impacts the advancement of personality in every way, fundamentally by recommending and constraining what will be required to gain for improving the personality. Such culture expects and prepares the individuals to be successful in the group. Each culture has its own particular ideas, needs and strategies for upbringing and conduct.

☐ Major Personality attributes influencing OB
☐ Type A/B Behaviour

☐ Authoritarianism

☐ Bureaucratic

☐ Machiavellianism

☐ Locus of control

☐ Goal orientation

TypeABehavior
☐ Restless, Impatient,
☐ Does several things at once,
☐ Starts another before completing one,
☐ Schedules too many work in less time,
☐ Has no time to relax and enjoy
☐ Is stress prone

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Type B Behavior

☐ Never experience the ill effects of a feeling of time desperation with its going with anxiety;

☐ Feels no compelling reason to show or talk about either their accomplishments or achievements;

☐ Play for the sake of entertainment and unwinding, as opposed to show their predominance at any cost;

Authoritarianism

☐ Blind acceptance of authority
☐ Conservation, strong parental control
☐ Make good followers
☐ Dogmatic

Bureaucratic

☐ Respect for authority not totally blind
☐ Rule bound; do not take risks
☐ Better supervisors in routine, repetitive, proceduralised work.

Machiavellianism

☐ Cool, calculating
☐ Use others to serve their own goals
☐ Do not hesitate to lie
☐ Not swayed by friendship, trust, loyalty.
☐ Exploit vulnerable people

Locus of Control

Extent to which individuals believe

☐ they control their own lives (internals)

☐ external factors control their lives(external)

☐ Approaches to Personality (Theories)

The approaches to personality are listed below. They are

☐ Trait Theories

☐ Type Theories (Type A and B, explained earlier)

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☐   Behaviorist theories.

☐   Cognitive theories.

Trait Theory

Early work on the structure of personality attempted to distinguish and name persisting characteristics that portray an individual's behavior, including modest, forceful, meek, languid, goal-oriented, steadfast, and hesitant. When somebody shows these characteristics, we call them personality traits of that individual. Two special cases are the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the Big Five Model, now the prevailing structures for distinguishing and measuring traits.
The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is very extensively used and recognized instrument to measure individual's personality and it has been documented widely. The cornerstone of MBTI is the works of Carl Jung, who studied how the individuals' judgement and relationship to the outside world are influenced by the psychological preferences.

The strength of the preferences of the individuals are measured by the MBTI questionnaire with the help of following four dimensions: 1) Preference of individuals for focusing attention (Extroversion versus Introversion), 2) Preferences of individuals for acquiring information (Sensing versus Intuition), 3) Preferences of individuals for making decisions (Thinking versus Feeling) and 4) Preferences of individuals for orientation to the environment.

The Big Five Personality Inventory

The initial model of Big five personality traits was advanced by Ernest Tupes and Raymond Christal in 1961, but it was only in 1980's they were able to reach the academicians. Later in 1990, it was J.M. Digman who advanced the big five-factor model which in turn extended to the greater level by Lewis Goldberg. This five-factor subsume and composites of the well- known personality traits and assumed to depict the basic structure of all the personality traits. The following are the Big Five factors of Personality traits: 1. Extroversion 2. Agreeableness 3.Conscientiousness 4.Emotional stability and 5. Openness to experience

Extroversion

It is a personality dimension that explains the one who is assertive, gregarious and sociable. Extroverts prefer to talk, create attention and assert themselves. On the other

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hand, introverts lack the active level energy and exuberance of the extroverts. Extroverts prefer to be with a company and introverts prefer to be alone.

Agreeableness

It is a personality dimension that explains the one who is trusting, cooperative and good-natured. Individual differences in the context of social harmony and cooperation are reflected by Agreeableness. Agreeableness depicts how an individual could conform aptly to the social complexities of the situation.

Conscientiousness

It is a personality dimension that explains the one who is organised, dependable, responsible and persistent. The way individuals direct, control and regulate their impulses is known as conscientiousness. The need for achievement is included in conscientiousness. Conscientious individuals are persistent and make plans to avoid trouble and reach higher levels.

EmotionalStability

It is a personality dimension characterizes the one who is calm, secure and self-confident. People with emotional stability tend to be less emotionally reactive and always be calm and stable. People with emotional stability make themselves free from negative feelings and effectively cope up with stress. On the other hand, Neuroticism is emotionally reactive. They tend to be in bad mood filled with negative feelings often.

Openness to Experience

It is a personality dimension that characterises the one who has curiosity, imagination and sensitivity. Openness is always depicted as more mature and healthier sign by the psychologists. They tend to be curious, imaginative and artistically sensitive. On the other hand, closed people prefer familiarity to novelty and tend to be conservative and maintain status quo. While comparing the two theories of personality, MBTI exhibits simplicity whereas, Big five personality theory exhibits flexibility. The comparison of dimensions of MBTI and Big Five reveals that there is no match for "Emotional Stability and Agreeableness" traits of Big Five in MBTI. The results of Big Five tend to be more accurate and consistent and so it is widely used for research studies.
Freud's theory suggest that personality is composed of the id, the ego, and the superego.

Id: the unorganized, inborn part of personality whose purpose is to immediately reduce tensions relating to hunger, aggression, and other primitive impulses.

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Ego: restrains instinctual energy in order to maintain the safety of the individual and to help the person to be a member of society.

Superego: the rights and wrongs of society and consists of the conscience and the ego-ideal.

Freud's Theory:"The ID"
- The id uses the most primitive of thinking process.
- Basic biological urges (e.g., hunger, self-protection).
- The id operates on the Pleasure Principle.
- Seeks pleasure and avoids pain:"I want what I want NOW!"
- The id operates completely at an unconscious level.
- No direct contact with reality.

Freud's Theory: "The Ego"
- The ego consists of a conscious faculty for perceiving and dealing intelligently with reality.
- The ego acts as a mediator between the id and the superego.

- The ego is partly conscious.

- Deals with the demands of reality.

- Makes rational decisions.

- The ego serves the ID:

- The rational part of personality that maintains contact with reality.

- Governed by 'Reality Principle'

- "What consequences are there to my behavior?"

- The ego is the Executive of the personality

- The ego controls higher mental processes.

- Reasoning, problem solving.

- The ego uses these higher mental processes to help satisfy the urges of the ID.

Freud's Theory: "The Superego"
- Superego: the moral part of personality.

☐   Internalized rules of parents and society.

☐   Superego consists of two parts:

☐   Conscience: "notions of right/wrong."

☐   Ego Ideal: "how we ideally like to be."

☐   Superego: constrains us from gratifying every impulse (e.g., murder) because they are immoral, and not because we might get caught.
☐   Superego: partly conscious, partly unconscious.

According to Freud, an individual's feelings, thoughts, and behaviors are the result of the interaction of the id, the superego, and the ego. The id, the ego, and the superego are continually in conflict with one another. This conflict generates anxiety. If the ego did not effectively handle the resulting anxiety, people would be so overwhelmed with anxiety that they would not be able to carry on with the tasks of everyday living. The ego tries to control anxiety (i.e., to reduce anxiety) through the use of ego defense mechanisms.

Behaviourist Theory

Behavioral psychology, otherwise called behaviorism, is a theory of learning upheld by eminent behaviourists like John B. Watson and B.F. Skinner, behavioral hypotheses commanded brain research amid the early 50% of the twentieth century. Today, behavioral strategies are still generally utilized as a part of therapeutic settings to enable clients to learn new abilities and behaviors. Dissimilar to psychodynamic scholars, behaviorists consider just noticeable behavior. Their clarifications of personality centrearound learning. Skinner, Bandura, and Walter Mischel all proposed imperative behaviorist theories.

Self-Efficacy

Bandura used the term self-efficacy to refer to a person's belief that he or she can successfully carry "courses of action required to deal with prospective situations containing many ambiguous, unpredictable, and often stressful elements". Among the sources of self-efficacy are:

☐   Performance accomplishments: Past experiences of success and failure in attempts to accomplish goals are the most important regulators of self-efficacy;
☐   Vicarious experience: When individuals witness others' successes and failures, they are provided with information which they can use as a basis for comparison for their own personal competence in similar situations;

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☐   Verbal persuasion: Being told by others that one can or cannot competently perform a particular behaviour can lead to increases or decreases in self-efficacy;

☐   Emotional arousal: Levels of self-efficacy are also proposed to be influenced by the degree and quality of the emotional arousal an individual experiences when engaging in a particular behaviour in a specific situation.

CognitiveTheories

The term "cognitive psychology" was first used in 1967 by American psychologist UlricNeisser in his book 'Cognitive Psychology'. According to Neisser, cognition involves "all processes by which the sensory input is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, recovered, and used. It is concerned with these processes even when they operate in the absence of relevant stimulation, as in images and hallucinations. Given such a sweeping definition, it is apparent that cognition is involved in everything a human being might possibly do; that every psychological phenomenon is a cognitive phenomenon."
Stages of Cognitive Development

☐   Sensorimotor Stage - The principal stage of Piaget's theory endures from birth to roughly age two and is focused on the newborn child endeavouring to understand the world. In the course of the sensorimotor stage, a newborn child's information of the world is restricted to his or her tactile perceptions and motor exercises

☐   Preoperational Stage - The preoperational stage happens generally between the ages two and seven. Dialect advancement is one of the signs of this period. Amid the preoperational stage, kids additionally turn out to be progressively skilled at utilizing images, as confirmed by the expansion in playing and imagining.

☐   Concrete Operational Stage - The concrete operational stage starts around age seven and proceeds until roughly age eleven. Amid this time, children pick up a superior knowledge of mental tasks. Children start contemplating concrete occasions, however experience issues understanding abstract or hypothetical concepts.

☐   Formal Operational Stage - The formal operational stage starts at around age twelve to and keeps going into adulthood. Amid this time, individuals build up the capacity to consider abstract concepts. Abilities, for example, logical thought, deductive reasoning, and deliberate arranging additionally develop amid this stage.

ATTITUDES AND VALUES

Introduction

According to Hellriegel et al, attitudes are relatively lasting feelings, beliefs and behavioural tendencies directed towards specific people, groups, ideas, issues or objects. Attitudes alludes to feelings and beliefs of an individual or group of individuals. Attitudes continue until the point when something happens. It can fall anyplace along the continuum

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for exceptionally good to extremely horrible. They are composed and are center to an individual. All individuals, regardless of their status or intelligence, hold attitudes.Attitudes play a key role in social psychology because of the presumed connection between people's perceptions of their world and their behavior init. Managers also consider attitudes important. They commonly attribute an employee's poor work performance to a bad work attitude

Components of Attitudes

There are three components of attitude as follows:

☐ Affective

☐ Behavioral

☐ Cognitive

Affective: It describes the emotional or feeling segment of an attitude Behavioral: An intention to behave in a certain way toward someone or something Cognitive: The opinion or belief segment of an attitude

As an illustration, consider a person's positive attitude about his supervisor.The cognitive part of that attitude is the person's belief that his supervisor has high technical ability. The affective part includes his positive feelings and general liking of his supervisor. The behavioral intention part includes acceptinghis supervisor's directions and task assignments.The most common work attitudes studied by researchers are organizational commitment, satisfaction, and job involvement. These attitudes are important aspects of work experiences and play a role in employee turnover.Someresearch shows a consistent negative relationship between job satisfaction and intentions to leave an organization. Reflect on your present work situation.How would you rate your feelings of satisfaction with your job, your pay, and your supervisor?

There is a connection between attitudes and behavior, although it is not strong.Many other aspects of organizations and the people in them also affect behavior. For example, strong social norms or rules about a right way of behaving can affect behavior despite a person's attitude.

A person with strong attitudes about an object, issue, idea, or another person will usually behave in accord with that attitude. You have undoubtedly seen such strong attitudes in action. People who have a strong positive attitude aboutMacintosh computers are more likely to buy a Macintosh than an IBMcompatible personal computer(Champoux, 2010).

Formation and Functions of Attitude

Attitude can be formed through the following factors:Direct experience with the objects, Classical conditioning, Operant conditioning, Vicarious learning, Family and peer groups, Neighborhood, Economic status and Mass communication.

The functions of attitudes are:

☐ Adjustment

☐ Ego defensive

☐ Value expressive

☐ Knowledge

Adjustment – Employees frame uplifting attitudes towards their supervisors when communicated and unexpressed problems are illuminated by supervisors-The adjustment function coordinates individuals toward pleasurable or rewarding articles and far from upsetting, unfortunate ones. It serves the utilitarian idea of expanding reward and limiting punishment

Ego defensive – when subordinates give imaginative thoughts however bosses don't acknowledge - Attitudes solidified to shield the ego or mental self-portrait from dangers help satisfy the ego defensive function. As a matter of fact numerous outward expressions of such attitudes mirror the opposite the individual sees him to be. Such ego defensive attitude encourages us to ensure out mental self-portrait and frequently we are unconscious of them.

Value expressive – Value expressive attitudes empower the statement of the individual's halfway held values-Thus, a preservationist individual may build up a troublesome attitude toward brilliant attire

Knowledge – Attitudes change with new knowledge - Humans have a requirement for an organized and methodical world, and in this way they look for consistency dependability definition and comprehension. Out of this need creates attitudes toward gaining knowledge-Thus, out of our need to know come attitudes about what we trust we require or don't have to get it.

Measurement of Attitudes

Attitudes can be measured through

☐ Self-report

- ☐   Likert scale

- ☐   Osgood's scale

- ☐   Sociometry

Self-report

If you are in need of expressing your preferences to an interviewer or to compose your evaluations of something on a long questionnaire, you are involved in a self-report technique of attitude measurement.

Likert scale

The individual is requested to express his or her agreement or disagreement towards an issue. It requires the subject to express the degree of agreeableness or disagreeableness against the announcement recorded regarding the matter. This is normally done on a 5 point scale or a 7 point scale.

Osgood's scale

It contains pairs of adjectives opposite in meaning. The respondent is requested to give a prompt response to each pair of words by grabbing a proper number on a 7 point scale. The person's score is his or her aggregate score. Higher the score, more favorable is the state of mind and the other way around.

Sociometry

Using a natural group, every member of the group is requested to tag their desired partner for a certain activity. Then rank the rest of the group in order of preference, with reference to question such as "who would you most like to sit next".

Barriers to change Attitudes
Escalation of commitment

It indicates to the earlier commitment of individuals to a specific cause and their unwillingness to change.
Cognitive dissonance

It defines the scenario of inconsistency between an individual's attitude and behaviour.

Insufficient information

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Sometimes people see no reason why would change their attitudes

Ways to change Attitudes

- Be conscious of one's own attitude

- Think for self

- Understand that there are little, if any, profits from embracing negative attitudes

- Be open minded

- Get into uninterrupted education course or program

- Construct a positive self esteem

- Keep oneself away from negative influences like drugs, alcohol, smoking.

Work related Attitudes

The following are considered as work related attitudes

- Job Satisfaction

- Organizational Commitment

Job Satisfaction describes a positive or constructive feeling about a job, resultant of an evaluation of its characteristics. According to Robbins, "Organizational commitment is the degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in the organization".

- Values

According to M. Rokeach, Values represent basic convictions that "a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence. Values lay the foundation for our understanding of people's attitudes and motivation and influence our perceptions.

- Sources of Values

Parents, friends, teachers, and external reference groups can all influence individual values. Indeed, peoples' values develop as a product of the learning and experience they encounter in the cultural setting in which they live. As learning and experiences differ from one person to another, value differences result. Such differences are likely to be deep seated and difficult (though not impossible) to change; many have their roots in early childhood and the way a person has been raised.

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Sources of Value: Management Philosophy

A management philosophy links key goal-related issues with key collaboration issues and comes up with a series of general ways by which the firm will manage its affairs. A well-developed management philosophy is important because (1) it establishes generally understood boundaries on all members of the firm; (2) it provides a consistent way of approaching new and novel situations;and (3) it helps hold individuals together by assuring them of a known path toward success (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 2002).

Types of Values

Milton Rokeach created the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS).63 It consists of two sets of values, each containing 18 individual value items. One set, called terminal values, refers to desirable end-states. These are the goals a person would like to achieve during a lifetime. The other set, called instrumental values,refers to preferable modes of behavior, or means of achieving the terminal values.

Another frequently used classification of human values has been developed by psychologist Gordon Allport and his associates. These values fall into six major types:
☐   Theoretical—Interest in the discovery of truth through reasoning and systematic thinking.
☐   Economic—Interest in usefulness and practicality, including the accumulation of wealth.
☐   Aesthetic—Interest in beauty, form, and artistic harmony.

☐   Social—Interest in people and love as a human relationship.

Ethical Values

Ethics is the study of moral values or principles that guide our behaviour and inform us whether actions are right or wrong.Thus ethical values are related to moral judgments about rightandwrong.In recent years, there has been concern that individuals are not grounded in moral values.

Value across Culture

One of the extensively referenced approaches for analyzing variations among cultures was done in the late 1970s by Geert Hofstede. He found that managers and employees vary on five value dimensions of national culture:
☐   Power Distance. Power distance defines the degree to which individuals in a nation admit that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally.

☐ Individualism versus Collectivism. Individualism is the degree to which persons choose to act as individuals rather than as members of groups and believe in individual rights above all else. Collectivism stresses on a tight social framework in which individuals expect others in their groups to take care and protect them.

☐ Masculinity versus Femininity. A high masculinity rating specifies the culture has separate roles for men and women, with men dominating the society. A high femininity rating means the culture sees little differentiation between male and female roles and treats women as the equals of men in all respects.

☐ Uncertainty Avoidance. uncertainty avoidance. Refers to the degree to which people in a country prefer structured over unstructured situations.

☐ Long-Term Versus Short-Term Orientation. People in a culture with long-term orientation look to the future and value thrift, persistence, and tradition. In a short- term orientation, people value the here and now; they accept change more readily and don't see commitments as impediments to change.

More recently, the Global Leadership and OrganizationalBehavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research project identified nine dimensions on which national cultures differ. This study is an ongoing cross-cultural investigation of leadership and national culture that has used data from825 organizations in 62 countries. The GLOBE study confirms that Hofstede's five dimensions are still valid (his four original ones, plus the long-term orientation added through the merger of Bond's research with Hofstede's). However, the GLOBE study has added four dimensions and provides us with an updated measure of where countries rate on each dimension.The GLOBE dimensions are defined as follows:

☐ Assertiveness. The extent to which a society encourages people to be tough,confrontational, assertive, and competitive vs. modest and tender.

☐ Future orientation. The extent to which a society encourages and rewards future-oriented behaviours such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification. This is essentially equivalent to Hofstede's Long Term/short-term orientation.

☐ Gender differentiation. The extent to which a society maximizes gender role differences. This is essentially equivalent to Hofstede's masculinity/ femininity dimension.

☐ Uncertainty avoidance. As identified by Hofstede, the GLOBE team defined thisterm as a society's reliance on social norms and procedures to alleviate the unpredictability of future events.

☐ Power distance. As did Hofstede, the GLOBE team defined this as the extent to which members of a society expect power to be shared unequally .

☐ Individualism/collectivism. Again, this term was defined, as was Hofstede's, as the extent to which individuals are encouraged by societal institutions to be integrated into groups within organizations and society.

☐ In-group collectivism. In contrast to focusing on societal institutions, this dimension encompasses the extent to which members of a society take pride in membership in small groups, such as their families and circles of close friends, and the organizations in which they are employed.

☐   Performance orientation. The extent to which a society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.

☐   Humane orientation. The extent to which a society encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.Thisclosely approximates Hofstede's quality-of-life dimension.

Implications

Employees' performance and satisfaction are probably going to be higher if their values fit well with the organization. The individual who places extraordinary significance on creative ability, independence, and opportunity is probably going to be inadequately coordinated with an organization that looks for similarity from its employees. Managers will probably acknowledge, assess decidedly, and allot rewards to employees who fit in, and employees will probably be fulfilled on the off chance that they see they do fit in. This contends for administration to look for work competitors who have not just the capacity, experience, and inspiration to perform yet additionally an esteem framework good with the organizations.

PERCEPTION

Introduction

Perception is the process by which individuals select, organize, and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment. However, what we perceive can be substantially different from objective reality.Why is perception critical in the investigation of OB? Essentially on the grounds that individuals' behavior depends on their perception of what the truth is, not on reality itself. The world as it is perceived is the world that is behaviorally essential. Perception is a cognitive process that lets a person make sense of stimuli from the environment. These stimuli affect all senses: sight, touch, taste, smell, and hearing. The stimuli can come from other people, events, physical objects, or ideas. The perceptual process includes both the inputs to the person and the selection of inputs to which the person attends. A person's perceptual process learns from repeated exposure to stimuli and stores recallable images, which process future inputs faster. The perceptual process is a mechanism that helps people adapt to changing environments.

Factors that influence Perception

Perceiver. When you see a target and try to interpret what you see, your translation is vigorously impacted by your personal qualities—your states of mind, personality, thought processes, interests, past encounters, and desires. For example, if you anticipate that cops will be legitimate or youngsters to be inactive, you may see them in that way, paying a little attention to their genuine characteristics. A variety of factors affects our perceptions.

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Our attitudes and motives, interests, and past experiences all shape the way we perceive an event. We often interpret others' behaviours based on our own characteristics. People who take an optimistic approach to life act as if others will be just as upbeat, while those who are dishonest suspect others are equally dishonestChampoux(2010).

Target. Qualities of the target additionally influence what we see. Loud people are more likely to be noticed in a group than are quiet ones. So, too, are extremely attractive or unattractive individuals. Novelty, motion, sound, size, and other attributes of a target shape the way we see it. Because targets are not looked at in isolation, the relationship of a target to its background influences perception.

Situation. Context matters as well. The time at which we see a protest or occasion can impact our consideration, as can area, light, warm, or any number of situational factors. For instance, it might be entirely appropriate to wear shorts and T-shirts in a social setting, but not appropriate in a work setting. The time at which an object or event is seen can influence attention, as can location, light, heat, or any number of situational factors. Thus, it is possible to say that truth is often in the eye of the perceiver, rather than some objective fact.

Four Stages of Perception

The four stages of perception are as follows:

☐   Sensation

☐   Selection

☐   Organisation

☐   Interpretation

Sensation:

The capability of an individual to find the stimuli in an immediate environment.Sensations can be defined as the passive process of bringing information from the outside world into the body and to the brain. The process is passive in the sense that we do not have to be consciously engaging in a "sensing" process.Perception can be defined as the active process of selecting, organizing, and interpreting the information brought to the brain by the senses.

Selection:

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It is the procedure in which the individual avoid certain stimuli and proceed with the retained ones.Depending on the environment, and depending on us as individuals, we might focus on a familiar stimulus or something new. When we attend to one specific thing in our environment—whether it is a smell, a feeling, a sound, or something else entirely—it becomes the attended stimulus.

Organization:

The chosen stimuli are placed onto a framework. Once we have chosen to attend to a stimulus in the environment (consciously or unconsciously, though usually the latter), the choice sets off a series of reactions in our brain. This neural process starts with the activation of our sensory receptors (touch, taste, smell, sight, and hearing). The receptors transduce the input energy into neural activity, which is transmitted to our brains, where we construct a mental representation of the stimulus (or, in most cases, the multiple related stimuli) called a percept.

Interpretation:

The stimuli are interpreted in this continuous process and attributed with a meaning.After we have attended to a stimulus, and our brains have received and organized the information, we interpret it in a way that makes sense using our existing information about the world. Interpretation simply means that we take the information that we have sensed and organized and turn it into something that we can categorize.

Attribution Theory

People see, analyze, and explain the behavior of other people. They seek causes of behavior just as scientists search for an explanation of some phenomenon. People use attribution processes to explain the causes of behavior they see in others. The attribution process begins with a quick personal attribution followed by some adjustment based on the characteristics of the situation. Through the attribution process, people explain observed behavior by describing the observed person's characteristics or the situation surrounding that person.Attributiontheory attempts to clarify the ways by which we judge people in an unexpected way, contingent upon the significance we attribute to a given behavior. It proposes that when we watch a person's behavior, we try to interpret if it was internally or externally causedRobbins (2014).

The determinants of attribution theory are :1) Distinctiveness, (2) Consensus, and (3) Consistency.

 □ **Distinctiveness**

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Distinctiveness implies to regardless of whether an individual presentations diverse behaviors in various situations. Is the representative who arrives late today too one who frequently "passes over" duties? What we need to know is whether this behavior is irregular, with respect to others. In the event that it is, we are probably going to give it an external attribution. In the event that it's not, we will likely judge the behavior to be internal. Distinctiveness information comes from observing the target person in a different situation. If the person responds differently to the new situation, the perceiver attributes the cause of the original behavior to the situation. If the response is the same, the perceiver attributes the cause to the person.

☐ **Consensus**

If everyone who faces a similar situation responds in the same way, we can say the behavior shows consensus. The behavior of late to work employee meets this criterion if all employees who took the same route were also late. From an attribution viewpoint, if accord is high, you would likely give an external attribution to the representative's lateness, while if different workers who took the same course made it to chip away at time, you would attribute his delay to an internal cause. A perceiver gathers consensus information by observing other people in the same or a similar situation. If other people show the same behavior as the target person, then the situation, not the person, caused the behavior. If other people behave differently from the target person, then the person caused his behavior.

☐ **Consistency**

At long last, an observer searches for consistency in a man's activities. Does the individual react a similar path after some time? Coming in 10 minutes late for work isn't perceived similarly for a representative who hasn't been late for a few months as it is for a representative who is late a few times each week. The more predictable the behavior after some time, the more we are slanted to attribute it to internal causes.Consistency information comes from observing the person in a similar situation, but at a different time. Consistency is high if the person's behavior is the same at both times and low if the behavior is different. People combine consensus, distinctiveness, and consistency information to decide whether to attribute the causes of observed behavior to the person or to the situation. The perceiver attributes the cause of behavior to the person (personal attribution) when behavior is high in consistency and low in consensus and distinctiveness. The perceiver attributes the cause of behavior to the situation (situational attribution) when consensus and distinctiveness are high and consistency is low.

Here is an example of attribution processes in a work setting. Assume that you and a co-worker are both candidates for a promotion. You believe you are more qualified, but your co- worker gets the promotion. Now you try to explain why the promotion went to your co-worker. Attribution theory says you have two choices: the characteristics of the co-worker or the characteristics of the situation. You have observed your co-worker in

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different situations and noted wide variations in performance (high distinctiveness, low consistency). You also know your co-worker rides a Harley Davidson motorcycle, as does your supervisor (high consensus). You are disappointed, but do not feel you lost the promotion because of your skills and abilities. The information you have could easily let you conclude that your co-worker's promotion resulted from the situation (interest same as supervisor), not from the co-worker's skills and abilities.

Findings of Attribution Theory

☐ Errors or biases distort attributions

☐ While judging behavior of other people we underestimate the effect of external factors for behavior and overestimate the influence of internal factors (Fundamental attribution error)

☐ Eg. Sales manager is more likely to attribute poor performance of sales agents to their laziness rather than the innovative product line launched by the competitor.

☐ Individual Biases in Perception

Selective Perception

Individuals selectively interpret what they see on the basis of their interests, background, experience, and attitudes. Any characteristic that makes a person, an object, or an event stand out will increase the probability we will perceive it. Why? Because it is impossible for us to assimilate everything we see; we can take in only certain stimuli. This explains why you're more likely to notice cars like your own, or why a boss may reprimand some people and not others doing the same thing. Because we can't observe everything going on about us, we engage in selective perception.

Anchoring Bias

Anchoring bias is an inclination to focus on beginning information and neglect to enough change for consequent information. Anchors are broadly utilized by individuals in callings in which influence aptitudes are imperative to:advertising, management, politics, real estate, and law.

Confirmation Bias

The rational decision-making process assumes we objectively accumulate information. But in general, we don't. We selectively accumulate it. The confirmation bias speaks to a particular instance of specific recognition: We search out information that reaffirms our past decisions, and we markdown information that repudiates them. We additionally have a tendency to acknowledge at confront esteem information that confirms our biased

perspectives, while we are basic also, distrustful of information that difficulties them. Hence, the information we accumulate is ordinarily biased toward supporting perspectives we already hold.

Availability Bias

The availability bias is our propensity to construct judgments in light of data promptly accessible. Occasions that bring out feelings, are especially striking, or are later tend to be more accessible in our memory, driving us to overestimate the odds of unlikely occasions.

Escalation of Commitment

Escalation of commitment pertains to remaining with a decision notwithstanding when there is clear evidence it's incorrect. People escalate commitment to a bombing strategy when they see themselves as in charge of the disappointment.

Randomness Error

Our tendency to trust we can foresee the result of irregular occasions is the randomness error. Decision making endures when we endeavour to make importance in arbitrary occasions, especially when we transform imaginary examples into superstitions.

Hindsight Bias

The hindsight bias is the propensity to accept erroneously after the outcome is known, that we'd have precisely predicted it. When we have exact feedback on the outcome, we appear to be quite great at closing it was self-evident.

Halo Effect

Depiction of an overall impression about an individual on the grounds of a single characteristic.When we draw a general impression about an individual on the basisof a single characteristic, such as intelligence, sociability, or appearance, a halo effect is operating. The reality of the halo effect was confirmed in a classic study in whichsubjects were given a list of traits such as intelligent, skillful, practical, industrious, determined, and warm and asked to evaluate the person to whom those traits applied. Subjects judged the person to be wise, humorous, popular, and imaginative. When thesame list was modified to include "cold" instead of "warm," a completely different picture emerged. Clearly, the subjects were allowing a single trait to influence their overallimpression of the person they were judging(Robbins, 2014).

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Contrast Effects

Assessment of an individual's characteristics that are affected by comparisons with other individuals newly encountered who rank higher or lower on the same characteristics.

☐   Significance of Perception
☐   In the event that the manager has good perception in any department of an organization, the department team will have Safe Solution with risky ideas.
☐   To find innovative solutions for the problem.

☐   To leverage creativity and motivate the higher level of thinking.

☐   With the assistance of perception, habits and states of mind will get changed.

☐   With the help of perception, we can find solutions to the most troublesome problems.

☐   Ways to Reduce Biases
☐   Emphasis on goals.

☐   Flawless goals make decision making easier and help to exclude choices varying with your interests.
☐   Look for information that disconfirms beliefs.

☐   Obviously considering ways we could be wrong challenges our tendencies to think we're smarter than we actually are.
☐   Don't try to create meaning out of random events.

☐   Don't attempt to create meaning out of coincidence.

☐   Increase your options.

☐   The number and diversity of alternatives generated increases the chance of finding an outstanding one.

Link Between Perception and Individual Decision Making

Individuals in organizations make decisions, choices from among two or more alternatives.Top managers determine their organization's goals, what products or services to offer,how best to finance operations, or where to locate a new manufacturing plant. Middle- and lower-level managers set production schedules, select new employees, and decide how to allocate pay raises. Organizations have begun empowering their nonmanagerial employees with decision-making authority historically reserved for

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managers alone. Individual decision making is thus an important part of organizational behavior. But the way individuals make decisions and the quality of their choices are largely influenced by their perceptions.Decision making occurs as a reaction to a problem. That is, a discrepancy exists between the current state of affairs and some desired state, requiring us to consider alternative courses of action. If your car breaks down and you rely on it to get to work, you have a problem that requires a decision on your part. Unfortunately, most problems don't come neatly labelled "problem." One person's problem is another person's satisfactory state of affairs. One manager may view her division's 2 percent decline in quarterly sales to be a serious problem requiring immediate action on her part. In contrast, her counterpart in another division, who also had a 2 percent sales decrease, might consider that quite acceptable. So awareness that a problem exists and that a decision might or might not be needed is a perceptual issue.

Every decision requires us to interpret and evaluate information. We typically receive data from multiple sources and need to screen, process, and interpret them. Which data are relevant to the decision and which are not? Our perceptions will answer that question. We Also need to develop alternatives and evaluate their strengths and weaknesses. Again, our perceptual process will affect the final outcome. Finally, throughout the entire decision making process, perceptual errors often surface that can bias analysis and conclusions.
The Rational Model, Bounded Rationality, and Intuition

In OB, there are three generally accepted constructs of decision making each of us employs to make determinations: rational decision making, bounded rationality, and intuition. Though their processes outwardly make sense, they may not lead to the most accurate (or best) decisions. More importantly, there are times when one strategy may lead to a better outcome than another in a given situation.
Steps to be followed in Rational Decision making

We often think the best decision maker is rational and makes consistent, value-maximizing choices within specified constraints. These decisions follow a six-step rational decision-making model. The six steps are: Define the problem, Identify the decision criteria, Allocate weights to the criteria, Develop the alternatives, Evaluate the alternatives and Select the best alternative

The rational decision-making model relies on a number of assumptions, including that the decision maker has complete information, is able to identify all the relevant options in an unbiased manner, and chooses the option with the highest utility. As you might imagine, most decisions in the real world don't follow the rational model. People are usually content to find an acceptable or reasonable solution to a problem rather than an optimal one. Choices tend to be limited to the neighbourhood of the problem symptom and the current alternative.

Bounded Rationality

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Our limited information-processing capability makes it impossible to assimilate and understand all the information necessary to optimize. So Most people respond to a complex problem by reducing it to a level at which they can readily understand it. Also many problems don't have an optimal solution because they are too complicated to fit the rational decision- making model. So people satisfice; they seek solutions that are satisfactory and sufficient.Because the human mind cannot formulate and solve complex problems with full rationality, we operate within the confines of bounded rationality. We construct simplified models that extract the essential features from problems without capturing all their complexity. We can then behave rationally within the limits of the simple model.

How does bounded rationality work for the typical individual? Once we've identified a problem, we begin to search for criteria and alternatives. But the criteria are unlikely to be exhaustive. We identify choices that are easy to find and highly visible and that usually represent familiar criteria and tried-and-true solutions. Next, we begin reviewing them, focusing on alternatives that differ little from the choice currently in effect until we identify one that is "good enough"—that meets an acceptable level of performance. That ends our search. So the solution represents a satisficing choice—the first acceptable one we encounter—rather than an optimal one.Satisficing is not always a bad idea—a simple process may frequently be more sensible than the traditional rational decision-making model. To use the rational model in the real world, you need to gather a great deal of information about all the options, compute applicable weights, and then calculate values across a huge number of criteria. All of these processes can cost time, energy, and money. And if there are many unknown weights and preferences, the fully rational model may not be any more accurate than a best guess. Sometimes a fast-and-frugal process of solving problems might be your best option.intuition Perhaps the least rational way of making decisions is intuitive decision making, an unconscious process created from distilled experience. It occurs outside conscious thought; it relies on holistic associations, or links between disparate pieces of information; it's fast; and it's effectively charged, meaning it usually engages the emotions. While intuition isn't rational, it isn't necessarily wrong. Nor does it always contradict rational analysis; rather, the two can complement each other. But nor is intuition superstition, or the product of some magical or paranormal sixth sense. As one recent review noted, "Intuition is a highly complex and highly developed form of reasoning that is based on years of experience and learning.

LEARNING

Introduction

Learning is relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of reinforced practice or prior experience. It is a process of having one's behavior modified, more or less permanently, by what one does and consequences of one's action, or what one observes.The process of learning has great value for enriching human life in all spheres of life.All activities and behaviours that make personal, social and economic life peaceful and pleasurable are learned. Learning definitely affects human behaviour organizations.Nature of learning implies the trademark highlights of learning. Learning includes transform; it might possibly ensure change.

It ought to be lasting in nature, that is learning is for deep rooted. The adjustment in behavior is the consequence of experience, practice and training. Learning is reflected through behavior.

Components of Learning

The components of learning are as follows:

☐ Involves change

☐ Change should be relatively permanent

☐ Reflective in behaviour

☐ Change in behaviour should occur as a result of experience, practice or training

☐ Practice or experience must be reinforced in order for learning to occur.

Factors affecting Learning

Learning depends on some key factors that choose what changes will be caused by this experience. The key components or the central point that influence learning are motivation, practice, condition, and social group.

Returning to these components let us view these elements "

Motivation " Thecomfort, the help one gets to finish a work, to accomplish an objective is known as motivation. It is an imperative part of learning as it gives us a positive strength to finish atask. Illustration " The mentor inspired the players to win the match.

Practice " We all realize that "Practice makes us perfect". To finish the task, it is essential to practice what we have learnt. Example " We can be a software engineer just when we execute the codes we have composed.

Condition " We learn from our environment, we learn from the general population around us. They are of two kinds of condition – internal and external. A child when at home learns from the family which is an interior domain, however when sent to school , it is an external situation.

Social group " It our reasoning by the group of individuals we socialise. We influence and get influenced by a group of individuals with whom we associate. It can be for a social reason where individuals with a similar mentality work a similar way. Example " A group of tourists, explorers, and so on.

Difference between Education and Learning

Education, fundamentally, includes the introduction of material by the faculty to students who are learning about the topic. The material being examined is on a very basic level understood subject. Those exercises known as educating and preparing are incorporated into this category.

On the other hand, Learning is the way toward obtaining knowledge or expertise through investigation, experience or instructing. It is a procedure that relies upon involvement and prompts long-term changes in behavior potential. Behavior potential portrays the possible behavior of a person in a given circumstance keeping in mind the end goal to accomplish.

☐   Theories of Learning
The theories of learning are listed below. They are

☐   Classical Conditioning Theory

☐   Operant Conditioning Theory

☐   Social Learning Theory

☐   Cognitive Learning Theory

☐   Situated Learning

☐   Classical Conditioning Theory

The classical conditioning happens when a conditioned stimulus is combined with an unconditioned stimulus.Pavlov's work with dogs is well-known.

IA bell was ranged and food was served to the dog immediately after that. The dog was allowed to eat the food without any hassle. The routine was continued for a few days. A bell was ranged and the dog was immediately served with food.During the first few trials,

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the dog salivated at the sight of meat. The dog did not show any response towards the sound of the bell, but continued to salivate after the food was present.

After a number of such trials were conducted, a test trial was introduced with everything same as the previous trials, except that no food was presented following the sound of the bell. It was then seen that the dog still continued to salivate at the sound of the bell, expecting the presentation of food. This happened because the dog had connected the sound of the bell with the presentation of food. This salivation between the bell and food resulted in acquisition of a new response by the dog, i.e. salivation to the sound of the bell. This has been termed as conditioning.

In Pavlov's experiments the unconditioned stimulus (US) was the dog food because its effects did not depend on previous experience. Next, the conditioned stimulus (CS) (or conditional stimulus) was the bell sound because its effects depend on its association with food. Likewise, the responses of the dog follow the same conditioned-versus-unconditioned arrangement. The conditioned response (CR) is the response to the conditioned stimulus, whereas the unconditioned response (UR) corresponds to the unconditioned stimulus.

☐   Operant Conditioning Theory

Operant conditioning is otherwise called instrumental conditioning. This theory is a learning procedure in which behavior is delicate to, or controlled by its results. How about we take a case of a kid. A youngster may figure out how to open a case to get the treat inside, or figure out how to abstain from contacting a hot stove. In correlation, the classical conditioning builds up a connection between a stimulus and a behavior.

Key Concepts:

Conditioned behavior: voluntary behavior that is learned, not reflexive.

Reinforcement: the consequences of behavior which can increase or decrease the likelihood of behavior repetition.

Pleasing consequences increase likelihood of repetition. Rewards are most effective immediately after performance. Unrewarded/punished behavior is unlikely to be repeated.

Operant Conditioning

Reinforcement increase Behavior
Punishment Decrease Behavior

Positive Stimulus

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(something added)   Positive Reinforcement

Add something to increase behavior
Positive Punishment Add something to decrease behavior

Negative Stimulus

(something removed)
Negative Reinforcement

Remove something to increase behavior
Negative Punishment

Remove something to decrease behavior

Social Learning Theory

According to this theory, Learning isn't precisely behavioral, rather it is a cognitive procedure that happens in a social setting. Learning can happen by watching a behavior and by watching the results of the behavior (known as vicarious reinforcement). Learning incorporates perception, extraction of data from those perceptions, and settling on choices with respect to the execution of the behavior (known as observational learning or displaying). In this manner, learning can happen past a noticeable change in behavior. Reinforcement assumes an imperative part in learning however isn't totally in charge of learning.

Cognitive Factors
(also called "Personal Factors")
☐   Knowledge
☐   Expectations
☐   Attitudes

Environmental Factors
☐   Social Norms
☐   Access in Community
☐   Influence on Others (ability to change own environment)

Determines Human Behavior

Behavioral Factors
☐   Skills

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☐   Practice
☐   Self-efficacy
☐   **Cognitive Learning Theory**

Cognition characterizes a man's thoughts, contemplations, information, clarification, understanding about himself and condition. This theory considers learning as the result of deliberate thinking on an issue or circumstance in the light of well established actualities and reacting in a goal and more arranged way.

☐   **Situated Learning**

Situated Learning Theory, created by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger as a model of learning in a community of practice, advances that learning is involuntary and situated within authentic activity, context, and culture. Simply put, situated learning is learning that takes place in the same context in which it is applied.Situated learning is related to notion of learning through social development. Regular classroom learning activities involve abstract knowledge which is in and out of context.

Lave argues that learning is situated; that is,
☐   It occurs normally (unintentional rather than deliberate)
☐   It is embedded within activity
☐   It is embedded within context and
☐   It is embedded within culture.

Lave and Wenger (1991) call this unintentional learning a process of "Legitimate Peripheral Participation" (LPP). Implications of situated learning are :Knowledge needs to be presented in authentic contexts — settings and situations that would normally involve that knowledge.Social interaction and collaboration are essential components of situated learning — learners become involved in a "community of practice" which embodies certain beliefs and behaviours to be acquired.As the beginner or novice moves from the periphery of a community to its centre, he or she becomes more active and engaged within the culture and eventually assumes the role of an expert.

Principles of Learning Exercise

The principle of exercise states that those things most often repeated are best remembered. It is the basis of drill and practice. It has been proven that students learn best and retain information longer when they have meaningful practice and repetition. The key here is that the practice must be meaningful. It is clear that practice leads to improvement only when it is followed by positive feedback.

Effect

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The principle of effect is based on the emotional reaction of the student. It has a direct relationship to motivation. The principle of effect is that learning is strengthened when accompanied by a pleasant or satisfying feeling, and that learning is weakened when associated with an unpleasant feeling. , every learning experience should contain elements that leave the student with some good.

Primacy

The state of being first, often creates a strong, almost unshakable, impression. Things learned first create a strong impression in the mind that is difficult to erase. For the instructor, this means that what is taught must be right the first time. for example, a student learns a faulty technique, the instructor will have a difficult task correcting bad habits and "re teaching" correct ones. The student's first experience should be positive, functional, and lay the foundation for all that is to follow. What the student learns must be procedurally correct and applied the very first time.

Recent

The principle of recency states that things most recently learned are best remembered. Conversely, the further a student is removed time-wise from a new fact or understanding, the more difficult it is to remember. For example, it is fairly easy to recall a telephone number dialed a few minutes ago, but it is usually impossible to recall a new number dialed last week.

Intensity

The principle of intensity implies that a student will learn more from the real thing than from a substitute. For example, a student can get more understanding and appreciation of a movie by watching it than by reading the script. Likewise, a student is likely to gain greater understanding of tasks by performing them rather than merely reading about them.

Requirement

The law of requirement states that "we must have something to obtain or do something." It can be ability, skill, instrument or anything that may help us to learn or gain something. A starting point or root is needed; for example, if you want to draw a person, you need to have the materials with which to draw, and you must know how to draw a point, a line, and a figure and so on until you reach your goal, which is to draw a person.

Freedom

The principle of freedom states that things freely learned are best learned. Conversely, the further a student is coerced, the more difficult is for him to learn, assimilate and implement what is learned. Compulsion and coercion are antithetical to personal growth. The greater

the freedom enjoyed by individuals within a society, the greater the intellectual and moral advancement enjoyed by society as a whole.

Since learning is an active process, students must have freedom: freedom of choice, freedom of action, freedom to bear the results of action—these are the three great freedoms that constitute personal responsibility. If no freedom is granted, students may have little interest in learning.

MOTIVATION

Introduction

"Motivation represents an unsatisfactory need which creates a state of tension or disequilibrium, causing the individual to move in a goal directed pattern towards restoring a state of equilibrium, by satisfying the need" – Viteles. Motivation is the result of the interaction between the individual and the situation. According to Robbins, Motivation is "the processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal – specifically, an organizational goal."

Three key elements of motivation are as follows:

☐   Intensity – how hard a person tries

☐   Direction – effort that is channeled   toward, and consistent with, organizational goals

☐   Persistence – how long a person can maintain effort

Features of Motivation

The features of motivation are as follows,

☐   Motivation is an inside feeling

☐   Motivation yields goal focused behaviour

☐   Motivation comprises of systems orientation

☐   Motivation can either be positive or negative

☐   Motivation is different from job satisfaction

Importance of Motivation

The importance of the motivation is summarised as follows,

☐   With the help of motivation the resources are used most productively

☐   The efficiency of the output is increased

☐   Attainment of goals

☐   Workforce stability

Theories of Motivation

The theories of motivation are classified into the following main three categories

☐   Content Theories

☐   Process theories

☐   Reinforcement Theory

Content Theories

Content theory comprises of

☐   Maslow's need Hierarchy Theory

☐   Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

☐   Alderfer's ERG Model

☐   Theory X and Theory Y

Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

Maslow's approach was fundamentally not the same as prior theories by Freud and Skinner. He examined finest human beings to endorse his theory of motivation: Albert Einstein; Abraham Lincoln, Eleanor Roosevelt and so forth. Maslow's theory was bullish on the human race. In l Maslow's Theory there are four sorts of needs that must be fulfilled before an individual can act unselfishly. Maslow mentioned the lower needs as "deficiency needs" on the grounds that their need causes tension. We are headed to fulfill the lower needs, however are attracted to meet the higher ones.

Physiological needs are those required to sustain life, such as: Air, Water, Food, Sleep etc

Once physiological needs are met, one's attention turns to safety and security in order to be free from the threat of physical and emotional harm. Such needs might be fulfilled by:

☐ Living in a safe area

☐ Medical Facilities

☐ Job security

☐ Law and Order

Once a man has met the lower level physiological and safety needs, higher level come into picture. The primary level of higher level needs are social needs.Social needs are those connected to contact with others and may comprise:

☐ Friendship

☐ Belonging to a group

☐ Giving and receiving love

Esteem needs are categorized as internal or external. Internal esteem needs are those linked to self-esteem such as self respect and achievement. External esteem needs are those such as social status and recognition. Some esteem needs are:

☐ Self-respect

☐ Achievement

☐ Attention

☐ Recognition

☐ Reputation

Self-actualization is the peak of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. It is the pursuit of attaining one's full potential as a person. Self-actualized people tend to possess needs such as:

☐ Peace

☐ Truth & Justice

☐ Knowledge

☐ Meaning of life

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Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

This theory is also known as the motivation-hygiene theory or intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. According to Hertzberg, Motivation is a two stage process.The opposite of Satisfaction is No Satisfaction.The opposite of Dissatisfaction is No Dissatisfaction. According to Hertzberg, the factors leading to job satisfaction are "separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction". Factors for Dissatisfactionare :Company Policies, Supervision, Relationship with Supervisor and Peers, Work conditions, Salary/Perks, Status, Security etc. Factors for Satisfaction are: Growth opportunity, The work itself, Achievement, Responsibility, Recognition, Advancement etc.

Alderfer's ERG Model

This theory discusses about three different types of needs.

Existence   Needs

It contains all material and physiological cravings (e.g., water, food, air, safety, physical love, clothing, and affection).

Relatedness Needs

Includes social and external esteem; relationships with important others like family, friends, and employers. This also means to be recognized and feel secure as part of a group or family.

Growth   Needs

Internal esteem and self-actualization; these urge a person to make creative or productive effects on himself and the environment (e.g., to progress toward one's ideal self). This comprises wishes to be creative and productive, and to finish significant jobs.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor, an American social psychologist, proposed his famous X-Y theory in his 1960 book 'The Human Side OfEnterprise'. Two different opinions on human beings: Theory X (basically negative) and Theory Y (positive).
☐   Managers used a set of assumptions based on their view

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☐   The assumptions molded their behavior toward employees

Process Theory

Process Theory comprises of

☐   The Equity Theory

☐   The Expectancy theory

☐   The goal setting theory.

The Equity Theory

John Stacey Adams' equity theory helps explain why pay and conditions alone do not determine motivation. It also explains why giving one person a promotion or pay-rise can have a demotivating effect on others.

Employee behaviors to create equity:

☐   Change inputs (slack off)

☐   Change outcomes (increase output)

☐   Distort/change perceptions of self

☐   Distort/change perceptions of others

☐   Choose a different referent person

☐   Leave the field (quit the job)

☐   The Expectancy theory

This theory is propounded by Victor Vroom. It presents an effective, broad and beneficial approach to management. This theory is established on three concepts:
☐   Valence.

☐   Expectancy.

☐   Instrumentality.

According to this theory, the power of a tendency to act in a particular way be contingent on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of the outcome to the individual.

Expectancy theory

Effort-performance relationship Performance-reward relationship Rewards-personal goals relationship

The Goal setting Theory

This theory was propounded by Edwin Locke. According to him, the outcome of rational and intentional behavior is motivation. This theory suggested that the managers and subordinates should establish goals on a regular and systematic basis. Goals are supposed to be moderately difficult and specific. The goals are supposed to be SMART (Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Relevant and Time bounded). What is being expected must be known to an individual. At the basic level this helps the individuals to work towards their own goals. These goals are considered as a kind of motivation that helps in creating a bar for self-satisfaction with performance.

Goal setting and Feedback go hand in hand. If there is no proper feedback, the goal settings will not work properly. The following steps are to be followed for getting proper feedback:
☐ Generate a positive context for feedback.

☐ Use positive and constructive language.

☐ Emphasis on the strategies and behaviours.

☐ Modify feedback according to what is been expected by the individuals.

☐ Feedback must be a two-way communication process.

Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement theory of motivation was propounded by BF Skinner and his associates. It expresses that individual's behavior is a component of its outcomes. This theory centers absolutely around the end result for an individual when he makes some move. The managers utilize the accompanying strategies for controlling the behavior of the representatives:
☐ Positive Reinforcement

☐ Negative Reinforcement

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☐   Punishment

☐   Extinction

☐   Motivation Application and Managerial Implication
Motivation by Job Design: The JCM (JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL)

It is a concept of Hackman and Oldham. According to this concept, any job can be defined by way of five core job dimensions:

☐   Skill variety – Requirements for different tasks in the job.

☐   Task identity – Completion of a whole piece of work.

☐   Task significance – The job's impact on others.

☐   Autonomy – Level of discretion in decision making.

☐   Feedback – Amount of direct and clear information on performance.

The way elements in a job are organized (job design) impacts motivation, satisfaction, and performance.

Motivating Potential Score (MPS)

According to MPS, five dimensions combined into a single predictive index of motivation.

☐   People who work on jobs with high core dimensions are generally more motivated, satisfied, and productive.
☐   Job dimensions operate through the psychological states in influencing personal and work outcome variables rather than influencing them directly.

How Can Jobs Be Redesigned?
Jobs can be redesigned using the following methods:
Job Rotation: The periodic shifting of a worker from one task to another Job Enlargement: The horizontal expansion of jobs
Job Enrichment: The vertical expansion of jobs

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IMPORTANT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the determinants of personality.
2. What is type A & type B behavior?
3. Explain Big Five Personality theory.
4. Explain behaviourist theory of personality.
5. What are the various stages of cognitive development?
6. What do you mean by attitude? What are its components?
7. What are the barriers to changing attitude and how to overcome them?
8. Explain the types of values.
9. What are the factors that influence perception?
10. Explain Attribution theory in detail.
11. Explain the ways to reduce biases.
12. Explain the difference between education and learning
13. What are the various theories of learning?
14. Explain the principles of learning.
15. Explain the features and importance of motivation
16. Explain the various theories of motivation
17. Explain Job Characteristics Model (JCM) in detail.

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UNIT III
GROUP DYNAMICS

Introduction

A group is defined as two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent who have come together to achieve particular Objectives. Groups can be classified into formal and informal groups.Formal groups are those which are defined by the Organisation's Structure, designated work assignments and establishing tasks. Informal Group is neither formally structured nor organisationally determined. It appears in response to the need for social contact.

Types of Groups

Groups are classified into four types.

☐ Command Group

☐ Task Group

☐ Interest Group

☐ Friendship Group

Command Group

Command groups are under the formal organisation and are determined by Organisation chart. It consists of subordinates who have a direct contact with manager.

Task Group

Task groups are those who are working together to complete a job . Task groups members have not only contacts with the immediate hierarchical superior but with who have cross command relationships. It should be noted that all command groups are task groups but the reverse is not possible.

Interest Group

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Interest group are those working together to attain a specific objective with which it is concerned. Persons who join together to have their vacation schedule altered, or to seek improved working conditions.

Friendship Group

Friendship groups are those which are brought together because they share one aor more characteristics.

Work Group Behaviour

Success of a group depends on the ability of the group members, the size of the group, the level of conflict etc., Workgroups are the subset of larger Organisation System, so they are influenced by both External and Internals conditions. Internal conditions defines members role and norms. These factors determine interaction patterns within the group external conditions.

Organisations also form a part of the explanation of the groups Behaviour when we realise that groups are a subset of a larger organisation System

Organisation Strategy

Organisation overall strategy is laid down by the top management and it outlines the organisation goals and the means for attaining the goals. The strategy aimed by the Organisation, at any given time will influence the power of various work groups. For example if the organisation aims at selling off or closing down the major parts of its business then the work groups will have a reducing resource base, intragroup conflicts exist in the group in the group and the anxiety of the member increases. Though Organisation strategy seems to be an external condition but has a greater impact on the work group behaviour.

Authority Structure

Authority structure is that which defines who reports to whom, who makes decision what decision individuals or groups empowered to make. This structure is also correlated with the work group by determining the position of the work group in the Organisation's hierarchy, the formal leader of the group and formal relationships between groups

Formal Regulation

Employee behaviours are standardized when the organisation imposes rule procedures, policies, job descriptions and other forms to regulation. Regulation increases the behaviour pattern of the work group. The task can be accomplished on time with the help of

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regulations because rules make the work group complete the task then and there. the behaviour of the work group members will be consistent and predictable when more formal regulations are imposed by the organisation.

Organisational Resource

Resources such as money, time, raw materials and equipment forms an essential component in the Group's behaviour. Large and profitable organisations have lot of resources, so it becomes easy for the work group to accomplish their goals but case of organisations having limited resources, groups are not capable of accomplishing the goals. Therefore the presence of absence of resources, which are allotted to the groups have a large bearing on the group's behaviour.

Human Resources Selection Process

The criteria for selection of right person will also influence the work group behaviour because members of any group are first, the members of the organisation of which the group is a part.

Performance Evaluation and Reward System

Performance evaluation and reward system are the best initiators which influence the work group behaviour. Employees will be eager to know whether the organisation provides employees with challenging, specific performance objective or whether the organisation reward the accomplishment of individual or group objectives. Since the work groups are the part of the larger organisation system, work groups are influenced by how the organisation evaluates performance and what behaviours are rewarded.

Organisational Culture

Culture is one that defines standards of acceptable and unacceptable behaviour for employees. It takes few months for the employees to understand the organisation culture like how to dress for work, whether or not rules are rigidly enforced, what kinds of questionable behaviours are sure to get them into trouble and which are likely to be overlooked, the importance of honesty and integrity. Many organisations have subculture which are defined by the work groups, which still has a dominant culture that conveys to all employees, those values which the organisation holds nearer. So these cultures are to be implied to remain in good standing.

Physical Work Setting

Finally, physical work setting is also an important external party which has a direct bearing on work group behaviour. The whole physical layout of an employee's work space, the

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management of equipment etc., are decided by the architects, industrial engineers. These create both barriers and opportunities for work group interaction. Employees can talk or goof off if their work stations are closer and their is no physical barrier.

Stages of Group Development

Earlier days, most groups followed a specific sequence in their evaluation but the recent research indicates that there is no standardized pattern of group development. Following are the five stages of Group development :

☐   Forming

☐   Storming

☐   Norming

☐   Performing

☐   Adjourning

These stages form an important role in group development. The Group, in the stage reduces the insecurity of "standing alone", increase the power and spirit. At the last stage you can find the group in a well moulded manner because what cannot be achieved individually often becomes possible through group action.

Forming

In this stage, group has been formed but with much uncertainty about the group's purpose, structure and leadership. This stage is complete when the members think themselves as a part of the group.

Storming

It is the stage where the intra conflicts appear. Members accept the group but there is conflict over who will control the group. When this stage is complete, there will be a relatively clear hierarchy of leadership within the group.

Norming

In this stage close relationships develop and the group demonstrates cohesiveness. Group identity exists in this stage. Norming stage is complete only when the group forms a common set of expectations and defines correct member behaviour.

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Performing

The group structure at this point is fully accepted and functional. Group has moved from getting to know and understand each other to perform the task in case of permanent work groups, performing is the last stage in their development.

Adjourning

This is the final stage in group development. High task performance is not the group's top priority in this stage instead concerned with wrapping up activities. Group members responses vary in this stage. Some may be happy about the groups achievement and some may feel depressed the loss of friendship gained through the work group's life.

Groups do not always proceed from one stage to the next. Sometimes several stages go hand by hand, as when groups are storming and performing at the same time. Groups even occasionally go back to previous stages. Many interpreters of stage model has assumed that the group becomes effective as it passes through first four stages.

Five stages model, in terms of understanding work-related behaviour ignore organisational context. Group's Performance can be elevated with this organisation context because it provides the rules, task definitions, information and resources new for the group. Now a days group behaviour in organisations takes place within strong Organisational context. This five stage model has limited applicability in quest to understand work groups.

☐   Group Member Resources

Abilities and personality characteristics are the two major resources, which the members individually bring to the group. A group's potential performance depends on the resources, which the individual possess or bring to the group.

Abilities

Group performance can be predicted by assessing the task-relevant and intellectual abilities of its individual member. Abilities does not mean higher group performance but it set the parameters for what members can do and how effectively they will perform in a group. Following predictions can be made regarding ability and group performance:

Firstly, individuals who have the abilities for attaining the group task will be more involved in group activity, contribute more and emerge as group leaders and are more satisfied if their talents are effectively utilized by the group. Secondly, intellectual ability and task-related ability suggest other factors such as size of the group, the type of task being performed and level of conflict within the group will also influence performance.

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Personality Characteristics

Personality characteristics like energetic, competitive, goal oriented, sociable, self reliant and independent influence the group's performance. Research on relationship between personality traits and group attitudes and behaviour, gave a conclusion that attributes that tend to have a positive connotation to our culture, tend to be positively related to group productivity, morale and cohesiveness. Negatively evaluated traits such as Dominance, unconventionality tend to be negatively related to the dependent variables.

Group Processes

Group process is the next important component of our group behaviour. It considers the processes that go on within a work group like communication pattern used by the members for information exchanges, leader behaviour, power dynamic etc. Processes are important in understanding work behaviour because in group task mostly individuals reduce their effort. But group processes can also produce positive results that is groups can create outputs greater than the sum of their inputs.

Synergy

It is a term used in biology which refers to an action of two or more substances that results in an effect that is different from the individual summation of the substances. In case of researches positive synergy is produced because a meaningful research can be produced as a group than working independently.

Group Tasks

Tasks can be either simple or complex. Complex tasks are non-routine because it involves lot of discussion among members on alternative work methods, which will be beneficial to the group. Some tasks are routine and standardized. No discussions are received and they can rely on standardized Operating Procedures. When the task requires lot of inter dependence, group members need to interact more. Effective communication and minimal levels of conflict should be performed in case of interdependent tasks.

Complex task with high degree of interdependence and also the group is characterized by poor communication, weak leadership, high level of conflicts doesn't necessarily mean that it will be low performing. If the group tasks are simple and require little inter dependence among members, the group still may be effective.

Group Structure

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Groups exist in every Organisation. These work groups have a structure which moulds the behaviour of members. This structure makes possibility to explain and predict the behaviour of individuals within the group and also the performance of group itself. Some of the structural variables are,

- ☐ Formal leadership

- ☐ Roles

- ☐ Norms

- ☐ Group status

- ☐ Group size

- ☐ Composition of the group

Formal Leadership

A formal leader is there in almost all work groups. The leaders recognized by titles such as manager, supervisor etc., The success of an organisation or group within the organisation is depending upon the leader. Successful leaders give motivation to the followers to increase the level of productivity. The leader leads the organisation towards its goals. So, leader plays an important role in success of group.

Roles

"A set of expected behaviour patterns attributed to someone, occupying a given possible position in a social unit". In a group, all members play a role. It is easy to understand the role of behaviour, if each of us select one role and play it regularly. But, we are required to play different roles in different situations.

"Certain attitudes and behaviour consistent with a role" make the role identity. When people feel that the situation and its demands need major changes, they shift their roles continuously.

For example, if a person is given promotion, it is found that his attitudes are different from his attitudes before promotion. After sometime, if he is demoted his attitudes change and he adopted his attitude before promotion.

Norms

Norms have been established by all groups i.e., acceptable standards of behaviour shared by the group members. Norms tell the members what they have to do and what they must

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not do under certain situations. From an individual's standpoint, norms give idea that what is expected of individual in certain situations. But, when agreed by group members, norms play as a tool of influencing the behaviour of group members with minimum external controls.

Common Classes of Norms Norms

☐ Performance related norms

It deals with performance related process. Work group give their members ideas about how they should work hard, how to get job done, how to communicate properly, etc., These norms will affect the performance of individual. They are able to modify a performance prediction which was based on the liability of the employee and personal motivation level.

☐ Informal social arrangements

These norms come from informal work groups. It deals primarily about the social interactions with in the group. With whom the members take lunch, with whom this members have friendship on the job and outside the office.

☐ Allocation of resources

These norms can cover pay, assignment of jobs which are difficult and new instruments allocation and equipment.

☐ Appearance factor

It includes proper dressing, sincerity to work group.

What makes norms important?
☐ If it facilitates the survival of group.

☐ If it increases the predictability of behaviour of group members.

☐ If it reduces embarrassing interpersonal problems.

☐ If it allows members to express central values of group.

Group Status

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Group Status can be defined as a socially defined position or rank given to groups or group member by others. Status is an important factor for understanding human behaviour since it is a tool that gives motivation. Status has major behavioural consequences. Which individual see a disparity between his belief about his status to be and others view about it to be.

Generally groups agree within themselves on status. Therefore, there is usually an agreement in group rankings of individuals. However, individuals can feel themselves in a clash situation when they move with groups whose status criteria are different. In other words, they feel themselves in a struggling situation when they join groups whose members have heterogeneous background. When (heterogeneous) different groups are compelled to be interdependent, the difference in status create lot of problems as the group members try to align the differing hierarchies.

Group Size

Does size of the group have any effect on overall behaviour of group? Yes, it has effect on overall behaviour of group. Evidence shows that smaller groups are faster than larger groups in completing tasks.

German psychologist Ringlemann compared the results of individual and group performance. His result says that increase group size are inversely proportion to individual performance.

The research on size of the group give two additional conclusions. They are

☐ Group with an odd number of members tend to be more preferable to those with an even number.
☐ Groups which are made up of five or seven members are good at doing the job of exercising the best element of both small and large groups.

Composition of the Group

When a group is heterogeneous in terms of gender, personalities, opinions, abilities, skills and perspectives there is always a greater possibility for the group to have expected characteristics to get task done effectively. Evidence generally gives support to the conclusion that heterogeneous group performance is more effective than homogeneou's groups.

Decision Making

Decision making is the process whereby a final choice is made among the different alternative courses of action that available for solving complex problems." Decision can be made in group in different ways. The group leader can make work group decisions without consulting the members or decisions can be made through consultative process.

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Decisions can also be made for a group. Group decision making can be either through the consensus implies that all members must agree to the proposed decision whereas majority implies that it is enough for the majority to agree.

Strengths of Group Decision - Making

A group can generate complete information. By summing up the ideas of various individuals a group can collect more information in decision making process. When issues are complex and it requires heterogeneous skills, knowledge and experience to make a group decision making successful than individual decision making. However group decision making process require more inter personal skills among the members to make the discussion and decision a productive one. Needless to say the size of group has a great impact on group decision making outcomes.

Weakness of Decision Making in Groups

As a coin, group decision making has the other side too. One of the drawback is that its tentativeness in decision making. It is also time consuming and that it takes more time to reach any particular solution than those taken by individuals. Secondly there is a wide scope for confrontation. The deserts of a group member for his desire to be accepted as an a set can result in squander (waste) and leads to disagreement. Thirdly is the dominance by few or more members. If such a domination is composed of medium and low ability members the effectiveness of such of group will suffer. Finally results in ambiguity i.e., no individually will be made responsible for any outcome.

Group Decision Making Techniques

The interacting technique of decision making is most commonly used techniques. In such a group, there is a face to face communication among the members that they rely on both verbal and nonverbal communication. Brian storming, nominal groups techniques and electronic meetings are some of the important decision - making techniques. Most of the behavioural techniques have revolved around participation. Participation involve individual which can be formal or informal though it needs intellectual, emotional and physical involvement. The more experience and more open and unstructured the task, the more participation there will tend to be.

Brain Storming

Brian storming is a technique used to overcome the pressures for conformity in the interesting group that retard the development of alternatives. It uses idea generation process which specifically encourages creative alternatives against their cristicism. About a dozen or half of people join together in a brain storming session to come to an consensus. In such a session the problems are putforth clearly by the group leader so that each participant perceives in rightspace. No criticism are allowed and there is "free wheel"

and then alternatives are taken upfor discussion and further analysis. Thus a brain storming session generates mere ideas which helps in arriving at an effective group discussion.

Nominal Group Technique

The term Nominal means that in such a group decision, discussions or interpersonal communications are restricted. Though the group members are physically present in a committee meeting they do act independently. Following steps are taken when a problem is analysed.

Members meet as a group but each member act an individual , writes down his/her ideas. Each member of the group present one idea when he finds his turn. No discussion takes place until all ideas have been noted. Discussion regarding various alternatives or ideas are discussed and evaluated. The ideas drawn from the discussion are ordered according to their performance. The highest aggregate ranking determines the final decision. The main advantage of nominal group technique is that though the members form a group to meet formally, there is no restriction for their independent technique as in interacting group.

Electronic Meeting

The recent approach for group decision making is that the use of highly developed and sophisticated computer technology along with nominal group technique. The electronic meeting concept is simple that upto 50 people can sit around and type their ideas and responses onto their computer screen; However individual comments are valued and also displayed on the screen. Anonymity, honesty and speed add feathers to electronic meeting. It allows the members to be honest without penalising them.

Delphi Technique

It is very popular in the recent times for long range to recasting. No decision technique will ever be able to predict the future completely, as Delphi technique seems to be as good as a crystal. Today numerous organisations, business, education government and the military are using the Delphi technique. Delphi technique works as follows:

☐ A group is formed but the members are not in face to face interactions, thus avoiding the expenses of bringing them together.

☐ Each member is asked to make anonymous predictions into the problem, the panel is charged with.

☐ Each panel member then receives composite feedback from ideas expressed by other members. The reasons are listed anonymously but mostly just a composite figure is used.

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☐   On the basis of feedback another round of anonymous input are made. These iterations take place for a determined number of times until the composite feedbacks remain the same, which means everyone is sticking to his or her own position.

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Introduction

Interpersonal communication is communication between two persons or between one person and a group. When communication takes place between two persons it is called Dyadic communication. Interpersonal communication is direct and not mediated by media technology. Interpersonal communication is needed for the maintenance and development of personal relationships as well as social systems. It is difficult to think of any social group functioning as a unit or group without interpersonal communication. A community or group is not merely an assortment of individuals, but a cohesive unit. It gets a sense of unity and identity as a result of communication. Relationships are created and maintained by interpersonal communication

Elements in Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication may be verbal or non-verbal. In this process, both the sender and receiver are aware of the process of interaction by which messages are sent and received. We may identify two kinds of interpersonal communication -transaction and interaction. By transaction we mean private taUc between friends, family members, lovers etc. This kind of communication is more informal and do not need to confirm to public or social rules. In interaction, on the other hand, people relate to each other within the framework of certain established norms and rules of behaviour. These include social etiquette, religious or social norms that govern conduct, speech etc. Most relationships begin with interaction and move on to the level of transaction.

In interpersonal communication the process of sending and receiving takes places almost simultaneously, so much so it is not always easy to say when a person is sending or when one is receiving a message. For instance, the one who is talking to another individual or a group besides sending messages, searches for the reaction of his audience. He adjusts the message according to the feedback he is getting from his listeners. If the listener is seen to be bored or disinterested, the speaker may skip some portions of what he wants to say, or change topics or stop speaking altogether.

The one who communicates must constantly adjust his or her message according to the reactions of the listeners-attention, ability to grasp, approval. He or she must constantly monitor the facial expressions, gestures, sounds etc. of his audience. In interpersonal communication, there is constant interaction and both the parties speak or communicate. The interpersonal communication process is flexible. For instance, a grandmother who

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tells tales or sings lullabies to put a child to sleep. The grandmother stops the story or the song even before it is completed, if she sees the child has already fallen asleep.

We receive most of the information about ourselves and other people through interpersonal communication. The amount of information we receive and its value will depend on the degree of our willingness to enter into communication with others and our willingness to share information with them. Interpersonal communication involves choices. It calls for making decisions. We can communicate or chose to ignore persons or groups we encounter.

For instance, in travelling in a railway compartment, we may be in the midst of strangers. We may travel a long distance without any communication, or we may strike up a conversation, and then begin to build relationships by means of interpersonal communication. Many of our acquaintances and friends are the result of efforts we have made or willingness we have shown in order to enter into interpersonal communication.

Interpersonal communication calls for skills in order to interact effectively with others. Knowledge of social norms and behaviour and etiquette, ability and willingness to listen, concern and respect for one another, willingness to share about oneself etc. are also important components which make for successful interpersonal communication.

Barriers to Interpersonal Communication

There can be several barriers that block interpersonal communication. These include I social or cultural prejudices, superiority- inferiority complexes that affect people because of religious affiliation, cultural notions about oneself, economic status, ethnic identity. In India the caste system and caste hierarchy can prevent effective interpersonal communication between people belonging to Werent caste categories. Even though such barriers block effective communication, interpersonal communication can be used as an effective means to overcome social differences.

Cultural biases constitute another barrier in interpersonal communication. The idea of racial superiority promoted by Hitler led to the killing of millions of Jews. Social barriers include prejudices against women, discrimination against the socially marginalized, the economically disadvantaged etc.

Barriers in communication include also communication gap due to differences of age, mentality, and attitudes; lack of communication between married partners, members of a family etc. These can lead to boredom, frustration, loneliness, dejection and other personality complexes. Failure to interact effectively at the interpersonal level leads a person to be withdrawn, cut of from society. More aggressive forms of such maladjustment can even lead to violent behaviour, suicide etc.

Success in interpersonal communication would mean overcoming these and other barriers. It involves both partners in the process. Inability to communicate effectively on the interpersonal level is the root cause of many social and family disorders.

Effective interpersonal relationship can build a family and community, build up I qocial cohesion. Effective social communication equips individuals and groups with what David Riseman refers to as " internal radar": which enables one to adopt and adjoin oneself to fit into society.

Merits of Interpersonal Communication

One of the benefits of interpersonal communication is that it establishes and sustains our social moorings. When people communicate with each other effectively, they find others with whom they can associate. They develop identities, such as friends, lovers, colleagues, bosses, neighbours, family members.
☐   Interpersonal communication helps people fit into society and receive acceptance, thus get rid of loneliness and boredom.
☐   to assists in accomplishing one's goals with others. Interpersonal communication may serve as the ground for cooperation and collaboration in achieving what we want our goals.
☐   It helps people to identify and follow rules of social interaction.
Our society is governed by rules. Violation of rules or our inability to follow social norms may lead to rejection and isolation. Interpersonal communication calls for skills. Skills can be acquired or learned. The ability to acquire skills and to become proficient in their use depends on several factors such as: Drives and needs, rewards and reinforcement, Perceptive and cognitive faculties, aptitudes, attitudes and environment, Personality of the individual Psychological, Biological factors, Sociological factors, Learning abilities of the individual motivation and willingness to learn.

Interpersonal Communication Skills
Speech, Language

Though the origin of human speech remains obscure, with reasonable certainty we can assume that human beings were born with an instinct of speech. Vocal communication has been a siwcant step in the history of human civilization. The development of language, through its primitive form and over several centuries, contributed substantially to enhance the process of interpersonal communication.

In order to use communication effectively, one needs to have effective speaking skills. Oratory or rhetoric, mastery of language and effective use of vocabulary, which form important elements in communication, can be acquired by learning and perfected by practice.

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Body Language: In some cultures people use their hands and face a lot to convey messages. The body language or gestures are important in order to keep the attention of the receiver. A magician or puppeteer or a clown in a circus shows how body language is an important component in effective interpersonal communication.

Identification with people, empathy and understanding: Interpersonal communication can become a very creative form of reaching out to others by bringing comfort to people, alleviating their sorrow or suffering, helping them overcome loneliness and boredom. The counsellors, religious leaders, relief workers and sometimes media persons who visit people in adverse circumstances as in an accident or natural disaster do this.

Listening

Interpersonal communication involves two or more individuals and it provides a congenial atmosphere for communication. It should be two way, interactive, and mutual. Listening is an essential element of such communication. Though listening is an important element in communication, this skill is often neglected in training programmes in communication skills. Listening skills can be developed by means of training. Listening is more than just hearing the words of the speaker, but trying to grasp the meaning. Meanings are constructed by the listener, and this calls for paying attention to factors like: gestures, facial expression, silences or pauses, voice modulation etc.

Listening can improve the performance of families, industry, business etc. In a company where the supervisors and managers are poor listeners, there can be many problems. Effective listening can reduce tension, conflict, and improve the morale and motivation of the staff.

Interpersonal Communication is Participatory

Interpersonal communication is participatory. The chances of communication I breakdown are much less as the communication partners are face to face and the words and symbols are picked up and interpreted in the presence of each other. The feedback is instantaneous as expressed in the form of body language or verbal assent or dissent.

Subir Ghosh narrates how in the days before microphones came into use, Gandhiji addressed vast multitudes in open spaces where the people in the front conveyed his words to those sitting or standing behind them. Gandhi chose his words and timed them so as to help this process. It was extremely effective because it involved receivers of the message in the act of communication.

In spite of the rapid progress in the information and communication technology (ICT), the most powerful and persuasive, the most effective means of communication continues to be the one in which an individual speaking to another. Recent developments in

teleconferencing and electronic chat or widespread use of mobile and cellular phones are only limited expressions of the warm, intimate, personal communication.

Interpersonal communication can also be used to build cooperation and resolve conflicts. Many of the social conflicts today can be traced back to poor knowledge of others - be they members of a family, religious group, political party or other social organisation. Conflict resolution and promotion of peace can be effected through interpersonal communication. In international relations and global efforts to resolve conflicts between nations, the process of interpersonal communication is being used effectively today. Persons representing the governments or the countries or other organisations, need good communication skills in bringing about the desired results.

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the stages in the development of groups.
2. Explain the types of groups.
3. Briefly discuss the groups decision - making techniques.
4. List out the elements of interpersonal communication.
5. Explain the barriers to interpersonal communication.
6. Discuss the merits of interpersonal communication
7. What are the skills required to interpersonal communication?

UNIT IV
LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Introduction

The current organisational behaviour theory views leadership as well as other organisational behaviour concepts and theories as situational, or contingent in nature. Chester Schriesheim, James Tolliver, and Orlando Behling noted "the literature supports the basic notion that a situational view is necessary to portray accurately the complexities of the leadership process." Victor Vroom concurred, "I do not see any form of leadership as optimal for all situations. The contribution of a leader's actions to the effectiveness of his organisation cannot be determined without considering the nature of the situation in which that behaviour is displayed."

There are three main components of the leadership process as the leader, the follower, and the situation. Situational approaches to leadership examine the interplay among these variables in order to find fundamental relationships that will lead to predictability of behaviour. All situational approaches require the leader to behave in a flexible manner, to be able to diagnose the leadership style appropriate to the situation, and to be able to apply the appropriate style.

Although there are many situational models and theories, the focus is on four that have received wide attention in leadership research. Fiedler's Contingency model, the House-Mitchell Path-Goal theory, Vroom-Yetten Contingency model, and the Hersey-Blanchard Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness model.

Fiedler'sContingency Model

Widely respected as the father of the contingency theory of leadership, Fred Fiedler developed the Leadership Contingency model. He suggested that three major situational variables determine whether a given situation is favourable to leaders:

☐   Their personal relations with the members of their group (leader-member relations),

☐   The degree of structure in the task that their group has been assigned to perform (task structure), and

☐   The power and authority that their position provides (position power).

Leader-member relations seem to parallel the relationship concepts; task structure and position power, which measure very closely related aspects of a situation, seem to be

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associated with task concepts. Fiedler defined the favourableness of a situation as the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert influence over the group.

In this model, as shown in Figure 9.1, eight possible combinations of these three situational variables can occur. As a leadership situation varies from good to poor on leadership-member relations, high to low on task structure, and strong to weak on position power, it will fall into one of the eight combinations (categories) indicated in Figure 9.1. The most favourable situation for leaders to influence their groups is one in which they are well liked by the members (good leader-member relations), have a powerful position (strong position power), and are directing a well-defined job (high task structure); for example, a well-liked general making an inspection in an army camp. 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-such as an unpopular head of a voluntary hospital fund-raising committee.

Having developed this model for classifying group situations, Fiedler attempted to determine what the most effective leadership style - task-oriented or relationship-oriented for each of the eight situations. In a re-examination of old leadership studies and an analysis of new studies, Fiedler concluded that:

☐ Task-oriented leaders tend to perform best in group situations that are either very favourable or very unfavourable to the leader.

☐ in favourableness.

☐ Relationship-oriented leaders tend to perform best in situations that are intermediate

These conclusions are summarized in Figure 9.2. They are also shown in Figure 8.1 in graphic form by the solid and dashed lines. Task-oriented leadership, illustrated by the dashed line, is most effective under the conditions in categories I through III and VIII. Relationship- oriented leadership, illustrated by the solid line, is most effective under the conditions in category

Fiedler has made an important contribution to leadership theory, particularly in his focus on situational variables as moderating influences. Fiedler's model has research support, particularly in its general conclusions represented in Figure 8.1. He may, in his single continuum of leader behaviour, be suggesting that there are only two basic leader behaviour styles, task- oriented and relationship-oriented. Most evidence indicates that leader behaviour must be plotted on two separate axes rather than on a single continuum. Thus, a leader who is high on task behaviour is not necessarily high or low on relationship behaviour. Any combination of the two dimensions may occur.

House-Mitchell Path-Goal Theory

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The Path-Goal model builds upon two concepts - the Ohio State Leadership studies and the Expectancy Model of Motivation. The Expectancy model focused on the effort-performance and the performance-goal satisfaction (reward) linkages. The key dimensions of the Ohio State model are initiating structure and consideration and that the model suggested that the most effective leaders would be high on both the initiating structure and the consideration dimensions.

Robert House, who did much of his early leadership research at Ohio State University, was interested in explaining the contradictions in the Ohio State model: for example, the situations in which initiating structure, consideration, or certain combinations of the two variables were not as effective as predicted. In other words, he was interested in explaining not only which style of leadership was effective but also why. He was interested in those situations in which initiating structure was most appropriate and those situations where consideration was most appropriate. It is important to state why this theory is called the path-goal theory. House and Mitchell explained it in this manner:

According to this theory, leaders are effective because of their impact on [followers'] motivation, ability to perform effectively and satisfactions. The theory is called Path-Goal because its major concern is how the leader influences the [followers'] 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 [followers'] goal attainment and clarifies the path to these goals.

The Path-Goal theory relates very well to the Expectancy model and the Ohio State Leadership model. The Expectancy model tells us that "people are satisfied with their job if they work hard, if they believe that effort [path] leads to things that are highly valued."

The leadership model is related because "subordinates are motivated [path] by leader behaviour to the extent that this behaviour influences expectancies [goal]." Leaders do this best according to Path-Goal theory when they supply what is missing from the situation. If clarification is missing, then the leader should provide structure. If intrinsic and or extrinsic rewards are missing, then the leader should provide rewards. Richard Daft summarized this idea; "The leader's job is to increase personal payoffs to followers for goal attainment and to make the paths to these payoffs clear and easy to travel.

These relationships are shown in Figure 8.3. The leader can be seen as clarifying the path on the left side of this figure while increasing rewards on the right side. The end result of these leader actions is follower-increased effort and motivation leading to greater accomplishment of organisational work outcomes.

Four situations are described calling for different impact on the follower and result in different performance expectations in an ambiguous job, directive leadership spelling out more who, what, when, and how to serve to clarify work methods, procedures, and

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objectives. This clarification may lead to more effort, increased satisfaction and improved job performance. Path-Goal theory is an excellent example of the need to diagnose a situation before attempting a leadership intervention.

Vroom-Yetten Contingency Model

The Contingency model developed by Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetten is based on a model commonly used by researchers who take a contingency approach to leadership. This model, shown in Figure 9.5, is based on the assumption that situational variables interacting with personal attributes or characteristics of the leader result in leader behaviour that can affect organisation is part of the situation-can, in turn, affect the next leadership intervention.

Because Figure 9.5 blends several of the ideas we have already listed and will be considering in our discussion of leadership, it is important that we pause to look at it in some detail. Figure 9.5 assumes that situational variables (1) such as followers, time, and job demands, interacting with personal attributes (2) of the leader, such as experience or communication skills, result in leader behaviour (3), such as a directive style of leadership, to influence organisational effectiveness (4) which is also influenced by other situational variables (1a) outside the control of the leader - for example, world economic conditions, actions of competitors, government legislation.

How does the Vroom-Yetten Contingency model work? Assume that you have decided to let your group participate in making a decision. You can use Figure 8.6 as a guide, by asking questions A through G in sequence. Table 9.1 describes the five different types of decision styles possible in this model. Table 9.2 lists seven problem attributes (A through G) together with their corresponding diagnostic questions. You will note that these diagnostic questions are the same.

This model is a contingency model because the leader's possible behaviours are contingent upon the interaction between the questions and the leader's assessment of the situation in developing a response to the questions. Perhaps you recognized that the questions used the quality and acceptance aspects of decision making popularized by Norman R.F. Maier. The first three questions concern the quality or technical accuracy of the decision, and the last four concern the acceptance of the decision by the group members. The questions are designed to eliminate alternatives that would jeopardize the quality or the acceptance of the decision, as appropriate.

The Vroom-Yetten approach is important for several reasons. One is that it is widely respected among researchers in leadership behaviour. Another reason is that the authors believe that leaders have the ability to vary their styles to fit the situation. This point is critical to acceptance of situational approaches to leadership. A third reason is that authors believe that people can be developed into more effective leaders.

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Sl. No.   PROBLEM ATTRIBUTES DIAGNOSTIC QUESTIONS

1.   The importance of the quality of the decision   Is there a quality requirement such that one solution is likely to be more rational than another?

2.   The extent to which the leader possesses sufficient information/ expertise to make a high-quality   Do I have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision? decision.

3.   The extent to which the problem is structured.   Is the problem structured?

4.   The extent to which acceptance or commitment on the part of [followers] is critical to the effective implementation of decision. Is acceptance of the decision by [followers] critical to effective implementation?

5.   The prior probability that the leader's autocratic decision will receive acceptance by subordinates.   If I were to make the decision by myself, is it reasonable certain that it would be accepted by my [followers]?

6.   The extent to which [followers] are motivated to attain the organisational goals as represented in the objectives explicit in the statement of the problem.   Do   [followers] share the organisational goals to be obtained in solving the problem?

7.   The extent to which [followers] are likely to be in conflict over preferred solutions. Is conflict among [followers] likely in preferred solutions?

Hersely-Blanchard Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness Model

In this leadership model, the terms task behaviour and relationship behaviour are used to describe concepts similar to initiating structure and consideration of the Ohio State studies. The four basic leader behaviour quadrants are labelled high task and low relationship; high task and high relationship; high relationship and low task; and low relationship and low task.

These four basic styles depict essentially different leadership styles. The leadership style of an individual is behavioural pattern, as perceived by others, that a person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of those others. This may be very different from a person's own perception, which we shall define as self-perception rather that style. A person's leadership style involves some combination of task behaviour and relationship behaviour. The two types of the behaviour, which are central to the concept of leadership style, are defined as follows:

Task behaviour : The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers) and to explain what actives each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavouring to establish well- defined patterns of organisation, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.

Relationship behaviour : The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up

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channels of communications, providing socioemotional support, active listening, "psychological strokes," and facilitating behaviour.

Effectiveness Dimension

The effectiveness of leaders depends on how appropriate their leadership style is to the situation in which they operate. Therefore an effectiveness dimension should be added to the two-dimensional model. This three-dimensional model is illustrated in Figure 8.8.

In his "3-D Management Style Theory," William J. Reddin was the first to add an effectiveness dimension to the task concern and relationship concern dimensions of earlier attitudinal model such as the Leadership Grid. Redden, whose pioneering work influenced us greatly in the development of the Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness model presented here, felt that a useful theoretical model "must allow that a variety of styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation".

By adding an effectiveness dimension to the task behaviour and relationship behaviour dimensions of the earlier Ohio State Leadership model, we are attempting in the Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness model to integrate the concepts of leader style with situational demands of a specific environment. When the style of a leader is appropriate to a given situation, it is termed effective; when the style is inappropriate to a given situation, it is termed ineffective.

If the effectiveness of a leader behaviour style depends on the situation in which it is used, it follows that any of the basic styles may be effective or ineffective, depending on the situation. The difference between the effective and ineffective styles is often not the actual behaviour of the leader, but the appropriateness of that behaviour to the environment in which it is used. In reality, the third dimension is the environment. It is the interaction of the basic style with the environment that results in a degree of effectiveness or ineffectiveness. We call the third dimension effectiveness because in most organisational settings various performance criteria are used to measure the degree of effectiveness or ineffectiveness of a manager or leader. But we feel it is important to keep in mind that the third dimension is the environment in which the leader is operating. One might think of the leader's basic style as a particular stimulus, and it is the response to this stimulus that can be considered effective or ineffective. This point is important because theorists and practitioners who argue that there is one best style of leadership are making value judgements about the stimulus, whereas those taking a situational approach to leadership are evaluating the response or the results rather than the stimulus.

Let's use an example : A department head has been given an important promotion from one department to another, much larger department. What would be her most effective leadership style? Most likely it would be the one that earned her the valued promotion - in this case, a high relationship-low task style. Will this style be effective in the new situation? It could be extremely effective or extremely ineffective or somewhere in between. The effectiveness of a given leadership style will depend on its relevance to the situation as seen by the leader's followers, superiors, or associates. Table 9.3 describes briefly one of the many different ways each style might be perceived as effective or ineffective by others.

A model such as the Tridimensional Leader Effectiveness model is distinctive because it does not depict a single ideal leader behaviour style that is suggested as being appropriate in all situations. For example, the high task and high relationship style is appropriate only in certain situations. In basically crisis-oriented organisations, such as the military or the fire department, there is considerable evidence that the most appropriate style would be high task and low relationship, because under combat, fire, or emergency conditions success often depends on immediate response to orders. Time demands do not permit talking things over or explaining decision. But once the crisis is over, others styles might become appropriate. For example, although the fire chief may have to initiate a high level of structure at the scene of a fire, upon returning to the firehouse it may be appropriate for the chief to engage in other styles while the staff is participating in ancillary functions such as maintaining the equipment or studying new firefighting techniques.
Instrumentation

To gather data about the behaviour of leaders, we developed two leader effectiveness and adaptability description (LEAD) instruments for use in training settings: the LEAD Self and LEAD Other. The LEAD Self contains twelve leadership situations in which respondents are asked to select from four alternative actions-a high task-low relationship behaviour, a high task-high relationship behaviour, a high relationship-low task behaviour, and a low relationship-low task behaviour-the one they feel most closely describes their own behaviour in that type of situation. An example of a situation-action combination used in the LEAD Self is shown below

The LEAD Self was designed to measure self-perception of three aspects of leader behaviour: (1) style, (2) style range, and (3) style adaptability. Style and style range are determined by four style scores, and the style adaptability (effectiveness score) is determined by one normative score. The LEAD Self was originally designed as a training instrument and should properly be used only in training situations and not, as some researchers have done, as a research instrument. The length of the scale (twelve items) and time required (ten minutes) clearly reflect the intended function.

The LEAD Self provides data basically in terms of the leader's self-perception. This information is helpful, but to really know your leadership style-how you influence others-you must collect data from those you attempt to lead. The LEAD Self is scored by

leaders themselves, but the LEAD Other is completed by leaders' followers, superiors, or associates (peers).

POWER AND POLITICS

Introduction

Power is seen in different walks of life— in the structures of government administration, bureaucracy, elections, family and society. In the instances of a teacher scolding an erring student in school, to a powerful state making war against its neighbor or any terrorist organization bombing a target, power is used. So it becomes imperative to see what exactly is common in these examples and how they justify the concept.

The ability of a person, team or an organisation to influence people and events is known as power. Power is the potential to influence others and not the act of changing others. A person who wields power has the option to use it or not. An individual X gains power over person Y by controlling the factors that are required by the individual Y to achieve Y's aspirations. A person can get power over another person only if he/she controls some factors that are desired by the other person.

Power is manifest in various contexts, be it political affairs, institutional patterning, ensuring life chances, or personal relations. The amounts of power of an individual or group are not necessarily the same for different contexts. A person may be powerful in one context and may be powerless in another.

Sources of power

Power within an organisation can be acquired formally or informally. Managing power and politics in favour of the organisation even as minimising its negative effects is essential. This can be done only when the top management understands the source of power. The success of a manager depends upon how efficiently and accurately he/she is able to understand the organisation's power structure and politics accurately.

Power is derived from five sources they are

☐ Legitimate power: —refers to the ability to influence others because of the position one holds in the organization. It is also called authority, or the right to command. Characteristics of organizational authority are:

☐ It is invested in a person's position.

☐ It is accepted by subordinates.

☐ Authority is used vertically; flows from the top down.

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Legitimate power is created by the hierarchy created by organisational structure. The position of the individual in the structure gives them the formal authority to control organisational resources.

Zone of indifference possessing formal power, or authority, does not mean that all orders will be followed. Orders will be followed if they are acceptable to the subordinate. They lie within the zone of indifference. Unacceptable orders, outside the zone of indifference, will not be readily followed. The zone of indifference may be wider or narrower, depending on sources of power other than authority. It may be shaped by cultural factors.

☐   Reward power: Based on a person's ability to reward a follower for compliance. It occurs when someone possesses a resource that another person wants and will exchange that resource for certain behavior. It supports legitimate power.

☐   Coercive power: The power to punish. It is based on fear. It can come from legitimate. It can come informally, e.g., fear of rejection by coworkers.

☐   Expert power: Based on an individual's special and valued expertise. The lower the substitutability of the expertise, the greater the expert's power.

☐   Referent power : Based on an individual's charisma (behavioral style).

☐   Contingencies of Power

Having power does not mean that they are influential. It is the contingencies of power that determine the extent to which a person can leverage their power bases. It is important to not that contingencies of power is different from the sources of power. The four conditions under the contingencies of power are

☐   Substitutability refers to the availability of alternatives. Power is strongest when someone has a monopoly over an important resource that has no substitutes. Conversely, power decreases as the number of alternative sources of the critical resource increases. If you are the only person in an organization with expertise on an issue, you will be more powerful than if several other people in your company possess this expertise.

Substitutability refers not only to other sources that offer the same resource, but also to substitutes for the resource itself. For instance, the power of labour unions is diminished when companies introduce technologies that replace the need for their union members.

☐   Centrality refers to the degree and nature of interdependence between the power holder and others. Public transportation workers have high centrality in cities that rely on public transportation (such as New York) because their actions affect many people quickly.If they go on strike, they can shut down a city. Think about your own centrality for a moment: If you decided not to show up for work or school tomorrow, how many people would be affected, and how much time would pass before they were affected? If you have high centrality, many people in the organization would be affected adversely and immediately by your absence. If you have very low centrality, no one would be affected.

☐   Discretion refers to the freedom to exercise judgment—to make decisions without referring to a specific rule or receiving permission from someone else. Discretion, or

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autonomy, is another important contingency of power in organizations. Consider the plight of first line supervisors.

It may seem that they have hierarchical power over employees, but this power can be curtailed by specific rules. Such lack of discretion reduces the power of supervisors, even though they may have access to some of the power bases described earlier. "Middle managers are very much 'piggy-in-the-middle,'" complains a middle manager at Britain's National Health System. "They have little power, only what senior managers give them."

☐   Visibility refers to the extent to which a power holder is known, or visible, to others. People with expert power who are not visible within the organization may not have much influence; they may not be able to leverage their power to influence organizational outcomes.

Power vs Authority

You should not get confused with the power and authority. Though power and authority are used interchangeably, but there exists difference between the two. While power is the ability to influence others, authority is the right to command. Normally power is exercised by the person but authority is attached with the position and it is legitimate. Authority is one of the major sources of power. Authority is always positional, concerned with position and legitimate. However, when one's authority can increase one's growth in organisational hierarchy, but the growth may not accompany same amount of power. Moreover while authority normally moves downward but power moves in all direction , depending upon the power being used by the person in the organisation. It is because power is not institutional but the authority is institutional.

Importance of Power in an Organisation:

Power is extremely important and essential for an organisation. The people in the organization also seek power because of the following reasons

☐   Power is essential to control the people and other resources so that they cooperate and work towards achieving organisation's goals.

☐   Power can also be used to engage in politics.

☐   Decision-making process can be influenced with power to promote new and more appropriate organisational goals.

☐   Power influences complexity, formality and centralisation of activities in the organisations.

☐   Individuals having power even determine about the size of the organisation, allocation of rewards, selection of technology etc.

☐   Power is needed for the efficient functioning of the organisation.

Politics

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People want to carve a niche from which to exert influence, to earn awards and to advance their career. Those with good political skills have the ability to use their bases of power effectively. We shall define political behaviour in organisations as those activities that are not required as part of one's formal role in the organisation, but the influence, or attempt to influence, the distribution of advantage and disadvantages with in the organisation.

Politics is a fact of life in organisations. People who ignore this fact of life do so at their own peril. Organisation set up the potential for conflict over resources. Budgets, space, salary adjustment are few examples of the resources about whose allocation organisational member will disagree. Further more whether true or not, gains by one individual or group are often perceived as being at the expense of others with in the organisation. These force will create the competition among members of the organisation. Finally, because most decisions have to be made in a climate of ambiguity where facts are rarely fully objective, and thus are open to interpolation, people within organisations create politics.

A behaviour that one person labels as organisational politics is very likely to be characterized as an instance of "effective management" by another. The fact is not that effective management is necessarily political although in some cases a might be. Rather, a person's reference point determines what he or she classifies as organisational politics. Take a look at the following labels used to describe the same phenomenon. These suggest that politics, like beauty, as in the eye of the beholder.

Factors contributing to Political Behaviour

Recent research have identified a number of factors that appear to encourage political behaviour. Some are individual characteristics derived from the unique qualities of the people the organisation employs. Others are a result or the organisation's culture or internal environment. The figure 11.1 illustrates how both individual and organisational factors can increase political behaviour.

Favourable outcomes
☐   Rewards
☐   Averted punishments

Individual Factors

At the individual level, researchers have identified certain personality traits, needs and other factors that are likely to be related to political behaviour. In Term of traits, we find that employees who are high self-monitors, process an internal locus of control, and have a high need for power are more likely to engage in political behaviour. The high-self

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monitor is more sensitive to social cues, exhibits higher level of social conformity, and is more likely to be skilled in political behaviour than the low self-monitor.

Individuals with an internal locus of control, because they believe they can control their environment, are more prone to take a proactive stance and attempt to manipulate situations in their favour. Additionally, an individual's investment in the organisation, perceived alternatives, and expectations of success will influence the degree to which he/she pursue illegitimate means of political action. High expectations of success in the use of illegitimate means are most like to be province of both experienced and powerful individuals.

Organisational Factors

Political activity is probably more a function of the organisation's characteristics than of individual variables. With loss of resources, people may engage in political actions to safeguard what they have. But any changes, especially those that imply significant reallocation of sources with in the organisation, are likely to stimulate conflict and increase politicizing.

The opportunity for promotions or advancement encourages people to compete for a limited resource and try to positively influence the decision outcome. High trust will suppress the political behaviour in general and inherit illegitimate actions in particular. The practice of performance evaluation is far from a perfected science. Subjective performance criteria create ambiguity.

Then more that an organisation's culture employee's the zero-sum or win-lose approach to reward allocations, the more employee will be motivated to engage in politicizing. The zero- sum approach treats the reward "pie" as fixed so that any gain one person or group achieves has to come at the expense of another person or group. Managers in these organisations are being asked to behave more democratically. They are told that they should allow subordinates to advise them on decisions and that they should rely to a greater extent on group input in to the decision process.

Finally, when employees see the people on top engaging in political behaviour especially when they do so successfully and are rewarded for it, a climate is created that supports politicizing by top management, in a sense, given permission to those lower in the organisation to play politics by implying that such behaviour acceptable.

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS

1. Discuss Fiedler's Contingency Model.
2. Compare House Mitchell path goal theory with Vroom-Yetton Contingency Model.
3. What are the sources of power ?
4. Distinguish Power and authority
5. Explain the factors contribute to political behaviour

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UNIT V

WORK STRESS

Introduction

The stress is a condition of strain on one's emotions, thought processes, and physical condition. When it is excessive, it can threaten one's ability to cope with the environment. "Stress" is the general term applied to the pressures people feel in life. Stress is usually though of in negative terms. It is thought to be caused by something bad (e.g. a loved one is seriously ill, or the boss given a formal reprimand for poor performance). This is form of distress. But there is also a positive, pleasant side of stress caused by good things (e.g. a college student gets placement through campus interview or an employee is offered a job promotion).This is a form of eustress. This latter from the Greek eu, which means "good".

Stress is defined as an adaptive response to an external situation that results in physical, psychological, and / or behavioural deviations for organisational participants.

Symptoms of Stress

☐   Emotional instability – anger

☐   Feelings of inability to cope

☐   Uncooperative attitudes – hatred

☐   Nervousness and tension

☐   Chronic Worry

☐   Inability to relax

☐   Problems with sleep

☐   High blood pressure

☐   Digestive problems

☐   Excessive use of alcohol and / or smoking

Stress may affect any employee, whether the employee is a manager or a workers, young or old. Stress can be either temporary or long-range, depending mostly on how long its causes continue and how strong the employees recovery powers are. Problems occur especially when stress is sustained for a period of time, because then the body is prevent from rebuilding its ability cope with stress. However, if stress is temporary and mild , most people can recover rather quickly.

Forms of Stress

Stress may occur in two forms. They are frustration and anxiety.

☐   **Frustration**

Frustration occurs when a motivated drive is blocked before a person reaches a desired goal. The following figure illustrates what happens. The barrier may be either Overt (Physical) or Covert (Mental – socio-psychological).

An example of a frustrating situation might be that of a thirst person who comes up against a stuck door and is prevented from reaching a water fountain.

Examples of frustration include a salesman continuously failing to reach the target, a Professor continuously applying for a promotion and failing to get it or to get subordinates to act according to our wishes.

There are several factors that cause frustration:

☐   First is the unnecessary delay in achieving the goal, even when the goal is eventually available. Delay in getting a promotion, delay in finishing a report and even waiting for a friend after the due time can cause frustration.
☐   The second factor affecting frustration is the lack of resources. Sometimes the goals are not achieved because individuals lack the physical, personal or interpersonal resources. A Professor who is burdened with administrative duties and does not ge enough time to do research which is necessary for promotion may become frustrated because of such time constraints.
☐   The third cause of frustration may be the actual failure in achieving the goal. A lost client, a poor evaluation by superiors, failure in the exam or failure to get a promotion are all causes of frustration which are manifested in stress.

Anxiety

Anxiety is a feeling of inability and helplessness in formulating appropriate responses or plans for dealing with the anticipated negative outcomes. It occurs

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when a decision has to be made but the outcome of the decision could have positive as well as negative consequences. Anxiety also occurs when all your options result in undesirable consequences. For example, if you are working with a company for a long time and have built roots in the community where you live and your company is moving to a different far off location and you have the choice of either moving with the company or losing the job. Both of these alternatives make you feel uncomfortable and hence become a cause of anxiety. What causes anxiety in work environment?

According to Hammer and Organ, stress may be

☐ OrganisationalFactors
☐ Differences in authority and power (vulnerability to administrative decisions)

☐ Changes in organisations (plans becomes obsolete)

☐ Competition (loss of esteem and status)

☐ Role ambiguity

☐ Lack of job feed back

☐ Volatility in the organisation's economic environment

☐ Job insecurity

☐ High visibility of one's performance (success as well as failures).

☐ Personal Factors
☐ Physical illness

☐ Problems at home

☐ Unrealistically high personal goals

☐ Estrangement from one's colleagues or one's peer group

4 Causes of stress

The stressors affecting today's employees are as follows:

☐ Extra-organisational Stressors

☐ Organisational Stressors

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☐   Group Stressors

☐   Individual Stressors

☐   **Extra-organisational Stressors**

Extra-organisational stressors include social and technical change, family situation, economic and financial conditions, life changes and sociological variables.

☐   Social and technical change :The phenomenal rate of social and technical change has had a great effect on people's life styles, and this of course is carried over into their jobs. Lifestyles and this of course is carried over into their jobs. Although medical science has increased the life spans of people and has eradicated or reduced the threat of many diseases, the pace of modern living has increased stress and decreased personal wellness. The concept of wellness has been defined as "a harmonious and productive balance of physical, mental, and social well-being brought about by the acceptance one's personal responsibility for developing and adhering the heath promotion programme". Because people tend to get caught up in the rush-rush, mobile, urbanized, crowded, on-the-go lifestyle of today, their wellness in general has deteriorated, and the potential for stress on the job has increased.

☐   Family situation : A family situation – either a brief crisis, such as a squabble or the illness of a family member, or long-term strained relations with the spouse or children – can act as a significant stressor for employees. There is even research indicating that in dual-career families, a stressed-out husband may transmit this stress to his wife. Relocating the family because of a transfer or a promotion can also lead to stress.

☐   Economic and financial conditions: For most people in recent years, their financial situation has proved to be a stressor. Many people have been forced to take a second job, or the spouse has had to enter the work force in order to make ends meet. This situation reduces time for recreational and family activities. The overall effect on the employees is more stress on their primary jobs.

☐   Life changes: Life's changes may be slow (getting older) or sudden (the death of a spouse). These sudden changes have been portrayed in novels and movies as having a dramatic effect on people, and medical researchers have verified that especially sudden life changes do in fact have a very useful impact on people. They found a definite relationship between the degree of life changes and the subsequent health of the person. The more change, the poorer the subsequent health.

☐   Sociological variables: Sociological variables such as race, sex and class can also become stressors. Sociologists have noted over the years that minorities may have more stressors than whites. More recently, research has found that

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women experience psychological distress than men, but men are more prone to serve physical illness. For professional women, the particular sources of stress have been identified as discrimination, stereotyping, the marriage / work interface, and social isolation. In a recent survey, a significant number of working women report feeling personal or family stress which in turn leads to job stress. In particular dual family and work role frequently result in job stress. Also, people in the middle and upper classes may have particular or common stressors. For example, one researcher identified the condition of housing, convenience of services and shopping, neighbourliness, and degree of noise and air pollution as likely stressors.

☐ **Organisational Stressors**

Besides the potential stressors that occur outside the organisation, there are also those associated with the organisation itself. Although the organisation is made up of groups and individuals, there are also more macro-level dimensions, unique to the organisation, that contain potential stressors.

☐ **Group Stressors**

The group can also be a potential source of stress. These group stressors can be categorized into three areas.
☐ Lack of Group Cohesiveness

Group cohesiveness or "togetherness" is very important to employees, especially at the lower levels of organisations. If an employee is denied the opportunity for this cohesiveness because of the task design, because the supervisor does things to prohibit or limit it, or because the other members of the group shut the person out, the resulting lack of cohesiveness can be very stress-producing.

☐ Lack of social support

Employees are greatly affected by the support of one or more members of a cohesive group. By sharing their problems and joys with others, they are much better off. If this type of social support is lacking for an individual, the situation can be very stressful.

Intra-individual, interpersonal, and intergroup conflict

Conflict is very closely conceptually linked to stress. Conflict is normally associated with incompatible or hostile acts between intra-individual dimensions such as personal goals or motivational needs / values, between individuals within a group, and between groups. Such conflict can lead to considerable stress for individuals.
☐ Individual Stressors

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The role of dispositions

In a sense, the stressors, discussed so far (extra-organisational, organisational and group) all eventually get down to the individual level. There is also more research and agreement on possible situational dimensions and individual dispositions which may affect stress outcomes. For example, role conflict, ambiguity, and individual dispositions such as Type A personality patterns, personal control, learned helplessness, self-efficiency and psychological hardiness may all affect the level of stress someone experiences.

☐   Role conflict and Ambiguity :Individual employees have multiple roles (family, work, professional, recreational, church, club, community, and so on), and these often make conflicting demands and create conflicting expectations. Stress results when the time demands for the work role are incompatible with the time pressures of the family and vice-versa.

Role ambiguity results from inadequate information or knowledge to do a job. This ambiguity may be due to inadequate training, poor communication, or the deliberate withholding or distortion of information by a coworker or supervisor. In any event, the result of role conflict and ambiguity is stress for the individual.

☐   Type A personality characteristics: In the late 1960s Friedman and Rosenman popularized the use of Type A and opposing Type B personalities in the study of stress. They define the Type A personality as "an action-emotion complex that can be observed in any person who is aggressively involved in a continuous struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of others things or other persons". The following table briefly summarises the Type A and Type B profiles. Obviously, Type A employees experience considerable stress. They are the ones who:

☐   Work long, hard hours under constant deadline pressures and conditions for overload.

☐   Often take work home at night or on week ends and are unable to relax.

☐   Constantly compete with themselves, setting high standards of productivity that they seem driven to maintain.

☐   Tend to become frustrated by the work situation, to be irritated with the work efforts of others, and to be misunderstood by superiors.

A majority of Americans are Type A, and an even higher percentage of managers are Type A, one study found that 60% of the managers sampled were clearly Type A an that only 12% were Type B. Initially, Friedman and Rosenman's extensive studies found that Type A's were much more prone to the worst outcome of stress; heart attacks. More recently, however, a number of studies have been unable to confirm their findings. For examples, type A's may release and better cope with

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their stress than do Type B's. The most recent studies to indicate that it is not so much the impatience that is closely associated with Type A's, but rather anger and hostility that leads to heart problems.

☐ Personal control and learned helplessness : Besides Type A personality patterns, another important disposition is an individual's perception of control People's feelings about their ability to control the situation will be an important disposition for stress. In particular, if employees see that they have little control over the work environment and over their own job, they will experience stress. Studies have show that if employees are given a sense of control over their work environment, such as being given a change to be involved in the decision-making process that affects them, this will reduce their work stress. Most recently a large study by Cornell University medical researchers found that those employees who experience a loss of control have the risk of developing high blood pressure. The researchers concluded that lack of control turns stress into physical problems.

The feeling of loss of control goes back to some of the classic research on learned helplessness conducted by Seligman. In conducting experiments on dogs who could not escape shock, he found that they eventually accepted it and did not even try to escape. Later, when the dogs could learn to escape easily, they did not they had learned to be helpless. Other studies found that people, too, can learn to be helpless, which helps explain why some employees just seem to have given up and seem to accept stressors in their work environment, even when a change for the better is possible.

☐ Self-efficacy :Another important disposition that has recently emerged to help understand stress in the work place is self-efficacy. There is increasing evidence that people's self-perception of their capacity to be effective and bring about change may be an important disposition in the ability to withstand stress. Those with high self-efficacy tend to remain calmer when faced with a stressful situation.

☐ Psychological hardiness: Everyone has observed individual differences of people faced with stressors. Some people seem to go to pieces at the slightest provocation, while others seem unflappable in the face of extremely stressful situations. Those able to cope successfully with extreme stressors seem to have a "hardiness" disposition.

Kobasa and her colleagues studied executives under considerable stress who were both hardy and non hardy. She found that the hardy executives had a lower rate of stress- related illness and were characterized as having commitment, challenge, and control. Kobasa's research would say that those with hardiness will be able to survive and even thrive in such an environment, but those who do not possess hardiness may suffer the harmful outcomes of stress.

Events in life and the degree of stress

The degree of stress created by certain events in life can be assessed by "Social Readjustment Rating Scale" developed by Thomas Holmes and Richard Rake. In

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order to construct the stress impact scale, they asked people to rate as to how long it would take to adjust to certain stressful events and how severe the adjustment to these events would be. From the responses, they developed a ranking and weighting for each of these stress producing events. For Example, the death of a spouse was considered to be the most stress producing event. The following table shows the ranking of some of these events.

If an individual accumulates a large number of stressor points in a relatively short period of time, it is more likely that stress would be obvious. The higher the number of points, the more likely that stress will result in serious illness.

☐   **Physiological reaction to stress**

Some of the physiological symptoms of stress, anxiety and depression are as follows:

Stress

Irritability, insomnia, alcohol and food abuse. Physical changes including rapid breathing and heart rate, tensed muscles. Prolonged stress can cause skin problems, baldness and sexual problems such as importance.

Anxiety

Excessive worry, irritability, anger, nervousness as well as inability to concentrate or sleep.
Physical changes include palpitations, chest pain and dizziness.

Depression

Feelings of sadness, hopelessness, guilt and worthlessness, loss of interest in activities, change in appetite or weight, difficulty in concentrating and suicidal thoughts. Depressed individuals make up some 60% of all suicides.
☐   Stress and Job performance

One of the major concerns of management is the negative impact stress has on job performance. People under high stress tend to withdraw in the form of turnover and absenteeism. In extreme cases it may result in sabotage. Workers sometimes create mechanical failures in order to take a break from strain of monotonous work.

The relationship between stress and performance appears to be rather complex. In general, productivity is considered to be at peak with moderate level of stress. Performance is poor at low level of stress as well as at high level of stress. At low

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level of stress, the person may not be sufficiently energized and many not be whole heartedly involved in his work, resulting in low productivity. As the level of stress increases from low levels to moderate levels, the performance level also increases to reach at the peak level. An optimum level of stress exists for any task. If the stress continues to increase from this level, the person becomes too agitated and frustrated, resulting in performance deterioration.

It has been believed that the relationship been stress and performance is curvilinear. It follows an invested U-shaped curve as shown below.

However, the validity of the clear-cut relationship is being questioned and some behaviour scientists believe that performance actually decreases when stress increases from lower levels to moderate levels, even though the rate of decrease in performance is less than the rate of decrease when stress increases from moderate to high levels. This relationship is shown in the above figure.

3. Job burnout

Job burnout is the extreme case of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion, when stressors seem to be unavoidable and sources of relief seem to be unavailable. Physical exhaustion results in general feelings of tiredness and people exhibit such symptoms as low energy, frequent headaches, sleeplessness and changes in eating habits. Emotional exhaustion results in feelings of depression, helplessness, and hopelessness. People who are emotionally exhausted develop a feeling of worthlessness and tend to believe that life has meaning or goal. Mental exhaustion results in low self-esteem and develops negative attitudes towards life and job. People tend to feel inadequate and incompetent and they often dislike their colleagues, their co-workers or their clients.

Recent studies have shown that burnout seems to be most common among professionals who must deal extensively with other people. Job burnout is most visible among professionals such as managers, lawyers, nurses, accountants and social workers. It has been estimated that 10% of such professionals suffer from job burnout.

☐ Coping Strategies for Stress
☐ Individual Coping Strategies

Some specific techniques that individuals can use it to eliminate or more effectively manage inevitable, prolonged stress are the following:
☐ Exercise

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People of all ages are walking, jogging, swimming, riding bicycles or playing softball, tennis in order to get some exercise to combat stress. There is no conclusive evidence that exercise will directly reduce the changes of hear disease or stroke. But there seems little doubt that it can help people better cope with stress.

☐   Meditation

Medication involves muscle and mental relaxation; the person slowly repeats a peaceful phrase or word or concentrates on a mental picture in a quiet location. There is some research evidence that much meditation can have a desirable physical and mental impact on people whether it can have a practical impact on job stress is yet to be determined. However, a number of firms are using it. For example, a stock broker who regularly uses meditation recently stated: "It is widely known that this industry has a lot of stress. So where a lot of people drink alcohol, we meditate. It is not that we don't feel stress. It just does not hit us as much".

☐   Behavioural self-control

By deliberately managing the antecedents and the consequences of their own behaviour, people can achieve self-control. For example, Sales managers who have a steady stream of customer complaints all day could change the antecedent by having an assistant screen all complaints and allow only exceptions to reach them. The could also manage the consequences by rewarding themselves with an extra break when they remain calm and collected after interacting with a particularly angry customer. They can avoid people or situations that they know will put them under stress. In other words, this strategy involves individuals' controlling the situation instead of letting the situation control them.

☐   Cognitive therapy

Besides behavioural self-control techniques, a number of clinical psychologists have entered the stress field in recent years with cognitive therapy techniques. One study described the approach as follows:

Participants were taught that much of their experienced strain (anxiety, tension, etc) is caused by their cognitions ("self-talks"). This part of the treatment programme, then consisted of off-line lectures and interactive discussions designed to help participants, 9a) recognize events at work and what cognitions they elicit; (b) become aware of the effects of such cognitions on their physiological and emotional responses; (c) systematically evaluate the objective consequences of events at work; and (d) replace self-defeating cognitions that unnecessarily arouse strain (e.g., "I handle this work load as well as anyone else," or "the workload is too high and I should approach my supervisor").

One research study evaluated a cognitive therapy approach applied to police academy trainees. This study found that in simulated exercises, those who used the cognitive strategy performed more effectively and exhibited greater self-control and less strain them those who did not use the approach.

☐ Networking

One clear finding that has come out of social psychology research over the years is that people need and will benefit from social support. Applied as a strategy to reduce job stress, this would entail forming close associations with trusted empathetic coworkers and colleagues who are good listeners and confidence builders. These friends are there when needed and provide support to get the person through stressful situations. Today, such alliances, especially if deliberately sought out and developed, are called networks. Although the relationship between social support and stress reduction appears complicated, there is some research evidence that a networking strategy may be able to help people cope better. With job stress and be more effective and successful managers.

☐ Organisational Coping Strategies
☐ Create a Supportive Organisational Climate:

☐ Enrich the design of tasks

☐ Reduce conflict and clarify organisational roles

☐ Plan and develop career paths and provide counseling.

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE & CLIMATE

Introduction

Every organisation has a culture and depending on its strength, it can have a significant influence on the attitudes and behaviours of organisation members. When people join an organisation, they bring with them the values and beliefs they have been taught. Quite often, however, these values and beliefs are insufficient for helping the individual succeed in the organisation. The person needs to learn how the particular enterprise does things. In this unit us discuss the characteristics of culture, its functions and guidelines for changing organisational culture.

Characteristics

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Organisational Culture has a number of important characteristics. Some of the foremost points are the following :

☐ Innovation and Risk taking : The employees are encouraged to give new ideas and take risks.

☐ Attention to detail : The degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis and attention to detail.

☐ Outcome orientation : This degree which focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve these outcome.

☐ People orientation :The degree to which work decision makers take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organisation.

☐ Team orientation :The degree to which work activities are organized around teams rather than individuals.

☐ Aggressiveness : The degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easy going.

☐ Stability : The degree to which organisational emphasize maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.

Culture is a Descriptive Term

Organisational culture is concerned with how employees perceive the characteristics of an organisation. That is, it is a descriptive term. This is important because it differentiates the concept from that of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction seeks to measure affective responses to work environment. It is concerned with how employees feel about the organisation's expectation, reward policies, and the like. Although the two terms undoubtedly have overlapping characteristics, keep in mind that the terms organisational culture is descriptive while job satisfaction is evaluative. Accepting that organisational culture has common objectives does not mean however, that there cannot be subcultures within any given culture. Most large organisation have a dominant culture and many numbers of subcultures.

Strong Vs Weak Cultures

It has become increasingly popular to differentiate between strong and weak cultures. Here, the strong culture have a great impact on employee and directly related to reduced turnover.One specific result of strong culture may be lower employee turnover. Unanimity of purpose builds cohesiveness, loyalty and organisational commitment. These qualities, in turn, lessen employees propensity to leave the organisation.

Culture's Functions

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Culture performs a lot of functions within an organisation. First, it has a boundary-defining role, that is, it creates distinctions between one organisation and others. Second, it represent a sense of identity for organisation members. Third culture facilitates the generation of commitment of something larger than one's individuals self-interest. Last but not least, it enhances social system stability.

The role of culture in influencing employee behaviour appears to be increasingly important in the 1900s. As organisations have widened spans of control, flattened structures, introduced teams, reduced formalization and empowered employees, the shared meaning provided by a strong culture ensures that everyone is pointed in the same direction.

Any organisational culture does not comes out easily. Once established, it rarely fades away. Here we have to answer the two questions.

☐ What is the need for creation of culture?

☐ What reinforces and sustains these forces once they are in place?

The founders of the culture have major impact on them. They will have a view of the future. Usually the founder of a culture will possess the following,

☐ Personally Aggressive

☐ Competitive

☐ Highly Disciplined

Some Successful Founders

Name Organisation

☐ Bill Gates   Micro Soft

☐ Akio Morita   Sony

☐ Ted Turner   Turner Broadcasting System

☐ Fred Smith   Federal Express

☐ Mary Kay   Mary Kay Cosmetics

☐ Richard Branson   Virgin Group

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Socialization

Socialization means process that adapts employees to the organisation's culture. New employees are potentially likely to disturb the beliefs and customs that are in place. The organisation will therefore, want to help new employees adopt to its culture. This process of adaptation is called as socialization.

New Sanyo employees go through an intensive – five month training program where they learn the Sanyo way of doing everything. From how to speak to superiors to proper grooming and dress. The Company considers it as essential for transforming young employees fresh out of school in to dedicated corporate warriors. All the new ones will undergo training throughout 24 hours in a day. Finally they learn the philosophy, company Jargon and even how to speak with the customers in making decisions about beans, grind and machines. Thus they will posses an enthusiastic and knowledgeable interface with the customers. From the point of view of socialization, the most critical stage is at the time of entry into the organisation.

Socialization can be conceptualized as a process made up of three stages. They are;

☐   Pre-Arrival Stage

☐   Encounter Stage

☐   Metamorphosis Stage

☐   Pre-Arrival Stage

It is the period of learning in the socialization process that occurs before a new employee joins the organisation. For instance in many jobs, particularly professional work, new members will undergo a considerable degree of prior socialization in training and in school. Pre-arrival socialization goes beyond the specific job. The selection process is used in most organisations to inform prospective employees about the organisation as a whole. Selection process also acts to ensure the inclusion of the "Right Type of those who will fit in".

☐   Encounter Stage

The stage in the socialization process in which a new employee sees what the organisation is really like and confronts the possibility that expectations and reality may diverge. Here individual confronts the possible dichotomy between his expectations about his job, his co-workers, his boss and the organisation in general reality. The new employees must undergo socialization that will detach his from his

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previous assumptions and replace them with another set that the organisation deems desirable. At the extreme, a new member may become totally disillusioned with the actualities of his job. Proper selection should significantly reduce the probability of latter encounter or occurrence.

☐   Metamorphosis Stage

The stage in the socialization process in which a new employee adjusts to his or her work group's values and norms. Finally the new member must work out any problems discovered during the encounter stage. This may mean going through changes hence, we call this the metamorphosis stage.

☐   Guidelines for Changing Organisational Culture
☐   Predict the current culture.

☐   Set unique goals.

☐   Recruit personnel with previous experience, so that they are able to interact well.

☐   Make changes from top to bottom, so that a consistent message in delivered.

☐   Include employees in these process of change, when making changes in rules and policies.
☐   Take out all trappings that remind the personnel of the previous culture.

☐   Move quickly and decisively to build momentum and to defuse resistance to the new culture.
☐   Stay the course by being persistent.

Creating and sustaining Organizational culture

An organization's current customs, traditions and general way of doing things are largely due to what it has done before and the degree of success it has had with those endeavours.

The original source of an organization's culture usually reflects the vision or mission of the organization's founders. Because the founders had the original idea, they also may have biases on how to carry out the idea. Their focus might be on aggressiveness or it might be on treating employees as family. The small size of most new organizations helps the founders instil their vision in all organizational members. Organizational cultures can develop in a number of different ways, these steps are explained below:-

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A single person (founder) has an idea for a new enterprise: Some organizational cultures may be the direct, or at least, indirect, result of actions taken by the founders. The founders of an organization traditionally have a major impact on that organization's early culture. They have a vision of what the organization should be.

Founders' creation of a core group: The founder brings in one or more other key people and creates a core group that shares a common vision with the founder. The founder's only hire and keep employees who think and feel the way they do.

These employees who form the core group believe that the idea is a good one, is worth the investment of time, money and energy. Sometimes founders create weak cultures, and if the organization is to survive, a new top manager must be installed who will sow the seeds for the necessary strong culture.

Indoctrinate and Socialize: The founding core group begins to act in concert to create an organization by raising funds, obtaining patents, incorporating, locating land, building infrastructure and so on. The core group indoctrinate and socialize employees to their way of thinking and feeling.

Build a Common History: The founders' own behaviour acts as a role model that encourages employees to identify with them and thereby internalize their beliefs, values, and assumptions. At this point, others are brought into the organization, and a common history begins to be built. When the organization succeeds, the founder's vision becomes seen as a primary determinant of that success. At this point, the founders' entire personalities become embedded in the culture of the organization.

Most of today's successful organizations follow the vision of their founders.

Sustaining a Culture : Once a culture is in place, there are practices within the organization that act to maintain it by giving employees a set of similar experiences. Sustaining a culture depends on three forces. These forces are explained below:

Selection: The goal of the selection process is to identify and hire individuals who could make the organization successful through their services. Therefore candidates who believe in the values of the organizational have to be selected.

Thus, the selection process attempt to ensure a proper match in the hiring of people who have values essentially consistent with those of the organization or at least a good portion of those values cherished by the organization. In this way, the selection process sustains an organization's culture by selecting those individuals who will fit into the organizations core values.

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Top Management: Top management have a important role to play in sustaining the organization's culture. It is the top management who establish norms that filter down through the organization. It is they through their conduct both implicit and explicit that shows what is desirable. They do this through pay raises, promotions and other rewards.

Socialization: Socialization is the process that adapts employees to the organization's culture. Organization wants to help new employees adapt to its culture. The adaptation is done through the process of "socialization".
Socialization is made up of three stages:

The Pre-arrival Stage: This stage encompasses all the learning that occurs before a new member joins the organization. The socialization process covers both the work to be done and the organization. The pre-arrival stage is the period of learning in the socialization process that occurs before a new employee joins the organization. For example, when students join a business school to pursue their MBA degree, they are socialized to have attitudes and behaviours that business firms want. This is so because the success depends on the degree to which the student has correctly anticipated the expectations and desires of those in the business school.

Encounter Stage: In this stage of the socialization process, the new employee sees what the organization is really like and confronts the possibility that expectations and reality may diverge. In expectations prove to have been more or less accurate, the encounter stage merely provides a reaffirmation of the perceptions gained during the pre-arrival stage. Those employees who fail to learn the essential or pivotal role behaviours risk being labelled as "rebels" and face the risk of expulsion. This further contributes to sustaining the culture.

Metamorphosis Stage: Metamorphosis stage is the stage in the socialization process in which a new employee changes and adjusts to the job, work group and organization. In this stage relatively long-lasting changes take place. The employee masters the skill required for his or her job, successfully performs his or her new roles, and makes the adjustments to his or her work group's values and norms. The metamorphosis stage completes the socialization process. The new employee internalizes the norms of the organization and his work groups and understands and accepts the norms of the organization and his work group. The success of this stage have a positive impact on the new employee's productivity and his commitment to the organization.

Organisational Climate

According to Campbell, "Organisational climate can be defined as a set of attributes specific to a particular organisation that may be induced from the way that

organisation deals with its members and its environment. For the individual members within the organisation, climate takes the form of a set of attitudes and experiences which describe the organisation in terms of both static characteristics (such as degree of autonomy) and behaviour outcome and outcome- outcome contingencies."

Types of Organisational Climate

There are many different types of climates that can be produced by the culture of an organization and they can be grouped in many different ways. One way to categorize the different types of organizational climates is climates that are people-oriented, rule-oriented, innovation- oriented and goal-oriented.

FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

☐   In every organization, there exist certain factors that exert deep influence on the climate.

☐   Schneider and Barlett describe six factors that have an influence over organizational climate such as managerial support, inter-agency conflict, agent dependence and general satisfaction.

☐   Lawrence James and Allan Jones have identified five factors influencing climate, which include management philosophy, organizational structure and process, which include communication, motivation and leadership, physical environment and values.

☐   Similarly, Kahn has identified factors such as rules orientation, the nurture of subordinates, strict supervision and promotional achievement orientation. Thus, it is very difficult to generalize exactly the factors affecting the climate.

☐   Organizational climate has a major influence on human performance through its impact on the motivation, job satisfaction and attitudes of people.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Introduction

The term Emotional Intelligence was officially coined in 1990 by Salovey and Mayer. Daniel Goleman in 1998 stated that, "Emotional Intelligence is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in us and in our relationships. Emotional Intelligence describes abilities distinct from, but complementary to academic intelligence."

Robert Cooper and Ayman Sawaf, in their book titled 'Executive EQ' have stated that, "Emotional Intelligence is the ability to sense, understand, and effectively apply

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the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence.

Concept

Emotional intelligence means knowing how and others feel and what to do about it. According to Jeanne Segal, emotion and intellect are two halves of a whole. That's why the term recently coined to describe the intelligence reminiscent of the standard measure of brainpower, IQ. IQ and EQ are synergistic resources, without one the other is incomplete and ineffectual.

EI's domain is personal and interpersonal relationships; it is responsible for our self-esteem, self- awareness, social sensitivity and social adaptability.

Emotional Intelligence - EQ - is a relatively recent behavioural model, rising to prominence with Daniel Goleman's 1995 Book called 'Emotional Intelligence'. The early Emotional Intelligence theory was originally developed during the 1970s and 80s by the work and writings of psychologists Howard Gardner (Harvard), Peter Salovey (Yale) and John 'Jack' Mayer (New Hampshire). Emotional Intelligence is increasingly relevant to organizational development and developing people, because the EQ principles provide a new way to understand and assess people's behaviours, management styles, attitudes, interpersonal skills, and potential. Emotional Intelligence is an important consideration in human resources planning, job profiling, recruitment interviewing and selection, management development, customer relations and customer service, and more.

Emotional Intelligence links strongly with concepts of love and spirituality: bringing compassion and humanity to work, and also to 'Multiple Intelligence' theory which illustrates and measures the range of capabilities people possess, and the fact that everybody has a value.

The EQ concept argues that IQ, or conventional intelligence, is too narrow; that there are wider areas of Emotional Intelligence that dictate and enable how successful we are. Success requires more than IQ (Intelligence Quotient), which has tended to be the traditional measure of intelligence, ignoring essential behavioural and character elements. We've all met people who are academically brilliant and yet are socially and inter-personally inept. And we know that despite possessing a high IQ rating, success does not automatically follow.

Components of EI

Some specific components of emotional intelligence adapted from Mayer and Salovey's work are as follows:

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☐ Self-awareness: Being aware of your own emotions as they are occurring.

☐ Emotional Literacy: Being able to identify and label specific in yourself and others; being able to discuss emotions and communicate clearly and directly.

☐ Empathy and Compassion: The ability to feel, understand, validate, motivate, inspire, encourage and soothe others.

☐ Balance: The ability to make intelligent decisions using a healthy balance of emotion and reason. Being neither too emotional nor too rational.

☐ Responsibility: The ability to manage and take responsibility for one's own emotions, especially the responsibility for self-motivation and personal happiness. Not saying that others 'made you' feel that way.

Emotional Intelligence embraces and draws from numerous other branches of behavioural, emotional and communications theories, such as NLP (Neuro-Linguistic Programming), Transactional Analysis, and empathy. By developing our Emotional Intelligence in these areas and the five EQ domains we can become more productive and successful at what we do, and help others to be more productive and successful too. The process and outcomes of Emotional Intelligence development also contain many elements known to reduce stress for individuals and organizations, by decreasing conflict, improving relationships and understanding, and increasing stability, continuity and harmony.

Theories and Models

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

☐ Ability Model, Mayer and Salovey
☐ Performance Based Approach, D. Goleman
☐ Personality Based Approach, R. Bar-On
☐ Mixed model, Cooper and Sawaf
☐ Trait model, K. V. Petrides

a) Ability Model:

Salovey and Mayer's conception of EI strives to define EI within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence. Following their continuing research, their initial definition of EI was revised to "The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth." However, after pursuing further research, their definition of EI evolved into "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions, to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access

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and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth."

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

☐ Perceiving emotions – the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts—including the ability to identify one's own emotions. Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.

☐ Using emotions – the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.

☐ Understanding emotions – the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.

☐ Managing emotions – the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

The ability EI model has been criticized in the research for lacking face and predictive validity in the workplace. However, in terms of construct validity, ability EI tests have great advantage over self-report scales of EI because they compare individual maximal performance to standard performance scales and do not rely on individuals' endorsement of descriptive statements about themselves.

Performance Based Approach

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

☐ Self-awareness – the ability to know one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, drives, values and goals and recognize their impact on others while using gut feelings to guide decisions.

☐ Self-regulation – involves controlling or redirecting one's disruptive emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.

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☐   Social skill – managing relationships to move people in the desired direction

☐   Empathy - considering other people's feelings especially when making decision

☐   Motivation - being driven to achieve for the sake of achievement.

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

Personality Based Approach

R. Baron stated that EI is concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings, which increases one's ability to be more successful in dealing with one's environmental demands. (1997).

Trait Model

Konstantinos Vasilis Petrides ("K. V. Petrides") proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability based model and a trait based model of EI and has been developing the latter over many years in numerous publications.

Trait EI is "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality." In lay terms, trait EI refers to an individual's self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. This definition of EI encompasses behavioral dispositions and self-perceived abilities and is measured by self-report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait EI should be investigated within a personality framework. An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy.

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

Skills related to Emotional Intelligence

Cognitive Skills

☐ Conducting an 'inner dialogue': A person with high EI would be more introspective about more observant.

☐ Reading and interpreting social cues: High EI helps a person read other people's emotions and better understand their situation.

☐ Understanding the perspectives of others: A person with high EI would be more appreciative of other's feelings and viewpoints.

☐ Understanding behavioural norms: EI would help a person to quickly pick up the general norms in the behaviour patterns of others and would adapt.

☐ Having a positive attitude towards life: EI helps in confidence building and increasing self- esteem. So, in the process a person develops a positive attitude towards life.

☐ Developing realistic expectations: A person with high EI is pragmatic and does not dwell upon fantasies. The person has the ability to gauge the present situation and what to be done to exploit the same.

Emotional Skills

☐ Expressing, Identifying and labeling feelings: A person with high EI has the ability to quickly gauge the feelings of others.

☐ Managing feelings, impulses: A person with high EI if put in a situation where others would get angry, he would be wise enough to not show them and manage the condition well.

☐ Delaying gratification & reducing stress: EI helps to keep a person grounded. A person with high EI would not erupt in visible happiness after getting an award. He would silently savour the moment and feel internal satisfaction.

☐ Knowing the difference between feelings and actions: EI helps people to differentiate between what one feels and what the action should be. A high EI person would like to keep calm when angry unlike others who would want to shout out and fight. Feeling anger is different from taking it out on others.

Behavioral Skills

☐ Nonverbal skills (facial expressions, eye contact, gesture, proximal behaviour): A high EI person would know how to act when faced with different situations.

☐ Verbal skills (making clear requests, responding effectively to criticism, resisting negative influences): Similarly, a person with high EI would now what to say and how to properly interpret other's words in different situations.

So for the individual high performers, EI helps in:

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- ☐   Personal Effectiveness

- ☐   Better Performance

- ☐   Effective Interpersonal Relations

- ☐   Better Coping Skills

- ☐   Health and Happiness

- ☐   Improving Quality of Life Professional Life / Organizations:

In organizations, EI helps in the following ways:

Success Profiles

EI assessments have proven very effective in creating Job Success Profiles. The U.S. Air Force saves over $3 million a year using this type of process to select recruiters. This led to a recommendation that all branches of the armed forces adopt this process.

Leadership Development

Studies show that high performing leaders tend to have higher Emotional Intelligence than their peers.

Training

The body of research on Emotional Intelligence shows that the most successful people, those who consistently outperform their peers, exhibit more of the skills and traits known as Emotional Intelligence.

Education

Research shows that EI assessment results predict student success.

Competency Mapping

Competency mapping is similar to Success Profiles in that EI is "mapped" to organizational competencies (and in some cases, individual competencies). Researchers have shown that certain industries do well because they have a particular set of competencies and/or culture. Mapping EI to particular competencies (culture) enhances an organization's probability of success.

Team Building

Emotional Intelligence has a significant impact on team member relationships and their effectiveness in reaching a team's goals. Understanding our own EI strengths and weaknesses, as well as those of other team members, provides a means for improving the interpersonal dynamics of teamwork.

Customized EI training can help team members learn how:

☐ individual EI "fits" with the EI of other team members, managers, clients, etc.

☐ work assignments can be made and accomplished more effectively

☐ to improve communication

☐ to minimize the negative aspects of conflict

☐ to present information most effectively

☐ to design more effective problem-solving groups

☐ to assist team members in maximizing their individual and collective strengths

Conflict and Communication

Emotional Intelligence significantly influences how we go about solving interpersonal problems. Thus, conflict in organizations often stems from EI differences. Understanding how to use our EI more effectively helps us solve interpersonal problems more effectively and efficiently and increases the overall effectiveness of work teams. When people understand the basics of how they are different from each other and their strengths and weaknesses, they can take steps to reduce conflict and become more accepting. Customized EI training to manage conflict might include:

☐ Overcoming EI Differences

☐ Problem solving Dynamics

☐ Emotional Dynamics

☐ Working Together

☐   Conflict Models

Guidelines for Promoting Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace: A paper chiefly constructed by Cary Cherniss and Daniel Goleman featuring 22 guidelines which represent the best current knowledge relating to the promotion of EQ in the workplace, summarized as:

Paving the way

☐   assess the organization'sneeds

☐   assessing the individual

☐   delivering assessments with care

☐   maximizing learning choice

☐   encouraging participation

☐   linking goals and personal values

☐   adjusting individual expectations

☐   assessing readiness and motivation for EQ development

Doing the work of change

☐   foster relationships between EQ trainers and learners

☐   self-directed change and learning

☐   setting goals

☐   breaking goals down into achievable steps

☐   providing opportunities for practice

☐   give feedback

☐   using experiential methods

☐   build in support

☐   use models and examples

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☐ encourage insight and self-awareness

Encourage transfer and maintenance of change (sustainable change)
☐ encourage application of new learning in jobs

☐ develop organizational culture that supports learning

Applications of Emotional Intelligence

☐ **Emotional Labour:** Work is not only taxing on the physical aspect of human life but also the emotional and psychological aspects. EI helps in coping with the emotional labour. For example, when a person is too tired mentally doing the same kind of work day in and day out, then a little bit of EI would help the person in not getting upset and taking any radical steps. The person would continue to work and try to find a more meaningful job at the same time.
☐ **Job Performance:** EI helps a person to have patience and keep up the motivation. Like a person with pretty good EI would do the work properly because with EI comes a sense of responsibility and self-awareness which would propel the person to work hard.
☐ **Job Satisfaction:** EI can help a person to value self-esteem and the satisfaction associated with a job well done. For example a person would appreciate his own contribution to a particular job if proper EI is there.
☐ **Organization Citizenship Behaviour:** EI promotes a sense of loyalty towards the place of work. EI comes with empathy and compassion. So when a person has proper EI, he has the sense of attachment towards the work and the workplace. So, the bond is made stronger.
☐ **Self-Management and Impression Management:** A sense of balance comes with EI. Like a person would try to find a balance between emotions and reasoning when faced with acertain situation at a workplace. This would promote how he wants others to perceive him. Abit of self- management would do justice to the work he does.
☐ **Organizational Commitment:** Again EI comes with a feeling of responsibility. So at a workplace, a person with high EI would be loyal to the work and committed to the task at hand.
☐ **Employee Health:** EI promotes good social behaviour with emotional literacy. So, the psychological health of an employee working in a team would be looked after as he would be accepting to the appreciation of his fellows and he would do the same.
☐ **Leadership :** A person with high EI would be self-aware, empathetic and compassionate. So that person would look to help others in need at a workplace. He would like to motivate others at the same time appreciating his own self-worth. He would be a leader with high EI.

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☐ **Occupational Stress:** EI helps in coping with work related stress. A person with high EI would be sharing his thoughts and not keeping them to himself. Thus, he would be accepting counsel from others and relieving himself of the stress with their advice.

Emotional intelligence at work is about how people and relationships function:
☐ Relationships between colleagues, between directors and staff;

☐ Relationships between the organization and its customers, stakeholders, suppliers, competitors, networking contacts, everyone.

It is about leadership, teamwork, management skills and partnership. Founded on excellent practice and understanding of communication, the emotionally intelligent business consistently excels in all these areas and has insight into how this happens.

An organization which is emotionally intelligent has staff who are:
☐ Motivated,productive,efficient,aligned with the business,and committed;
☐ Effective,confident,likable,happy,and rewarded.

Emotional intelligence is applicable to every human interaction in business: from staff motivation to customer service, from brainstorming to company presentations. But the subject is far deeper and wider than these examples, and emotional intelligence must be able to understand and deal with:

☐ How we assess people
☐ How relationships develop
☐ How our beliefs generate our experience
☐ As well as resistance to change, power struggles, judgment, competition, vision, leadership, success, and much more.

A business in which the staff is emotionally intelligent is one which enables them to work together to maximum effectiveness. This can only increase the organization's success, however measured.

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IMPORTANT QUESTIONS:

1. What are the symptoms of stress?
2. Explain frustration and anxiety with illustrations.
3. What are the causes of stress? Suggest coping strategies to overcome stress.
4. Explain the adverse consequences of job stress.
5. Discuss the functions of culture.
6. Explain the stages in socialization process.
7. What are the components of Emotional Intelligence?
8. What are the applications of Emotional Intelligence?
9. What is ability model ?

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CASE STUDIES

Case Study Number	1
Level of Teaching	L2
Program Outcomes Covered	PO2, PO3, PO4, PO5, PO6. PO8
Course Outcome Covered	C103.2

Krishnamurthy, plant manager of frame manufacturing company, is the chairperson of the ad hoc committee for space utilisation. the committee is made up of various departmental heads of the company.the general manager of the company has given murthy the responsibility for seeing whether the various office ,operations and warehouse facilities of the company are being optimally utilised. the company is beset by rising costs and the need for more space.however, before okaying an expensive addition to the plant,the general manager wants to be sure that the currently available space is being utilised properly. Murthy opened up the first committee meeting by reiterating the charge of the committee. then murthy asked the members if they had any initial observations to make.the first to speak was the office manager. He stated "well I know we are using every possible inch of room that we have available to us.but when i walk out into the plant i see a lot of open spaces. We have people piled on top of one another, but out in the plant there seems to be plenty of room." the production manager quickly replied, "we do not have a lot of space. You office people have the luxury facilities, my supervisors don't even have room for a desk and a file cabinet.

I have repeatedly told the plant manager we need more space. after all, our operation determines whether this plant succeeds or fails, not like you people in the front office pushing paper around.' murthy interrupted at this point and said, "obviously we have different interpretations of the space utilisation around here.before further discussion i think it would be best if we have some objective facts to work with. I am going to ask the industrial engineer to provide us with some statistics on plant and office layouts before our next meeting. Today's meeting is adjourned.

What perceptual principles are evident in this case ? what concept was brought out when the production manager labelled the office personnel a bunch of "paper pushers" ? Do you think that Murthy's approach to getting "objective facts" from statistics on plant and office layout will affect the perceptions of the office and production Managers ? if you were in Murthy's position, how would you have handled the situation ?

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Case Study Number	2
Level of Teaching	L2
Program Outcomes Covered	PO2, PO3, PO4, PO5, PO6. PO8
Course Outcome Covered	C103.2

General Electric established its worked process in the early 1990s. it continues to be a mainstay in GE's efforts to has also been adopted by such divers organizations as General Motors, Home Depot, Frito-Lay, L.L. Bean, Sears, IBM, and the World Bank. The impetus for the Work- Out was the belief by GE's CEO that the company's culture was too bureaucratic and slow to respond to change. He wanted to create a vehicle that would effectively engage and empower GE workers. Essentially, Work-Out brings together employees and managers from many different functions and levels within an organization for an informal 3-day meeting to discuss and solve problems that have been identified by employees or senior management. Set into small teams, people are encouraged to challenge prevailing assumptions about "the way we have always done things" and develop recommendations for significant improvements in organizational processes. The Work-Out teams then present their recommendations to a senior manager in a public gathering called a Town Meeting.
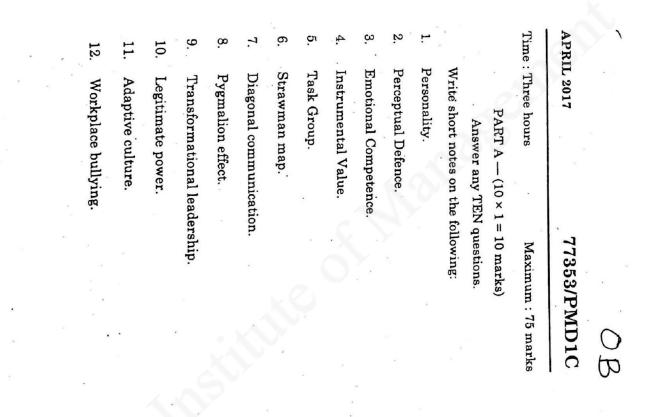
At the town Meeting, the manager in charge oversees a discussion about the recommendation and then is required to make a yes-or-no decision on the spot. Only in unusual circumstances can a recommendation be tabled for further study. Recommendations that are accepted are assigned to managers who have volunteered to carry them out. Typically, a recommendation will move from inception in 90 days or less. The logic behind the Work-Out is to identify problems, stimulate divers input, and provide a mechanism for speedy decision and action. More recently GE CEO Jeffrey Immelt has extended the Work-Out concept to build capabilities in anticipating future technologies and engage in long range planning. GE wants all its managers to be adept at the kind of strategic thinking that most companies entrust only to senior management. For example, GE is offering managers new classes focused on learning how to create new lines of business.

1. What type of change process would you call this? Explain. 2. Why should it work? 3. What negative consequences do you think might result from this process? 4. Why so you think new GE CEO Jeff Immelt has revised the Work-Out concept?

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QUESTION BANK

OB

APRIL 2017   77353/PMD1C

Time : Three hours   Maximum : 75 marks

PART A — (10 × 1 = 10 marks)

Answer any TEN questions.

Write short notes on the following:

1. Personality.

2. Perceptual Defence.

3. Emotional Competence.

4. Instrumental Value.

5. Task Group.

6. Strawman map.

7. Diagonal communication.

8. Pygmalion effect.

9. Transformational leadership.

10. Legitimate power.

11. Adaptive culture.

12. Workplace bullying.

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PART B — (5 × 5 = 25 marks)

Answer any FIVE questions.

13. Why managers should give importance in understanding human behaviour at work? Explain.

14. Explain the various methods of attitude measurement.

15. What is meant by emotional intelligence? Explain why it is important.

16. Discuss the factors influencing group formation.

17. Explain the elements of communication process.

18. State the various reasons for emergence and existence of organisation politics.

19. What are the various dimensions of organisation culture?

PART C — (4 × 10 = 40 marks)

Answer Q.No. 20 compulsory and answer any THREE questions from Q.No. 21-24.

20. "There is no universally consistent motivational device applicable to everyone. What motivates people in situation" – Discuss.

2   77353/PMD1C

21. Discuss the nature of classical conditioning and operant conditioning. How do they differ from each other?

22. "Both formal and informal groups are necessary for the group activity just as two blades are essential to make a pair of scissor workable". Comment on this statement.

23. Explain the situational leadership theory in detail.

24. Describe the three-stage model of organisational change process.

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3   77353/PMD1C

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NOVEMBER 2017

77353/PMD1C

Time : Three hours

Maximum : 75 marks

PART A — (10 × 1 = 10 marks)

Answer any TEN questions.

Write short note on :

1. Locus of control

2. Perceptual constancy

3. Emotion

4. Terminal value

5. Group cohesion

6. Consensus mapping

7. Gestural communication

8. Repetition

9. Transactional leadership

10. Referent power

11. Coercion

12. Exhaustion.

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Answer any FIVE questions.

13. How does personality relates to organisational behaviour? Explain.

14. "A happy employee is a productive employee". – Discuss.

15. Describe the various aspects of emotions.

16. Discuss the process involved in team building.

17. Explain the various types of communication network.

18. Discuss the four contingencies of power in organisations.

19. What are the steps involved in change process?

PART C — (4 × 10 = 40 marks)

Question No. 20 is compulsory and answer any THREE questions from Q.No. 21–24.

20. "Motivation is a product of values one seeks and one's estimation of the probability that a certain action will lead to those values". – Comment on this statement.

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theory with Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation.

22. Explain the two-dimensional view of leadership style developed by Blake and Mouton.

23. Discuss the physiological, psychological and behavioral effects of stress.

24. Explain why organisational change is often resisted by individuals and groups within the organisation. How such resistance can be prevented or overcome?

3

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APRIL 2018

77353/PMD1C

Time : Three hours

Maximum : 75 marks

PART A — (10 × 1 = 10 marks)

Answer any TEN questions.

Write short notes on :

1. Role of Organisational Behaviour.

2. The Super Ego.

3. Proximity.

4. Intrinsic Reinforcement.

5. Empathy.

6. Relatedness needs.

7. Interpersonal skills.

8. Propinquity theory.

9. Grapevine.

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10. Laissez - Faire.

11. Avoidance - Avoidance conflict.

12. Rustout.

PART B — (5 × 5 = 25 marks)

Answer any FIVE questions.

13. "Since behaviour is generally predictable, there is not need to formally study OB". Why is this statement wrong?

14. How does heredity influence personality?

15. Bring out the difference between classical and operant conditioning.

16. Examine the factors influence the degree to which group members will be attracted to each other.

17. Describe the communication process.

18. Contrast individual personality and organisational culture. How are they similar? How are they different?

19. What is the difference between a source of power and a base of power?

2   77368/PMD1C

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PART C — (4 × 10 = 40 marks)

Answer Q.No.20 compulsory and answer any THRE
questions from Q.No.21 to 24.

20. How is emotional intelligence important
people? Discuss the areas in which emot
intelligence can be applied in organisations.

21. What is the role of positive attitudes? Describe t
methods for developing positive attitudes
individuals.

22. "Money holds the key to work motivation
modern business establishments". Examine an
critically evaluate the statements.

23. Discuss the leadership styles with examples, whe
Indian Managers follow. Can you suggest a bes
style for them? How?

24. What is survey feedback as on intervention of OD
How does it provide base for othe
OD interventions?

3   77353/PMD1C

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APRIL 2019

O2

77403/PMF1C

Time : Three hours

Maximum : 75 marks

PART A — (10 × 1 = 10 marks)

Answer any TEN questions.

1. What is individual behaviour?

2. Define attitude.

3. What is motivation?

4. What are Esteem needs?

5. State the determinants of learning.

6. What is group dynamics?

7. What is social loafing?

8. State the need for communication.

9. What is leadership?

10. Define conflict.

11. What is emotional intelligence?

12. What is distress?

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PART B — (5 × 5 = 25 marks)

Answer any FIVE questions.

13. What are the major features of social system in an organisation? In what ways did the social system affect employee performance in the organisation?

14. Explain the determinants of personality.

15. What are the factors that influence perceptual mechanism? Discuss.

16. How groups are formed? What are group norms? Explain.

17. What is power? How does it differ from authority? Explain.

18. Explain different types of conflict.

19. Describe the major organisational stress prevention methods.

PART C — (4 × 10 = 40 marks)

Answer Q. No. 20 compulsorily and answer any THREE questions from Q. No. 21 to 24.

20. "The supportive and collegial models of organisational behaviour are especially appropriate for use in the more affluent nations". Do you agree? Discuss.

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21. Explain classical conditioning and operant conditioning theories of learning, how do they differ from each other?

22. Discuss the semantic, phychological and organisational barriers to communication.

23. Explain behavioural theory of leadership.

24. Explain how organisational cultures are developed, sustained and changed.

3

77403/PMF1C