

BA MANAGEMENT SEMESTER-II

Course Code : BM-201

Lesson No. 1

Semester - II

Unit-I

Organisational Behaviour - Concept, Meaning, Nature and Scope of Organisational Behaviour

Structure :

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objectives
- 1.3 Concept of organisational behaviour
- 1.4 Meaning and definition of organisational behaviour
- 1.5 Framework of organisational behaviour
- 1.6 Evolution of organisational behaviour
- 1.7 Nature/features of organisational behaviour
- 1.8 Scope of organisational behaviour
- 1.9 Summary
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- 1.11 Self-Assessment Questions
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1.1 INTRODUCTION

Increasing globalisation of organisations' operating territory, increasing diversity of organisational work forces, continuing technological innovations etc. has dramatically changed the nature of managerial work, eased the work load of many, challenged people to learn new skills and to modify their behaviour at work. This has impelled the individual managers and organisations to focus on human factors such as commitment, motivation, communication, leadership, trust, compensation, team building etc. to enrich the employees personally & professionally and deliver quality goods at competitive costs.

Organisational behaviour (OB) is a field specialising in the study of human behaviour in the organisations, so that the knowledge can be applied to make organisations work more effectively. It enables the managers to understand human behaviour at individual level, interpersonal level, group level and inter group level by understanding and applying concepts of organisational behaviour. It also provides techniques for dealing with the problems and opportunities that commonly occur in work settings. Organisational behaviour actually refers to the behaviour of the people in the organisations because organisations themselves do not behave. It is an accepted fact that an organisation can develop only when its people are developed.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you will be able to:

- Understand the concept and meaning of organisational behaviour.
- Identify the framework of organisational behaviour.
- understand the evolution of organisational behaviour.

1.3 CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organizations exist to provide goods and services that people want. These goods and services are the products of the behaviours of workers. Organizational behaviour is the study of the many factors that have an impact on how individuals and

groups respond to and act in organizations and how organizations manage their environments. Although many people assume that understanding human behaviour in organizations is intuitive, many commonly held beliefs about behaviour in organizations, such as the idea that a “happy worker is a productive worker,” are either entirely false or true only in specific situations. The study of organizational behaviour provides a set of tools—concepts and theories—that help people understand, analyze and describe what goes on in organizations and why. How do the characteristics of individuals, groups, work situations and the organization itself affect how members feel about their organization ?

The ability to use the tools of organizational behaviour to understand behaviour in organizations is one reason for studying this subject. A second reason is to learn how to apply these concepts, theories and techniques to improve behaviour in organizations so that individuals, groups and organizations can achieve their goals. Managers are challenged to find new ways to motivate and coordinate employees to ensure that their goals are aligned with organizational goals.

Organisational behaviour is an academic discipline concerned with describing, understanding, predicting and controlling human behaviour in an organisational environment. The importance & scope of Organisational Behaviour & their study is growing rapidly due to changing cultural, ethical and business environment of Organization. Manager should concentrate on employee's nature, reaction and response to different situations of organization which are becoming an important part in today's scenario. The present day changing conditions like fast paced organisational change, fast changing technology, shorter life cycles for products work force diversity, declining loyalty, skill deficiencies increased demand for flexibility, continuous improving quality of people in organisations. Organisations have been described as groups of people who interact to accomplish shared objectives. The study of organisational behaviour and its connected subjects help us to understand what people think, feel and do in organisational settings.

1.4 MEANING AND DEFINITION OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organisational behaviour is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, group and structure have on behaviour within organisations. It covers three determinants of behaviour within organisations – individuals, group and structure. It is an applied field because it applies the knowledge gained about individuals, and the effect of structure on behaviour, in order to make organisations work more effectively. In other words, organizational behaviour is the study of how people behave both individually and within informal and formal groups. Every organization's performance is ultimately dependent on the motivational levels of its human resources and the willingness and ability of people to work harmoniously and effectively towards the accomplishment of shared goals. Organizational Behaviour helps to understand different activities and actions of people in organization. It also helps to motivate them.

OB studies the behaviour, attitudes and performance of people in organisations. This field puts the lens of analysis on how employees' work contributes to or detracts from the effectiveness and productivity of the organisation. The field has three units of analysis: the individual, the group and the organisation (competitive advantage once again). A 'micro' – individual-employee level – aspect of OB emphasises the first two units of analysis and stresses topics such as personality traits (individual differences), employee attitudes and motivation to work, leadership, group formation and group decision making. The 'macro' or big-picture approach addresses the organisation as the primary unit of analysis. This is called organisational theory, and its focus is on the topics of organisational structure and organisational design.

The following are the definitions of organisational behaviour :

Keith Davis and John Newstrom defined O.B. as “the study and application of knowledge how people act or behave within organization. It is a human tool for human benefit. It applies broadly to the behaviour of people in all types of organizations such as business, government, schools and service organizations.”

In the opinion of **Robbins**, “O.B. is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behaviour within organizations for the purpose of applying such knowledge towards improving an organization’s effectiveness”.

To sum up, O.B. is concerned with the study of how and what people act in organizations and also how their acts affect the performance of the organization. It also applies the knowledge gained about individuals, groups and the effect of structure on human behaviour in order to make organizations work more effectively. Organizational behaviour is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behaviour within organizations, for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization’s effectiveness. An organization is a collection of people who work together to achieve a wide variety of goals, both goals of the various individuals in the organization and goals of the organization as a whole.

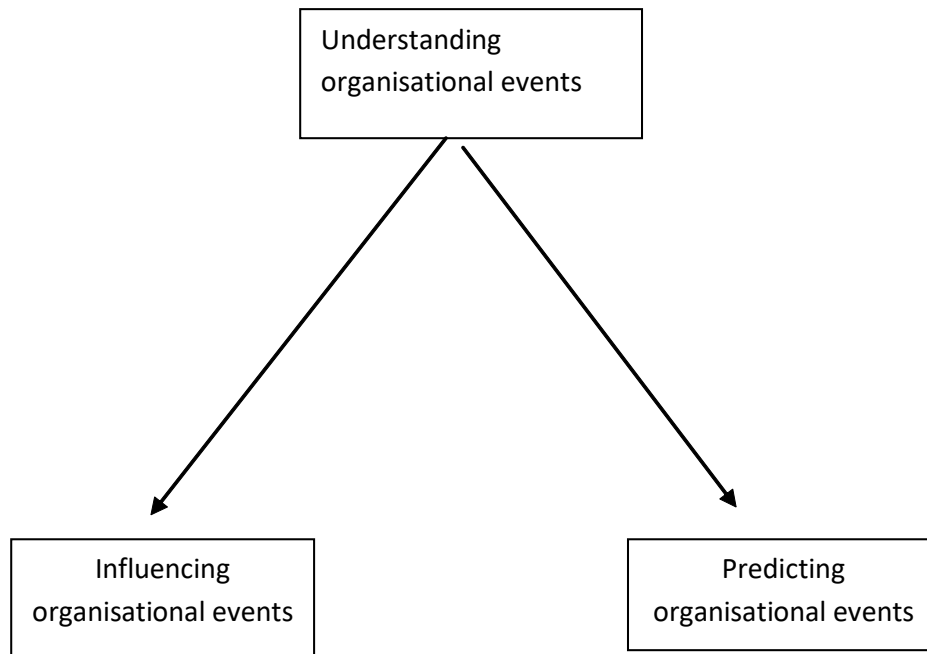
The essential characteristics of OB are:

- a. OB explains & predicts human behaviour of people in organisations. It encourages higher productivity at work by building & maintaining employees’ dignity, growth & satisfaction.
- b. It is not a field of independent study. It integrates behavioural sciences such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, social psychology etc.
- c. It is both a science as well as an art.
- d. OB is a human tool for human benefit. It helps in predicting the behaviour of people at different levels i.e., individuals, groups & organisations. Behaviour attributable at each of these levels can be both identified & isolated.
- e. OB is of integrating character as it seeks to balance between human, technical and ethical values at work.

- f. OB is a normative science which unlike the positive science suggests what are acceptable to people & society. This depends upon value of society which cannot be explained by a positive science that suggests only cause & effect relationships.
- g. OB focuses the attention on people from humanistic point of view. As a human being the individual is motivated by needs, feelings & wants.
- h. OB is a goal- oriented discipline. Different objectives exist in organisations and it tries to integrate them. Once the organisational objectives are achieved, other objectives such as individual & group objectives are also achieved simultaneously.

Fig 1.1 gives an overview of organisational behaviour.

FIG 1.1: AN OVERVIEW OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR*

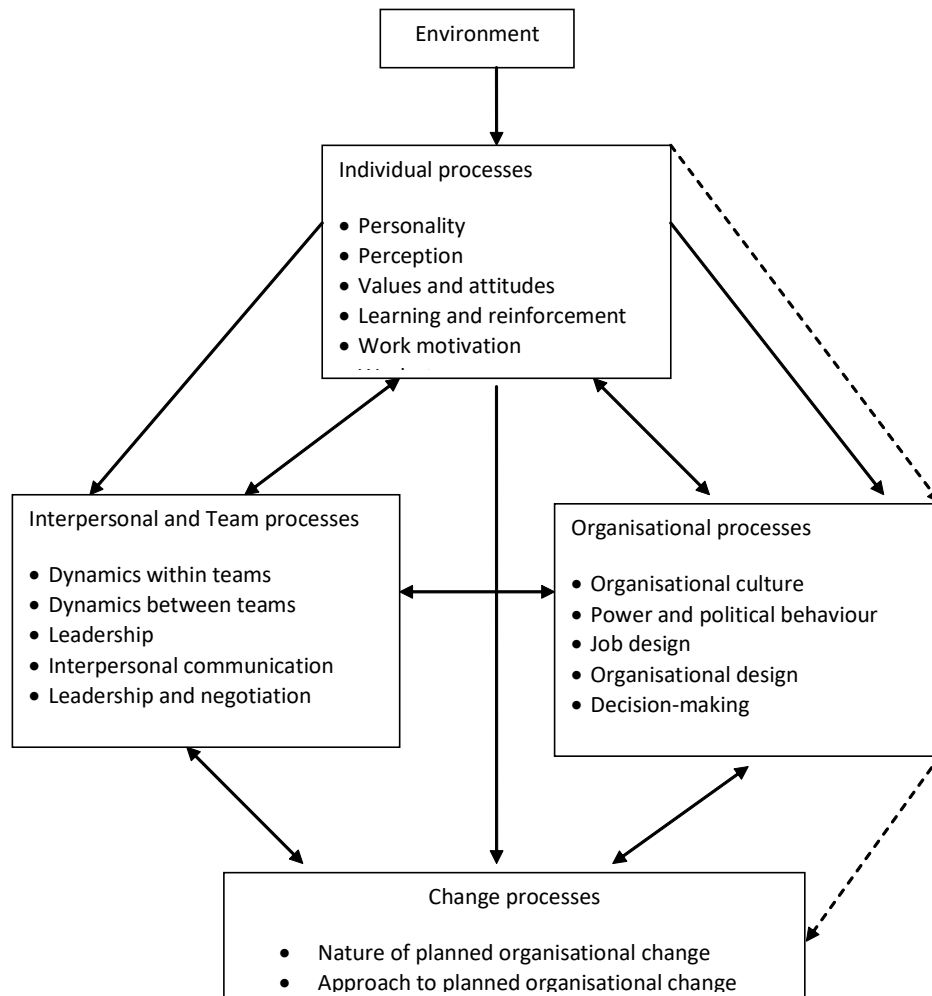


*Source: McShane and Glinow, Von (2005), *Organisational Behaviour*, Tata McGraw Publishing Company Limited, New Delhi.

1.5 FRAMEWORK OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The frame work for understanding the behaviour of employees in organisation consists of five basic components namely, the environment, individual processes, interpersonal & group processes, organisational processes and change processes (Fig. 1.2).

FIG. 1.2: ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR FRAMEWORK*



*Source: Singh, Kavita (2009), *Organisational Behaviour Text And Cases*, Baba Barkha Nath Printers, Chennai.

1.6 EVOLUTION OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organisational Behaviour is an interdisciplinary field dedicated to the better understanding and managing of people at work. OB emerged as a distinct field around the 1940s (Warner, 1994). The writings of the sixteenth-century Italian Philosopher Niccolo Machiavelli laid the foundation for contemporary work on organisational power and politics. In 1776, Adam Smith advocated a new form of organisational structure based on division of labour. Soon after, Frederick W. Taylor introduced the systematic use of goal settings and rewards to motivate employees. In the 1920s, productivity studies at Western Electric's Hawthorne plant reported that an informal organisation operates alongside the formal organisations. So, OB principles have been around for a long time, they just were not organised into a unified discipline until after the Second World War.

a. The Pre-scientific Era (Pre-1000-1880)

As time passed, exploration of natural resources and technological advancement led to the industrial revolution. This changed the nature of society and the location of work. People left their farms and went to work in urban factories. Money economies replaced barter economies, thus expediting the payment of wages. Another outcome of the industrial revolution was an interest in rationalising the managerial process. Haphazard and unsystematic management practices proved to be inadequate for large-scale factory operations. The classical management era was born out of this interest.

b. The Classical Era (1880 – 1930)

The classical management era lasted from around 1880 to 1930. During this time, the first general theories of management began to evolve. Two major thrusts were:

- **Administrative theory:** The origin of administrative theory approach can be traced to Henry Fayol. He divided the manager's job into five

functions: planning, organising, command, coordination and control. He then recommended 14 universal principles of management.

- **Scientific management:** F.W. Taylor, credited with being the father of scientific management, published 'The Principles of Scientific Management' in 1911. Taylor's goal was to make work behaviour as stable and predictable as possible so that increased usage of sophisticated machines and factories would achieve maximum efficiency. He relied heavily on monetary incentives because he saw workers as basically lazy beings, motivated primarily by money.
- c. **The Behavioural Era (1930 – 1960):** A unique combination of factors fostered the emergence of the behavioural era during the 1930s. First, following legalisation of union-management collective bargaining in the United States in 1935, management began looking for new ways of handling employees. Second, behavioural scientists conducting on-the-job research started calling for more attention to the 'human' factor.
- **The Hawthorne legacy:** One such study, conducted at Western Electric's Hawthorne plant, was a prime stimulus for human relations management.
- d. **The Modern Era (1960 onwards):** In 1960, Douglas McGregor wrote 'The Human Side of Enterprise' which has become an important philosophical base for the modern view of people at work (McGregor, 1960). He formulated two sharply contrasting sets of assumptions about human nature. He believed that managers could accomplish more through others by viewing them as self-energized, committed, responsible and creative beings.
- **A Contingency approach:** The contingency approach encourages managers to view organisational behaviour within a situational context. According to this modern perspective, evolving situations, not hard and fast rules, determine when and where various management techniques are appropriate.

1.7 NATURE (FEATURES) OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organizational behaviour has emerged as a separate field of study. The nature it has acquired is identified as follows:

a. A Separate Field of Study and not a Discipline Only

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

b. An Interdisciplinary Approach

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

c. An Applied Science

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

d. A Normative Science

Organizational Behaviour is a normative science also. While the positive science discusses only cause effect relationship, O.B. prescribes how the findings of applied researches can be applied to socially accepted organizational goals. Thus, O.B. deals with what is accepted by individuals and society engaged in an organization.

e. A Humanistic and Optimistic Approach

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

f. A Total System Approach

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

1.8 SCOPE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

O.B. is the study of human behaviour at work in organizations. Accordingly, the scope of O.B. includes the study of individuals, groups and organization/structure. The three internal organizational elements viz., people, technology and structure and the fourth element, i.e., external social systems may be taken as the scope of O.B.

a. People

The people constitute the internal social system of the organization. They consist of individuals and groups. Groups may be large or small, formal or informal, official or unofficial. They are dynamic. They form, change and disband. Human organization changes every day. Today, it is not the same as it was yesterday. It may change further in the coming days. People are living, thinking and feeling being who created the organization and try to achieve the objectives and goals.

Thus, organizations exist to serve the people and not the people exist to serve the organization. Organizations are the associations of individuals. Individuals differ in many respects. The study of individuals, therefore, includes aspects such as personality, perception, attitudes, values, job satisfaction, learning and motivation.

b. Structure

Structure defines the sole relationship of people in an organization. Different people in an organization are given different roles and they have certain relationship with others. It leads to division of labour so that people can perform their duties or work to accomplish the organizational goal. Thus, everybody cannot be an accountant or a clerk. Work is complex and different duties are to be performed by different people. Some may be accountant; others may be managers, clerks, peons or workers. All are so related to each other to accomplish the goal in a co-ordinated manner. Thus, structure relates to power and duties. One has the authority and others have a duty to obey him.

c. Technology

Technology imparts the physical and economic conditions within which people work. With their bare hands people can do nothing so they are given assistance of buildings, machines, tools, processes and resources. The nature of technology depends very much on the nature of the organization and influences the work or working conditions. Thus, technology brings effectiveness and at the same restricts people in various ways.

d. Social System

Social system provides external environment which the organization operates. A single organization cannot exist also. It is a part of the whole. One organization cannot give everything and therefore, there are many other organizations. All these organizations influence each other. It influences the attitudes of people,

their working conditions and above all provides competition for resources and power.

1.9 SUMMARY

Organizational behaviour is the study of the many factors that have an impact on how individuals and groups respond to and act in organizations and how organizations manage their environments. . Organizational behaviour is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups and structure have on behaviour within organizations, for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization's effectiveness. An organization is a collection of people who work together to achieve a wide variety of goals, both goals of the various individuals in the organization and goals of the organization as a whole. Organisational Behaviour is an interdisciplinary field dedicated to the better understanding and managing of people at work. OB emerged as a distinct field around the 1940s (Warner, 1994). The writings of the sixteenth- century Italian Philosopher Niccolo Machiavelli laid the foundation for contemporary work on organisational power and politics. In 1776, Adam Smith advocated a new form of organisational structure based on division of labour. Soon after, Frederick W. Taylor introduced the systematic use of goal settings and rewards to motivate employees. In the 1920s, productivity studies at Western Electric's Hawthorne plant reported that an informal organisation operates alongside the formal organisations. So, OB principles have been around for a long time, they just were not organised into a unified discipline until after the Second World War.

The frame work for understanding the behaviour of employees in organisation consists of five basic components namely, the environment, individual processes, interpersonal & group processes, organisational processes and change processes.

1.10 KEYWORDS

- **Organisational Behaviour:** A multidisciplinary field that seeks knowledge of behaviour in organisational settings by systematically studying individual, group and organisational processes.

- **Caused Behaviour:** Behind every behaviour there is a reason. Behaviour does not occur at random.
- **Whole Person:** An employee is not to be viewed as an individual possessing certain skills. He or she needs to be understood to carry family, background, culture and all other human baggage.
- **Economies of Scale:** Ability of an organisation to achieve cost savings through scaling up its operations. Higher the volumes lower the cost per unit.
- **Economies of Scope:** Ability of an organisation to make use of underutilised resources more effectively and gains savings in costs.
- **Transaction Costs:** Costs associated with negotiating, monitoring and governing exchanges between people.
- **Organisational Effectiveness:** Organisations become effective when they are able to produce quality goods at reasonable cost and earn profit at the same time.
- **Ethical Philosophy:** Deals with conscience of human kind, confirmed by the experience of people in all ages. It has to do with the consequences of our acts to ourselves. Recognises that life has an overall purpose and accepts the inner integrity of each individual.
- **Mutuality of Interests:** Interests flow both the ways. Organisations need people and people need organisations. One without the other has no meaning. Organisations sans people reflect ghosts. People cannot live without organisations.
- **Holistic Perspective:** This involves a big picture and interprets people-organisation relationships in terms of the whole person, whole group, whole organisation and the whole social system.

- **Management:** Refers to the process of attaining organisational goals in an efficient and effective manner through planning, organising, leading and controlling organisational resources.
- **Interdisciplinary Focus:** OB is not an independent subject. It has become one by drawing concepts and principles from a number of other disciplines such as — psychology, sociology, anthropology, social psychology and the like.
- **Psychology:** Study of behaviour both of humans and of animals. Study helps measure, explain, and even change behaviour of people and animals.
- **Sociology:** This refers to the study of group behaviour. The focus is on the behaviour of people in relation to their fellow human beings.
- **Social Psychology:** A wing of psychology, social psychology blends concepts from psychology and sociology and focuses on the influence of people on one another. Change, communication patterns, group decision making processes and attitudinal changes are the major areas of OB that receive attention in social psychology.
- **Anthropology:** This refers to the study of the human race, particularly its culture. The focus is on how human race adjusts and adapts itself to the environment. Particular area of OB that has vastly benefited from anthropology is organisational culture.
- **Supportive Approach:** Popularly called human resources approach, supportive approach to OB posits that people are central to any organisation and that the role of manager is not to control but support their growth and performance.
- **Contingency Approach:** This approach to the study of OB assumes that there is no one best way available to an organisation. It suggests that in most organisations situations and outcomes are contingent or influenced by other variables.

- **Systems Approach:** The systems approach views the organisation as a unified, purposeful system composed of interrelated parts. This approach gives managers a way of looking at the organisation in totality: as a whole person, whole group and social system

1.11 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Briefly explain the concept and meaning of organisational behaviour.

2. Discuss the nature and scope of organisational behaviour.

3. Explain in detail the evolution of organisational behaviour.

1.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. “People influence organisations, and organisations influence people”. Explain the statement.?

2. Your friend suggests that OB courses are only useful to people who enter management careers. Do you agree with your friend? Why?

3. Explain the different foundations of OB.

4. Besides those cited in the Chapter, what other reasons can you think of for the importance of OB ?

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5. Discuss how OB is an interdisciplinary subject.
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1.13 BOOKS RECOMMENDED

1. Luthans, Fred. 2002. Organisational Behaviour, McGraw-Hill, New York.
2. McShane, Steven L.; Glinow, Von and Mary, Ann. 2005. Organisational Behaviour. Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Company Limited. New Delhi.
3. Prasad, L.M. 2003. Organisational Behaviour, Sultan Chand & Sons, New Delhi.
4. Singh, Kavita, 2009. Organisational Behaviour Text And Cases, Baba Barkha Nath Printers, Chennai.

BA MANAGEMENT SEMESTER-II

Course Code : BM-201

Lesson No. 2

Semester - II

Unit-I

Interdisciplinary Nature of Organisational Behaviour, Factors Influencing Organisational Behaviour

Structure :

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Objectives
- 2.3 Interdisciplinary nature of Organisational Behaviour
- 2.4 Determinants of Organisational Behaviour
- 2.5 Developing an Organisational Behaviour Model
- 2.6 Models of Organisational Behaviour
- 2.7 Factors influencing Organisational Behaviour
- 2.8 Summary
- 2.9 Keywords
- 2.10 Self-Assessment Questions
- 2.11 Lesson End Exercise
- 2.12 Books Recommended

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The study of Organisational behaviour is primarily concerned with the psychosocial, interpersonal and behavioural dynamics in organisations. However, Organisational variables that affect human behaviour at work are also relevant to the study of Organisational behaviour. These Organisational variables include job content, job design and Organisational structure. Therefore, although individual behaviour and group dynamics are the primary concerns in the study of Organisational behaviour, Organisational variables are important as the context in which human behaviour occurs. Organisational behaviour is a blended discipline that has grown out of contributions from numerous earlier fields of study. These interdisciplinary influences are the root for what is increasingly recognized as the independent discipline of Organisational behaviour. The predominant areas are psychology, sociology, social psychology, anthropology and political science. It has also drawn from such subjects as economics, history, political science, engineering and medicine.

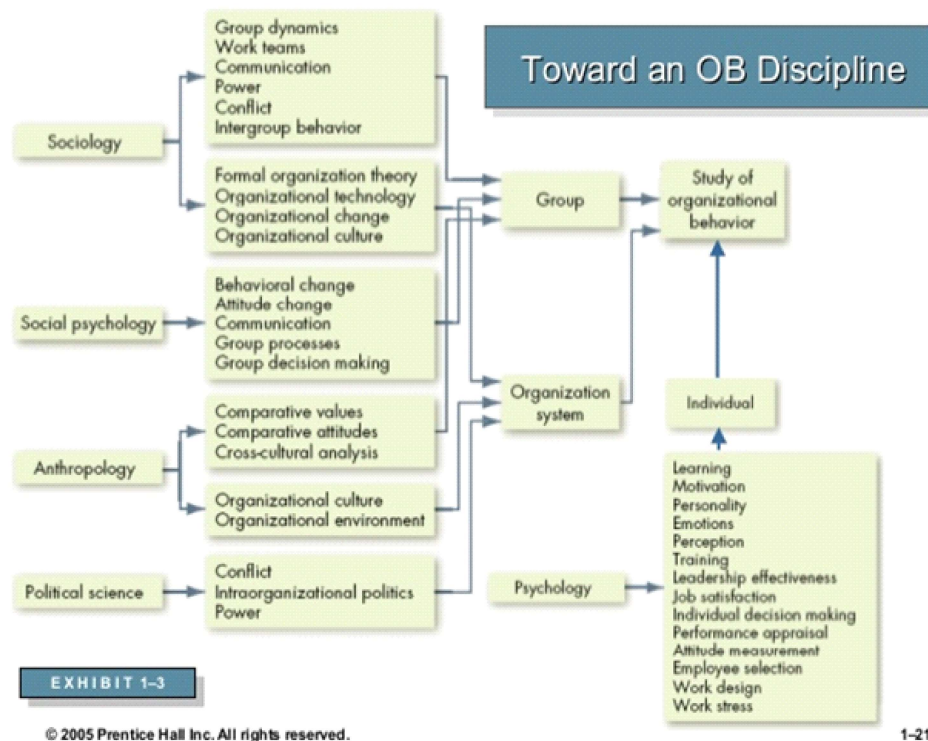
2.2 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you will be able to:

- Understand the disciplines contributing to organisational behaviour.
- Identify the factors affecting organisational behaviour.
- Determinants of organisational behaviour.

2.3 INTERDISCIPLINARY NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organisational behaviour is an applied behavioural science that is built on contributions from a number of behavioural disciplines. The sciences of psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science, engineering, management and medicine are the primary fields of study out of which Organisational behaviour has grown. Each of these sciences has had its own importance and unique influence on the discipline of Organisational behaviour.



*Source: Stephen P. Robbins. Organisational Theory, 1990, 3rd edition, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.

- a. **Psychology:** Psychology is the science of human behaviour and dates back to the closing decades of the nineteenth century. Psychology traces its origins to philosophy and the science of physiology. It is the science that seeks to measure, explain and, sometimes, change the behaviour of humans. Psychologists concern themselves with studying and attempting to understand individual behaviour. Since its origin, psychology has itself become differentiated into a number of specialized fields, such as clinical, experimental, military, and Organisational psychology. The topics in Organisational psychology, which include work teams, work motivation, training and development, power and leadership, human resource planning and workplace wellness, are very

similar to the topics covered by Organisational behaviour. Those who have contributed and continue to add to the knowledge of OB are learning theorists, personality theorists, counselling psychologists and, most important, industrial and Organisational psychologists. Industrial and Organisational psychologists concern themselves with problems of fatigue, boredom, perception, learning motivation, job satisfaction, personality, performance appraisals, employee selection, job designing, work stress, etc.

- b. Medicine:** It is the applied science of healing or treatment of diseases to enhance an individual's health and well-being. Medicine embraces concern for both physical and psychological health, with the concern for industrial mental health dating back at least sixty years. More recently, as the war against acute diseases is being won, medical attention has shifted from acute diseases such as influenza to the more chronic ones, such as hypertension. Individual behaviour and lifestyle patterns play a more important role in treating chronic diseases than in treating acute diseases. These trends have contributed to the growth of wellness programmes in the context of corporate medicine. These programmes have led to increasing attention to medicine in Organisational behaviour.
- c. Sociology:** Sociology, the science of society, has made important contributions to knowledge about group and inter group dynamics in the study of Organisational behaviour. Because sociology takes the society rather than the individual as a point of departure, the sociologist is concerned with the variety of roles within a society or culture, the norms and standards of behaviour that emerge within societies and groups, and the examination of the consequences of compliant and deviant behaviour within social groups. Sociologists have made their greatest contributions to Organisational behaviour through their study

of group behaviour in Organisations, particularly formal and complex Organisations. Some of the areas within Organisational behaviour that have received inputs from sociologists are group dynamics, design of work teams, Organisational culture, formal Organisations, theory and structure, Organisational technology, bureaucracy, communications, power, conflict and inter group behaviour.

- d. **Social Psychology:** Social psychology is a branch of psychology which borrows concepts from psychology and sociology and focuses on the influence of people on one another. Social psychologists have made significant contributions in the area of measuring, understanding and changing attitudes; communication patterns; the way in which group activities can satisfy individual needs, and group decision making processes.
- e. **Engineering:** Engineering has made important contributions to our understanding of the design of work. By taking basic engineering ideas and applying them to human behaviour in work Organisations, Fredrick Taylor had a profound influence on the early years of the study of Organisational behaviour. Taylor's engineering background led him to place special emphasis on human productivity and efficiency in work behaviour. His notions of performance standards and differential piece-rate system have contributed to the growth of Organisational behaviour.
- f. **Management:** Originally called administrative science, it is a discipline concerned with the study of overseeing activities and supervising people in Organisations. It emphasizes the design, implementation, and management of various administrative and Organisational systems. Management is the first discipline to take the modern corporation as the unit of analysis, and this viewpoint distinguishes the discipline's contribution to the study of Organisational behaviour.

- g. Anthropology:** It is the science of human learned behaviour and is especially important to understand Organisational culture. Anthropologists study societies to learn about human beings and their activities. Their work on cultures and environments has helped us understand the differences in fundamental values, attitudes, and behaviour between people in different countries and within different Organisations. Cultural anthropology focuses on the origins of culture and the patterns of behaviour as culture is communicated symbolically. Current research in this tradition has examined the effects of efficient cultures on Organisation performance and how pathological personalities may lead to dysfunctional Organisational cultures. Much of our current understanding of Organisational culture, Organisational environments, and differences between national cultures is the result of the efforts of anthropologists.
- h. Political Science:** Political scientists study the behaviour of individuals and groups within a political environment. Political scientists have become increasingly aware that Organisations are political entities and if we are able to accurately explain and predict the behaviour of people in Organisations, we need to bring a political perspective to our analysis. The contributions of political scientists are significant to the understanding of behaviour in Organisations.

2.4 DETERMINANTS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

A complete understanding of the determinants of Organisational behaviour requires both an understanding of human behaviour and an understanding of the Organisational context within which human behaviour is acted out. The Organisational context is the specific setting within which Organisational behaviour is enacted and includes

- a. Organisations as systems and

- b. The formal and informal organisations.

Let us understand the model in details.

- a. **Organisations as Systems**

Organisations are systems of interacting components which are people, tasks, technology and structure. These internal components also interact with components in the Organisation's task environment. Organisations as open systems have people, technology, structure and purpose, which interact with elements in the organisation's environment. Organisations may manufacture products such as steel or deliver services, such as managing money or providing insurance. To understand how organisations do these things require an understanding of the open system components of the organisation and the components of its task environment. Leavitt sets out a basic framework for understanding organisations, a framework that emphasizes four major internal components. They are:

- i. **Task:** The task of the organisation is its mission, purpose or goal for existing.
- ii. **People:** The people are the human resources of the organisation.
- iii. **Technology:** The technology is the wide range of tools, knowledge and/or techniques used to transform inputs into outputs.
- iv. **Structure:** The structure is how work is designed at the micro level as well as how departments, divisions, and the overall organisation are designed at the macro level.

The organisation system works by taking inputs, converting them into finished products and delivering outputs to its task environment. Inputs consist of human, informational, material and financial resources used by the organisation. The finished products are the materials and resources as they are transformed by the organisation's technology component. Once the transformation is complete,

they become outputs for customers, consumers and clients. The actions of suppliers, customers, regulators and other elements of the task environment affect the organisation and the behaviour of people at work. Transforming inputs into high quality outputs is critical to an organisation's success.

b. The formal and informal organisation

The formal organisation is that part of the system that has legitimacy and official recognition. The informal organisation is the unofficial part of the organisation which was first fully appreciated as a result of the Hawthorne studies conducted during the 1920s and 1930s. It was during the interview study, the third of the four Hawthorne studies, that the researchers began to develop a fuller appreciation for the informal elements of the Hawthorne works as an organisation. Potential conflicts between the formal and informal elements of the organisation make an understanding of both important. The informal organisation is a frequent point of diagnostic and intervention activities in organisation development. The informal organisation is important because people's feelings, thoughts and attitudes about their work do make a difference in their behaviour and performance. Individual behaviour plays out in the context of formal and informal elements of the system, becoming organisational behaviour.

2.5 DEVELOPING AN ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR MODEL (OB MODEL)

Objective of model development is to understand human behaviour, predict and control the same. The behavioural approach is used for controlling human behaviour as individuals and as a group, to measure organizational effectiveness. Development of OB model involves studying individual, group, organizational structure and systems that should be finely interwoven. The basics of OB model is an individual in an organization. Two or more individuals make a team or a group (work group). There are various systems and sub-systems in any organization like recruitment system or communication system under which an individual or group has to function. Study of

OB relates to studying individual behaviour, group behaviour and various organizational systems. It has been observed that Individual behaves differently in different situations. For example an individual will be very enthusiastic on the sports ground, very sober while worshipping in the temple and gay during the dinner party. Though the individual is the same but changes his behaviour based on norms that has been associated with different situations. Two people often act differently in any one situation. For example, worker would display different type of behaviour under different patterns of leadership. His behaviour would be affected, to a large extent on the style of leadership. Individual level behaviour forms a base for group behaviour. It is a study which involves step by step approach, first studying individual behaviour, later group behaviour and in the end studying various organizational structures, which have impact on organization as a whole.

Individual, groups and organization structure have a direct impact on the productivity of an organization. High productivity is directly related to high job satisfaction of the employees. While employee turnover and absenteeism is inversely proportionate to productivity and job satisfaction. More satisfied employee would be more productive. He would be absent on less occasions unless forced by the situation and would render dedicated service and display high degree of loyalty unless forced by domestic constraints. The health of the organization can fairly be judged by the absenteeism and employee turnover. Greater the absenteeism and turnover poorer is the productivity and dissatisfied employees. It is therefore fair to assume productivity, job satisfaction, employee turnover and absenteeism as dependent variables in the study of organizational behaviour. Some management scientists also include job stress, individual dissent and innovation as additional variables. It is stated that an individual or group of people who undergo high level of job stress would either absent themselves frequently or leave the organization. Therefore the study of stress and dissent is integral to absenteeism and employee turnover and need not be studied separately. Innovation is a personal characteristic of an individual who is innovative by nature and likes a challenging job, which ultimately would lead to higher job satisfaction and a better quality of life and higher productivity. It is therefore the field that the study of innovation

as dependent variable need not be undertaken separately as this would be covered under the personality traits of the individual that have an impact on organizational effectiveness. Most of the management experts have accepted only four independent variables i.e. productivity, job satisfaction, employee turnover and absenteeism.

Let us briefly study these factors.

I. Dependent Variables

- a. Productivity:** When we decide to study productivity, actually what we want to know is the factors that would influence high productivity. The study reveals that it is effectiveness and efficiency of individual, groups and organizational structure that have a positive impact on productivity. It should therefore be an endeavour of any organization to introduce such management practices, which will enhance job satisfaction level of an individual group and organization as a whole. Productivity can be measured in terms of number of items produced by an organization or percentage of profit earned at the end of the production cycle or financial year. It can also be measured by output of production per hour. In case of service industry like hotels or hospitals, occupancy of suites in a hotel on daily basis and turnover of patients per day can express the productivity of the service organization.
- b. Job satisfaction:** Job satisfaction can be explained as a general attitude towards one's job. Job satisfaction is the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive. It is a difference between material/ money gains in terms of wages, salary and expectations. Job satisfaction sphere can be enlarged to promotion, organizational policies and its implementation, wage structure as compared to the industry norms. Job satisfaction is important because it displays demonstrated relationship to performance and value preferences. Job satisfaction is an attitude rather than a behaviour. It is negatively related to absenteeism and employee turnover.

Challenging jobs should be provided to the employees and total quality management of workers is undertaken. Higher management must take quality decisions, which has an equal bearing on quality production. Organizations should evolve such policies that would increase the satisfaction level of employees and must count on intrinsic value that employees believe in.

- c. **Absenteeism:** Absenteeism refers to individual absents himself from the job or work place without any notice. While leave is also absenteeism but it is a forewarned phenomenon. In the work-setting, a supervisor is expected to be aware of individuals proceeding on leave in advance so that adequate measures are taken to hire individual in place of the person proceeding on leave. When an individual is not happy with his work, he generally absents himself. Apart from causing personal loss in terms of wages, it also causes great amount of inconvenience to the organization and hampers work schedule and productivity. If an organization works on a process manufacturing like bottling plant, the link of process is disturbed due to the individual being absent and a substitute is required to be hired at the last moment, who may not be skilled to do the job. If a large number of individuals are absent at any one time, the quality of product is reduced because of poor quality of individuals hired. Even a situation may arise to shut down a plant when absenteeism is at an optimum degree. It may be noted that absenteeism reduces work stress and fatigue of the workers. When they join on the duty, they are fresh and it has been noticed that the production level increases. It has also been observed that managers joining on duty after a long leave of absence, give quality decisions. It is therefore necessary that the individual working in any organization should be adequately motivated, their leave appropriately planned and suitable relief arranged when they proceed on leave of absence. An organization having zero percent of absenteeism is generally considered to be a

high productive unit with a good morale of workers and high esprit de corps.

- d. **Turnover:** Turnover of employees could be voluntary or involuntary. Voluntary turnover takes place when an individual leaves an organization to join another, where he believes that there may be better prospects or opportunities for growth. Apart from the above, an individual may leave the organization purely on administrative grounds like new organization being close to the residence, availability of schools in the new area etc. Involuntary turnover refers to permanent withdrawal of an employee from the organization at the organization's will. This turnover may be planned or unplanned. Persons leaving organization on retirement is a planned turnover because the management knows well in advance as to the date of retirement. The study of employee turnover is important because it relates to manpower planning of the organization. It is the prime function of a personnel manager to identify where and when the employee is leaving the organization and ensure the vacancies so caused are kept filled. Turnover has an adverse impact on productivity. High rate of turnover leads to increased cost on recruitment, selection and training the employees. It also causes disruption in production due to various posts remaining vacant over a long period of time. It should be borne in mind that employee turnover should be kept zero if possible apart from planned turnover. This would ensure smooth functioning of the organization, sticking to the production schedules that will ultimately have a positive impact on sales revenue. Greater turnover leads to extra expenses in terms of time and efforts that could be avoided. Social scientists and management experts feel that employee turnover to some extent is good for the health of the organization. They feel that due to employee turnover, new opportunities are created to the individuals, certain amount of undesirable individuals can be replaced, new blood with higher skills, fresh ideas and motivated

people can be inducted, who may have a vision and give a new look to the organization.

II. Independent Variables

The independent variables influencing the organizational behaviour are as under:

- a. Individual Variables:** Individual has value system which is exhibited by him through his personality. Apart from this he has preferences, attitude, ego and learning. All the variables influences the work environment. Managers do not have control over the individual behaviour. The knowledge of these factors is important as it has direct bearing on the organizational effectiveness and growth. These factors have a direct impact on productivity, job satisfaction, turnover and absenteeism.
- b. Group Variables:** Group variables are important factors influencing organizational behaviour. A group has a deciding impact on various events in the organization. The contribution of people in group is more than the sum total of individual contribution made to the organization. Study of group behaviour is carried out under several concepts like group dynamics, group decision making, power politics, leadership inter-group and intra-group behaviour, conflict management. All these variables are studied so that the energies and skills are diverted towards goal achievement in the organization.
- c. Structural Variables:** Structural variables are related to command and control, reporting channels, specilisation, training and development, organization development and other variable pertaining to organizational make up, job design procurement and utilization of organizational resources. If organizational structure is flat, the people would be accountable and more responsible. Formal and informal organizations have its merits for contribution to the organization.

2.6 MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Every organization develops a particular model in which behaviour of the people takes place. This model is developed on the basis of management's assumptions about people and the vision of the management. Since these assumptions vary to a great extent, these result into the development of different organizational behaviour models (OB models). From the very beginning of the civilized human society, two alternative approaches have been adopted for placing trust on people.

One says "trust everyone unless there is a contrary evidence": another says "do not trust anyone unless there is a contrary evidence".

Naturally, interpersonal interactions take place differently under these two approaches. Following description of the organizations is worthwhile to note here:

"Most of our originations tend to be arranged on the assumption that people cannot be trusted or relied on, even in tiny matters".

However, this is only one side of the coin. For example, *McGregor* has given theories X and Y and each theory makes assumptions which are quite contrary to each other; *Argyris* has given the concept of immaturity and maturity of people which also provides two opposite views about the people. Thus, OB models developed on the basis of these assumptions would show great variations. However, OB models that are in practice show some kind of continuum between these two opposite poles, though they tend to lean towards a particular pole. *Davis* has described four OB models which are as follows :

- a. Autocratic Model
- b. Custodial Model
- c. Supportive Model
- d. Collegial Model

a. Autocratic Model

In the autocratic model, managerial orientation is towards power. Managers see authority as the only means to get the things done, and employees are expected to follow orders. The result is high dependence on boss. This dependence is possible because employees live on the subsistence level. The organizational process is mostly formalized; the authority is delegated by right of command over people to whom it applies. The management decides what is the best action for the employees. The model is largely based on the Theory of X assumptions of McGregor where the human beings are taken inherently distasteful to work and try to avoid responsibility. A very strict and close supervision is required to obtain desirable performance from them. Likert's management system can be compared with the model of organizational behaviour. His system (exploitative authoritative) in which motivation depends on physical security and some use of desire for start and better performance is ensured through fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards; communications is mostly one-way, that is downward: there is little interaction between managers and employees.

The autocratic model represents traditional thinking which is based on the economic concept of the man. With the changing values and aspiration levels of people, this model is yielding place to others. However, this does not mean that this model is discarded in toto. In many cases; the autocratic model of organizational behaviour may be a quite useful way to accomplish performance, particularly where the employees can be motivated by physiological needs. This generally happens at lower strata of the organization.

b. Custodial Model

In the custodial model, the managerial orientation is towards the use of money to play for employee benefits. The model depends on the economic resources of the organization and its ability to pay for the benefits. While the employees hope to obtain security, at the same time they become highly dependent on

the organization. An organizational dependence reduces personal dependence on boss. The employees are able to satisfy their security needs or in the context of Herzberg's theory only maintenance factors. These employees working under custodial model feel happy, their level of performance is not very high. This resembles again to Herzberg's satisfier and dissatisfier. Since employees are getting adequate regards and organizational security, they feel happy. However, they are not given any authority to decide what benefits or rewards they should get. This approach is quite similar to patrimonial approach where the basic assumption is that it is the prerogative of management to decide what benefits are best suited to the employees. Such an approach is still quite common in many business organizations in India. The phenomenon is more predominant in family-managed business organizations where family characteristics have also been applied to the organizational settings. The basic ingredient of the family-managed system is that, parents decide what is good or bad for their children and managers decide what is good for their employees. From this point of view, this model is not suitable for matured employees.

c. Supportive Model

The supportive model organizational behaviour depends on managerial leadership rather than on the use of power of money. The aim of managers is to support employees in their achievement of results. The focus is primarily on participation and involvement of employees in managerial decision-making process. The model is based on principles of supportive relationship's of Likert, which is the basic ingredient of his system 4 (participative). Likert states that, the leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organizations each member will, in the light of his background, values and expectation views the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains, his sense of personal worth and importance.²⁸ It is quite similar to the assumptions of McGregor's Theory Y. The supportive model is based on

the assumptions that human beings move to the maturity level and they expect the organizational climate which supports this expectations. Various organizational processes-communication, leadership, decision-making, interaction, control, and influence-are such that, these help employees to fulfil their higher order needs such as esteem and self-actualization. Likert has shown that, supportive model is best suited in the conditions when employees are self-motivated. Thus, this emphasizes not on the economic resources of the organization but its human aspect. Manager's role is to help employees to achieve their work rather than supervising them closely. This can be applied more fruitfully for higher level managers whose lower order needs are satisfied reasonably. Organizations with sophisticated technology and employing professional people can also apply this model for getting best out of their human resources. However, this does not mean that, this model can be applied in all circumstances. For example Davis observes that, 'the supportive model tends to be specially effective in nations with affluence and complex technology, because it appeals to higher order needs and provides intrinsic motivational factors. It may not be the best model to apply in less developed nations. Because their employees need structures who are often at lower levels and their social conditions are different'. Moreover, this model can be applied more fruitfully for managerial levels as compared to operative levels. As such, the tendency of modern management is to move towards supportive model, especially for their management groups.

d. Collegial Model

Collegial model is an extension of supportive model. The term collegial refers to a body of people having common purpose. Collegial model is based on the team concept in which each employee develops high degree of understanding towards others and shares common goals. The employee response to this situation is responsibility. Employees need little direction and control from management. Control is basically through self-discipline by the team members. The organizational climate is quite conducive to self-fulfillment and self-

actualization. Collegial model tends to be more useful with unprogrammed work requiring behavioural flexibility, an intellectual environment, and considerable job freedom.

The various models of organizational behaviour are based on the assumption of the human characteristics and how they can work best. Since situational variables are strong factors in determining the organizational processes, managers cannot assume that a particular model is best suitable for all purposes and for all situations. Rather all the models will remain in practice and that too with considerable success. These models are basically constructed around need hierarchy. Since need hierarchy is not similar for all the employees, the same model cannot be used for all of them. The need hierarchy changes with the level of a person in the organization, level of his education, level of maturity, personality factors and the type of work environment. Considering these factors, a particular model can be applied. Organization theorists have argued that there is a tendency to move towards the adoption of supportive model because in this case people may give their best because in other models they do not find conditions conducive to give their best performance. This is why managers are taking a number of steps to humanize their organizations, such as participation, morale building, and so on to make the organizations more effective.

2.7 FACTORS INFLUENCING ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The role of work has changed throughout the world due to economic conditions and social demands. Originally, work was a matter of necessity and survival. Throughout the years, the role of “work” has evolved and the composition of the workforce has changed. Today, work still is a necessity but it should be a source of personal satisfaction as well. One of the vehicles to help provide attainment of personal and professional goals is work-life benefits and programs which also helps to assess the behaviour of an individual and the factors affecting the behaviour at work.

When it comes to behaviour at work, most people with the right attitude tend to think that pushing their all, is the way to go. It is important to push and give your best but it is equally important to rest and know how to recharge your batteries. One may have very good behaviour at work and strive hard to increase your efficiency but if you do not know when to say stop, you will soon see your productivity drop. But there are many factors which affect the behaviour at work which eventually affects the performance.

In December 2006 the British petroleum conducted a work life balance workshop which highlighted the factors effecting people's behaviour at work. Following are the key factors which affect the behaviour and which are also interrelated to each other.

Change is inevitable in the life of an organisation. In today's business world, most of the organisations are facing a dynamic and changing business environment. They should either change or die, there is no third alternative. Organizations that learn and cope with change will thrive and flourish and others who fail to do so will be wiped out. The major forces which make the changes not only desirable but inevitable are technological, economic, political, social, legal, international and labour market environments.

In very simple words, we can say that change means the alteration of status quo or making things different. "The term change refers to any alterations which occurs in the overall work environment of an organisation."

"When an organizational system is disturbed by some internal or external force, change frequently occurs. Change, as a process, is simply modification of the structure or process of a system. It may be good or bad, the concept is descriptive only."

There are a number of factors both internal and external which affect organizational functioning. Any change in these factors necessitates changes in an organisation. The more important factors are as follows :

I. External Forces

Every organization exists in some context; no organization is an island in itself. Each must continually interact with other organizations and individuals- the consumers, suppliers, unions, shareholders, government and many more. Each organization has goals and responsibilities related to each other in the environment. The present day environment is dynamic and will continue to be dynamic. Changes in social, political, economic, technology and legal environment force organizations to change themselves. Such changes may result in organizational changes like major functions production process, labour-management relations, nature of competitions, economic constraints, organizational methods etc. In order to survive in the changing environment, organization must change. How the change in various environmental, organizations, must change. How the changes in various environmental factors necessitate change in the organization may be seen in following context:

a. Technology

When there is a change in technology in the organizational environment and other organizations adopt the new technology, the organizations under focus become less cost effective and its competitive position weakens. Therefore, it has to adopt new technology, its work structure is affected and a new equilibrium has to be established.

b. Marketing conditions

Since every organization exports its outputs to the environment, an organization has to face competition in the market. There may be two types of forces which may affect the competitive position of an organization -other organizations supplying the same products and, buyers who are not buying the product. Any changes in these forces may require suitable changes in the in the organization. For example, when Indian economy was liberalized, there were many foreign

organizations that entered the Indian market. This forced many Indian organizations to realign themselves with the new situations. The result in that there have been many cases of divesting the business and concentrating on the core business, acquiring core business, and developing competitive competence to face competitive threats. Similarly, there may be changes in buyers in terms of their needs, liking -disliking and income disposal for a product. These changes are from the organizations to bring those products which meet buyer's requirement.

c. Social changes

Social changes reflect in terms of people's aspirations, the needs, and their ways of working. Social changes have taken place because of the several forces like level of education, urbanization, feeling of autonomy, and international impact due to new information sources. These social changes affect the behavior of people in the organization. There, it is required to make adjustment in its working so that it matches with people.

d. Political and legal changes

Political and legal factors broadly define the activities which an organisation can undertake and the methods which will be followed by it in accomplishing those activities. Any changes in these political and legal factors may affect the organization operation.

II. Internal Forces

It is not only the changes in external factors, which may necessitate organizational changes; any change in organization's internal factors may also necessitate changes. Such a change is required because of two reasons: changes in managerial personnel and deficiency in existing organizational practices.

a. Conflict

Conflict exists in every organization and to a certain extent indicates a healthy exchange of ideas and creativity. However, counter-productive conflict can result in employee dissatisfaction, reduced productivity, poor service to clients, absenteeism and increased employee turnover, increased work-related stress or, worse case scenario, litigation based on claims of harassment or a hostile work environment.

b. Demographic Factors

The demographic factors are socio-economic background, education, nationality, race, age, sex, etc. Organizations prefer persons that belong to good socio-economic background, well educated, young etc as they are believed to be performing better than the others. The young and dynamic professionals that have good academic background and effective communication skills are always in great demand.

c. Abilities and Skills

The physical capacity of an individual to do something can be termed as ability. Skill can be defined as the ability to act in a way that allows a person to perform well. The individual behavior and performance is highly influenced by ability and skills. A person can perform well in the organisation if his abilities and skills are matched with the job requirement.

d. Perception:

The cognitive process meant for interpreting the environmental stimuli in a meaningful way is referred to as perception. Every individual on the basis of his/he reference can organize and interpret environmental stimuli. There are many factors that influence the perception of an individual. The study of perception plays important role for the managers.

e. Changes in the managerial personnel:

Besides environmental changes there is a change in managerial personnel. Old managers are replaced by new managers, which is necessitated because of retirement, promotion, transfer or dismissal. Each new manager brings his own ideas and way of working in the organization. The relationships more in the organization, the relationships more particularly informal ones, changes because of changes in managerial personnel. Moreover, attitude of the personnel change even though there is no changes in them. The result is that an organization has to change accordingly.

f. Deficiency in Existing organization:

Sometimes, changes are necessary because of deficiency in the present organizational arrangement and process. These deficiencies may be in the form of unmanageable span of management, large number of managerial levels, lack in co-ordination between various departments, obstacles in communication, multiplicity of committees, lack of uniformity in policy decisions, lack of cooperation between the line and staff, and so on. Besides these internal factors, there are two more internal factors that give rise to organizational changes.

g. Nature of the work force:

The nature of work force has changed over a passage of time. Different work values have been expressed by different generations. Workers who are in the age group of 50 plus value loyalty to their employers. Workers in their mid thirties to forties are loyal to themselves only. The youngest generation of workers is loyal to their career. The profile of the workforce is also changing fast. The new generation of workers has better education; they place greater emphasis on human values and question authority of managers. Their behaviour has also become

very complex and leading them towards organizational goals is a challenge for the managers. The employee turnover is also very high which again put strain on the management.

h. To avoid developing inertia:

In many cases, organizational changes take place just to avoid developing inertia or inflexibility. Conscious manager take into account this view of organization that organization should be dynamic because any single method is not the best tool of management every time. Thus, changes are incorporated so that the personnel develop liking for change and there is no unnecessary resistance when major change in the organization are brought about.

2.8 SUMMARY

Study of organizational behaviour is very interesting. It is the art on the part of manager to understand, describe, forecast and modify individual behaviour. Lot of studies have been undertaken in the field of organizational behaviour and vast literature is available, which need to be studied by practitioners in the field of managing human resources. Various models and research instruments are available to investigate human behaviour. Various fields like psychology, social psychology, anthropology, sociology, politics, economics, and medical sciences have contributed to the field of organization behaviour. Various models in the above fields have enriched the study of organization behaviour. It is the field of study that investigates the impact on individuals, groups and organizational structure have on individual behaviour so that the knowledge so achieved can be suitably modified and applied for organizational effectiveness. The study of organizational behaviour relates to the study of attitude, perception, learning, values at individual level. The study is undertaken pertaining to managing stress, conflicts, intergroup behaviour, decision making at group level. Management of change, development of organizational culture, designing and redesigning of jobs, and various organizational development strategies are required to be undertaken by leaders for organizational effectiveness. It is the responsibility of the managers to evolve

appropriate strategies to study organizational components. The first component is people. The study of organizational behaviour involves identifying need spectrum of the people, managing interpersonal relationship, understanding of individual objectives and co-relating organizational strategies accordingly. The second component is understanding of organizational structure and its modification based on the need of the hour. Manager should decide upon the nature of structure and ensure unity of command, number of levels that may be required for effective command and control. Communication, delegation of authority, well defined policies, rules, regulation, systems, procedures and processes. Introduction of latest technology is an essential part of organizational development that should be taken care of by the manager responsible for running the organization. Jobs should be allotted to the individual based on the aptitude and the processes must be compatible with the technology being used. One of the most important components is environment. While internal environment relates to various personnel policies and corresponding managerial actions, the external environment relates to cultural, social, legal, and governmental rules and regulations that should be taken care of. Technological changes have made it imperative on the part of managers that they should take care of employees and meet their social expectations so that organizational goals can be achieved.

The human behavior at work place is a function of multifarious factors that are virtually out of sight and out of reach for the organizations. Apart from internal environment of the organization, other external factors exert tremendous influence on employees to shape up or govern their response and behavior to certain situations. An open analytical mind gets immune to stressful situations and always does correct evaluation of the situation and moves in the right direction. It is for employees to keep “outside the organization” factors under check and not to let them exert control on their activities at work place. This requires subtle changes in the attitude and a strong desire to acquire wisdom to handle tough situations tactfully in future.

2.9 KEYWORDS

- **Sociology:** The study of people in relation to their fellow human beings.
- **Social Psychology:** An area within psychology that blends concepts from psychology and sociology and that focuses on the influence of people on one another.
- **Anthropology:** The study of societies to learn about human beings and their activities.
- **Intuition:** A feeling not necessarily supported by research.
- **Model:** Abstraction of reality, simplified representation of some real-world phenomenon.
- **Dependent variable:** A response that is affected by an independent variable.
- **Efficiency:** The ratio of effective output to the input required to achieve it.
- **Effectiveness:** Achievement of goals.
- **Absenteeism:** Failure to report to work.
- **Turnover:** Voluntary and Involuntary permanent withdrawal from the organisation.
- **Independent variable:** The presumed cause of some change in the dependent variable.

2.10 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Briefly explain the determinants of organisational behaviour.
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2. Explain in detail the factors affecting organisational behaviour

3. Discuss the various models of organisational behaviour.

4. If job satisfaction is not a behaviour, why is it considered an important dependent variable?

5. Compare and contrast the collegial and supportive models of OB.

2.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Why do you think the subject of OB might be criticised as only being “only common sense”, when one would rarely hear such a criticism of a course in physics or statistics ?

2. Find an organisation that directly addresses the cost of absenteeism or turnover on its internet site. What, if anything, is that organisation doing to produce those costs? What did your search tell you in terms of the importance or unimportance of these costs to organisation?

3. What are effectiveness and efficiency, and how are they related to business organisation?

2.12 BOOKS RECOMMENDED

1. Luthans, Fred. 2002. Organisational Behaviour, McGraw-Hill, New York.
2. McShane, Steven L.; Glinow, Von and Mary, Ann. 2005. Organisational Behaviour. Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Company Limited. New Delhi.
3. Prasad, L.M. 2003. Organisational Behaviour, Sultan Chand & Sons, New Delhi.
4. Singh, Kavita, 2009. Organisational Behaviour Text And Cases, Baba Barkha Nath Printers, Chennai.

BA MANAGEMENT SEMESTER-II

Course Code : BM-201

Lesson No. 3

Semester - II

Unit-I

Challenges and Opportunities in Organisational Behaviour

Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Objectives
- 3.3 Shortcomings of Organisational Behaviour
- 3.4 Challenges and opportunities in Organisational Behaviour
- 3.5 Need for contingency approach to the study of organisational behaviour
- 3.6 Organizational components that need to be managed
- 3.7 Summary
- 3.8 Keywords
- 3.9 Self-Assessment Questions
- 3.10 Lesson End Exercise
- 3.11 Books Recommended

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Organizations are composed of number of individuals working independently or collectively in teams, and number of such teams makes a department and number of such departments makes an organization. It is a formal structure and all departments have to function in a coordinated manner to achieve the organizational objective. It is therefore important for all employees to possess a positive attitude towards work. They need to function in congenial atmosphere and accomplish assigned goals. It is also important for managers to develop an appropriate work culture. Use of authority, delegation of certain powers to subordinates, division of labour, efficient communication, benchmarking, re-engineering, job re-design and empowerment are some of the important factors so that an organization can function as well-oiled machine. This is not only applicable to manufacturing organizations but also to service and social organizations. OB offers both challenges and opportunities for managers. The study of Organisational behaviour is primarily concerned with the psychosocial, interpersonal and behavioural dynamics in organisations. However, Organisational variables that affect human behaviour at work are also relevant to the study of Organisational behaviour. These Organisational variables include job content, job design and Organisational structure. Therefore, although individual behaviour and group dynamics are the primary concerns in the study of Organisational behaviour, Organisational variables are important as the context in which human behaviour occurs. It offers specific insights to improve a manager's people skills. It recognizes differences and helps managers to see the value of workforce diversity. It can improve quality and employee productivity by showing managers how to empower their people. Finally OB can offer managers guidance in creating an ethically healthy work climate.

3.2 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you will be able to:

- Understand shortcomings of organisational behaviour.
- Challenges and opportunities in organisational behaviour.

- Importance of contingency approach to the study of OB

3.3 SHORTCOMINGS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The shortcomings of the organisational behaviour that should not be lost sight of. The following are the major shortcomings of organisational behaviour:

- (i) **Failure of Individual on the Domestic Front:** Though the subject helps an individual understand human behaviour better only in the workplace, he or she may be a failure on the domestic front. People who have a thorough grounding of behavioural disciplines have sometimes proved to be total wrecks in their personal lives.
- (ii) **Failure to Contribute to Improve Interpersonal Relations:** The subject of OB has not contributed to improved interpersonal relations in organisational settings. Jealousies, back-stabbing, leg-pulling, intrigues, harassment, and inequalities in rewards go side by side with nice lectures, training programmes, discussions, smiles, assurances, niceties and the like. An employee is not sure when a pink slip will be handed out or when a reward will be announced. History seems to be repeating itself. In the earlier days, a worker was exposed to 12 to 14 hours of work and was made to work under inhuman conditions. An employee today, particularly in the new economy firms, does work 12 to 14 hours a day but under for better working conditions. The worker of the bygone days was stress-free. Today's employee is always under pressure and stress-ridden. While a worker of the earlier years died of lung diseases caused by fumes and dust; today's employee gets burnt out by the time he or she reaches 45 years of age.
- (iii) **OB has Almost Become a Fad With Managers in Most Organisations:** Common uniforms, open offices, and shared canteens have, for example, been practised in several industrial establishments in the name of improving interpersonal relations. But wearing identical clothes has not changed the attitude of the boss towards his/her subordinates. Seldom is the subordinate treated

as an equal, and rarely are his/her views respected and accepted. Removal of physical palisades in the office has not abolished the mental barriers between the manager and the managed. The boss and the subordinates may eat the same food in the same canteen. Still, the former expects his/her subordinate to serve him/her the food and treat him/her differently. The dual personalities of managers are often bewildering. Outwardly, they talk about participative management, equality of opportunities, empowerment, and open door policies. Behind the veneer of all this pep talk, is the harsh reality that most of these bosses are feudal lords who expect the subordinates to be slaves. Any deviation from this makes the boss feel insecure. The smart subordinate is feared, hounded, and is finally made to quit.

- (iv) **OB is Selfish and Exploitative.** It serves only the interest of the management. It is the product of capitalist societies. With high emphasis on motivation, efficiency, and productivity, the subject breeds a competitive spirit among the employees. They are not allowed to function and live in harmony with one another.
- (v) **Expectation of Quick-Fix Solutions:** A serious problem that has plagued the subject is the tendency of managers to expect quick-fix solutions from behavioural programmes. This expectation makes the managers address the symptoms while neglecting the underlying problems or to fragment their efforts within the firms. Critics of OB wonder whether the ideas that have been developed and tested during periods of organisational growth and economic plenty will endure with equal success under different conditions. Future environment shall be marked by shrinking demand, scarce resources, and more intense competition. When organisations stagnate, decline, or encounter a threat of closure, there will be conflict and stress.
- (vi) **OB will not Totally Abolish Conflict and Frustration, it Can Only Reduce them:** It is a means to improve, not an absolute answer to problems. It is only a part of the whole fabric of an organisation. We can discuss OB as a separate

subject; but to apply it, we must relate it to reality. However improved, OB will not solve unemployment. It will not make up for our own deficiencies. It cannot substitute for poor planning, inept organizing, or inadequate controls. It is only one of the many systems operating within a larger social system. The shortcomings of OB, however, should not detract the reader from the greatest contribution of the discipline to human life-understanding human behaviour. Life in and outside organisations would not be what it is if we fail to understand ourselves and our fellow beings better.

3.4 CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Modern organisations are deeply affected by the external environment. These need to maintain a good fit with their external environment by continuously monitoring and adjusting to the changes over the past decade and decade to come, are more profound than others. Some critical OB issues confronting the managers today are as follows:-

- I. Managerial challenges
- II. Work place issues and challenges
- III. Organisational challenges
- IV. Global challenges
- V. Environmental challenges

The above mentioned challenges are explained below:

I. Managerial challenges

Managers of modern organisation faces the following managerial challenges:-

- a. **Workforce diversity**-Organisations are becoming more heterogeneous in terms of gender, race and ethnicity. There can be employees who are physically handicapped, lesbians, gays, elderly or

others who are different in some way or others. The managers must learn to respect the diversity. They have to shift their philosophy from treating everyone alike to recognising differences and responding to those differences in a way that will ensure employee retention and greater productivity while at the same time not discriminating. An increasingly diverse workforce presents both opportunities and challenges for the organisations. If diversity is not properly managed, it can lead to higher employee turnover, more difficult communications and more interpersonal conflicts.

- b. Changing demographics of workforce-** it includes dual career couples, where both partners are actively pursuing professional careers. They limit the individual flexibility in accepting important assignments and this hinders the organisational flexibility in acquiring and developing talent.
- c. Growing number of youngsters-** These employees are fresh, ambitious, enthusiastic and innovative. These people do not “Live to work but work to Live” choosing a life that they want to have as opposed to just bringing home a pay check.
- d. Gender factor-** Women gradually moved into professions previously dominated by male and in the same way men also moved to professions previously dominated by females. These developments have their own implications for human resource managers in organisations.

II. Workplace issues and challenges- These issues also have behavioural implications. Major issues under these are:-

- a. Employee Privacy-** employers have started to intrude and encroach into the personal lives of the employees. Managers need to be very sensitive to this issue since this trend creates resentment among employees.

- b. **Employee rights-** it involve controversies involve issues associated with job ownership and individual rights while at work.
- c. **Unionism-** recently union membership has been steadily declining. As a result organisations carry the burden of providing services to the employees which were previously provided by the union . Organisations need to take extra precautions to ensure that workers are treated fairly, otherwise, union membership will start increasing once again.
- d. **Changed Employee expectations-** Traditional motivators like job security, attractive pay, additional perks etc do not attract present day employees and they demand empowerment, and expect quality of status with the management. Participative management instead of authoritative leadership, flexi-timings, opportunities to work from home, leading by example are the more recent trends.

III. **Organisational challenges**

- a. **Improving quality and productivity** – Due to the changed circumstances [LPG] managers have to think seriously about improving the quality and productivity measures like Total Quality Management [TQM] and Reengineering Programme. TQM is a philosophy of management for attainment of customer satisfaction through the continuous improvement of all organisational processes. Reengineering means radically thinking and redesigning those processes by which they create value for customers and do their work.
- b. **Managing technology and innovations-** Success will come only to those organisations that maintain their flexibility continually improve their quality and out beat their competitors with innovative products ad services. The challenge for managers is to stimulate employee creativity and tolerance for change.

- c. **Coping with temporariness** – The concept of continuous improvement means constant change. Managers face a stage of permanent temporariness. The actual jobs that workers perform are in a state of flux they have to continuously update their knowledge and skills to perform new job requirements.
- d. **Ethical behaviour**- It is the duty of managers to create an ethically healthy climate for their employees, where they can do their work productively and with clean conscience. Social responsibility is the organisational, obligation to protect and contribute to social environment with which they functions.

IV. Global Challenges

- a. **Managing global environment**- Internationalism of business has transformed the world into a global village. Managers have to cope with this internationalism and must change to acquire a global perspective.
- b. **Managing cultural diversity**- Managers in India as well as abroad has to work with people from other countries having different cultures. They have to work effectively with these people and understand their culture and learn to adapt management styles to these different cultures.

V. Environment Challenges- Organisations exist within an external environment. It must adapt itself with the continuously changing and dynamic environment. Managers of an organisation must be responsive to a large number of environmental challenges like:-

- a. **Ecology**- it is concerned with the relationship of living things with their environment. Every organisation must face the challenge to maintain and even create ecological standards.
- b. **Air, Water and soil Pollution**- The general concept recommended nowadays is that development should be sustainable in the long run

and every project should cater to maintain if not mend the direct harm to the environment resulting from the development measures.

- c. **Personnel Policies-** It must not be discriminatory towards any particular caste, creed, religion, sex or nationality. There should be equal pay for equal work.
- d. **Consumerism-** It calls for a revised marketing concept. Marketing concept has to be broadened to include societal marketing concept, where the long run consumer welfare is important.
- e. **Research and development-** To keep pace with global challenges, the organisations must take technical and scientific research.
- f. **International and National Economic Policies** – The organisations must keep in mind the International as well as National Legislations as well as the rising inflationary trends.

3.5 NEED FOR CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

Organizational behaviour is a field of business or management studies that looks at the relationships between individuals and the factors that motivate them, both intrinsically and extrinsically. The contingency approach focuses on the various factors, or contingencies, that have an impact on an organization's behaviour. There should be a fit between organisation's structure, size, technology and the requirements of its environment. This perspective is known as contingency theory and the contrasts with the perspective of classical theorists of Weber, Taylor, Fayol etc., who thought that there probably was one way to run organisations that was the best, Contingency theory of management is an extension of system approach to management. There cannot be suitable management solutions for all problems. External and internal factors keep changing. Since systems approach cannot appropriately suggest relationship between organisation and environment, the gap so created has been fulfilled by contingency approach.

Traditional management relies on one basic principle that there is one best way of managing things and these things can be applied across the organisation in all the situations. The situational effect will be totally ignored in this traditional management. Situations are much more complex than first perceived and the different variables may require different behaviour for effectiveness. Each situation must be analysed carefully to determine the significant variables that exist in order to establish the kinds of practices that will be more effective.

The fundamental basis of contingency theory is that there is no best way to manage a corporation or to deal with employees. Such activities cannot be planned, because so many things change so quickly in the business world. Rather than being proactive, managers and business leaders must be reactive to the various changes and contingencies they face on a day-to-day basis. The contingency theory of leadership holds that the success of a business leader or manager is contingent on numerous internal and external factors facing him. Internal factors include the character and quality of his subordinates, the level of support received from superiors within the organization and the tasks assigned to him. External factors include economic concerns, the level of competition in the marketplace and relationships with channel partners and business partners, among others.

The contingency theory of decision-making argues that the effectiveness of a decision-making procedure depends on many contingent factors surrounding the decision. Such factors include time constraints, for example. Generally speaking, the greater the time constraint, the more flawed the decision-making process will be. Another important contingency is the amount of relevant information possessed by a decision-maker and his subordinates. The greater the amount of information, the more sound the decision should be. The contingency rules theory suggests that rules, consequences and their impact on the behaviour of individuals or groups of individuals depend upon the context in which they exist. For example, the influence of some rules might be more significant in

situations in which a member of senior management is present or on the level of importance placed on the potential benefit of disobeying a rule.

Environmental change and uncertainty, work technology, and the size of a company are all identified as environmental factors impacting the effectiveness of different organizational forms. According to the contingency perspective, stable environments suggest mechanistic structures that emphasize centralization, formalization, standardization, and specialization to achieve efficiency and consistency. Certainty and predictability permit the use of policies, rules, and procedures to guide decision making for routine tasks and problems. Unstable environments suggest organic structures which emphasize decentralization to achieve flexibility and adaptability. Uncertainty and unpredictability require general problem solving methods for non routine tasks and problems. However, there are certain draw backs in this approach. It is not considered as a unified theory of management because there is inadequate literature. It does not suggest any action in a contingency. Management actions depends upon the situation is not adequate and this theory is difficult for empirical testing. It is complex because there are large number of variables and large number of managerial actions involved. This theory is not proactive, it is reactive.

3.6 ORGANIZATIONAL COMPONENTS THAT NEED TO BE MANAGED

a. People

People are the main component of any organization that has to be managed. Every individual has a personal goal to be achieved. Organizations must identify the **need spectrum** of individuals and take suitable steps for its fulfillment to enable them to perform effectively so that they complete their allotted task in time. **Relationship** between the workers, with subordinates and superiors should be established based on full understanding and complete faith based on mutual trust so that it is easy to communicate and understand each other's views. **Work teams** and **Groups** play a vital role in the organization. Individual

may have to keep his personal interest aside if it conflicts with team or group goals. It is the team goals, accomplishment of which contribute towards achieving organizational goals. Apart from managing internal workforce, it is also important to manage customers who are the end persons using organization's products or services. Utmost interest of stakeholders, government, employees, social groups and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) must be kept in mind as they play a dominant role in the society. Apart from the above, adequate consideration should also be given to competitors, regulatory agencies, labour force, suppliers and resource persons.

b. Structure

There are two types of organizations, formal and informal. Informal organizations do not have a specified structure. Formal organizations are built based upon the objective set for it. Organizational structure in such organization is hierarchical in nature, with people at each level having their own objectives, which contributes towards fulfillment of overall organizational objectives. In such organisation people at lower levels report to higher level managers. The tier system has the principle of unity of command built in it. The organization structure may depend upon the size, number of products/services produced, skill and experience of the employees, managerial staff and geographical location of the organization. An organization may have several levels and pyramid like organizational structure or flat structure. The efficiency of the organization will depend upon the free flow of the information, efficient communication system prevailing in the organization, well-defined authority and responsibility supported by detailed policies, rules and regulations. The organization must have well laid out systems, which are understood by workers, supervisors and managers. The leader must keep open mind while dealing with subordinates and exercise full

control over various systems, levels and ensure planned productivity and achieve high level of job satisfaction.

c. Technology

Managing technology is an important job of any management. It is an important element of any unit. Selection of technology, procurement, installation, operation and maintenance is important and no compromise should be made in procuring **latest or advanced technology**. Various systems and sub- systems should support technology that exists in an organization. Based on the technology, an organization should formulate job structure and resultant procurement of human resource so that they are complimentary to each other. Adequate attention is also be paid to service industry. For example an appropriate drill, procedures are installed in hospital industry to ensure that the patients' record is maintained properly. On line operations of all systems relating to admission record, past treatment, drugs, availability of beds, schedule of operations maintained so that the level of patients satisfaction is raised. In minimum number of days, maximum numbers of patients should be treated. Various processes required to regulate these functions form the important part of service industry.

d. Jobs

Job is an assignment assigned to an individual. It encompasses various tasks within it. For example, Personnel manager wants to fill up twelve vacancies in production department within three months. Job will have various tasks inbuilt in it like designing of job specification, selection of media, advertising vacancies, scheduling of selection and recruiting process. Manager, therefore have to manage various tasks to accomplish a particular job. This may form a part of managerial functions. Adequate delegation, supervision, application of various control techniques makes the job simpler for the manager. Introduction

of computers have made managerial functions simpler, as required information is available for decision making.

e. Processes

Management of processes and its inter-dependence is very crucial to high productivity and higher job satisfaction. What is important for a manager is to ensure high morale of the work force. To ensure this, he must identify various managerial dictums. Select appropriate subordinates to carry out a job based on aptitude, personality traits, mental build up and attitude. He should also involve himself and lead subordinates by personal example. In defence services, it is the quality of leadership, that motivates troops to achieve near impossible task where every thing appears to be going wrong. Various role models assist leaders in identifying as to which process, method or approach would be suitable to mould subordinates in suitable frame that may be required by any organization. Nothing motivates workers better if you give them their entitlements in full and train them to take up higher jobs. By doing so, manager must develop and build an organizational culture that

will bind employees to a common cultural bond. During day-to-day functions, managers must be transparent and maintain a high degree of value system and display ethical behaviour. There are no short cuts to this and will pay rich dividends in times to come.

f. External Environment

What we have so far discussed is various components of an organization that should be managed properly. External environment also plays an important role in managing the points discussed above. When we talk about managing people in the organization, what we have to study and manage is the influence of culture and its impact on

the individual. A manager should examine as to how he is going to **cope up** with the changes. Study of external environment is very wide and encompasses economic, cultural, social, government rules and regulations, legal aspects, political climate, demographics and its impact. If one scans the external environment that is prevailing in Indian context, one will find that individuals are racing to catch up the **upper class** as it relates to standards of living, material possession, higher education, attempt to copy western culture, food habits, dressing pattern and the like. Beauty parlors, pubs and cyber cafes around each corner are an ample evidence of the impact of external environment. This trend has an impact on what products or services are on priority in the society and indicates the behaviour of an individual. If the above factors are evaluated appropriately, a manager will be able to examine and predict human behaviour in the organization. It is therefore important to evaluate market situation, competitors, and availability of raw material, technology, availability of skilled, semi skilled and non-skilled personnel. In addition, evaluate prevailing culture and how individuals are likely to respond to the call of the organization. Some factors like government rules, and political stability keep changing, the organizations must cater for such contingencies.

Manager must therefore keep in mind the internal and external factors and make the best amalgam and work to achieve organizational effectiveness.

3.7 SUMMARY

Managerial challenges, work place issues and challenges, organisational challenges, global challenges, environmental challenges etc. are some of the critical OB issues confronting the managers today. However, these challenges offer some opportunities that managers must recognised and work accordingly. Contingency theory of management is an extension of system approach to management. It argues

that the effectiveness of a decision-making procedure depends on many contingent factors surrounding the decision. Another important contingency is the amount of relevant information possessed by a decision-maker and his subordinates.. The contingency rules theory suggests that rules, consequences and their impact on the behaviour of individuals or groups of individuals depend upon the context in which they exist.

3.8 KEYWORDS

- **Ehical Dilemma:** Situation in which an individual is required to define right and wrong conduct.
- **Empowering employees:** Putting employees in charge of what they do.
- **Reengineering:** Reconsiders how work would be done and the organisation structured if they were being created from scratch.
- **Total quality management (TQM):** A philosophy of management that is driven by the constant attainment of customer satisfaction through the continuous improvement of all organisational processes.
- **Productivity:** A performance measure including effectiveness and efficiency.

3.9 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Briefly explain the shortcomings and limitations of organisational behaviour.

2. Discuss the organisational challenges of organisational behaviour.

3. State in detail the importance of contingency approach in organisational behaviour.

3.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. “The best way to view OB is through a contingency approach.” Build an argument to support that statement.

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2. “The increasing heterogeneity of organisations with the inclusion of different groups poses a threat to OB.” Justify this statement.

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3. Explain in detail TQM and reengineering.

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4. Briefly explain the term “ethical dilemmas”.

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4. Explain the field of organizational behaviour. Why the study is challenging?
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3.11 BOOKS RECOMMENDED

1. Luthans, Fred. 2003. Organisational Behaviour, McGraw-Hill, New York.
2. McShane, Steven L.; Glinow, Von and Mary, Ann. 2005. Organisational Behaviour. Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Company Limited. New Delhi.
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BA MANAGEMENT SEMESTER-II

Course Code : BM-201

Lesson No. 4

Semester - II

Unit-II

Individual Behaviour : Basic Psychological Determinants : Personality , Personality Traits and Theory

Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Objectives
- 4.3 Concept of Individual Behaviour
- 4.4 Determinants of Individual Behaviour
- 4.5 Biographical Characteristics
- 4.6 Personality
- 4.7 Major Determinants of Personality
- 4.8 Theories of Personality
- 4.9 Type Theories
- 4.10 Trait Theories
- 4.11 Personality Characteristics in organisations
- 4.12 Summary

4.13 Keywords

4.14 Self-Assessment Questions

4.15 Lesson End Exercise

4.10 Books Recommended

4.1 INTRODUCTION

OB offers both challenges and opportunities for managers. The study of Organisational behaviour is primarily concerned with the psychosocial, interpersonal and behavioural dynamics in organisations. However, Organisational variables that affect human behaviour at work are also relevant to the study of Organisational behaviour. These Organisational variables include job content, job design and Organisational structure. Therefore, although individual behaviour and group dynamics are the primary concerns in the study of Organisational behaviour, Organisational variables are important as the context in which human behaviour occurs. It offers specific insights to improve a manager's people skills. It recognizes differences and helps managers to see the value of workforce diversity. It can improve quality and employee productivity by showing managers how to empower their people. Finally OB can offer managers guidance in creating an ethically healthy work climate.

4.2 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you will be able to:

- Understand the concept and determinants of individual behaviour.
- Challenges and opportunities in organisational behaviour.
- Importance of contingency approach to the study of OB

4.3 CONCEPT OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

Individual behaviour is the ability of an individual to react and interact with others in general or while performing a particular task. It is determined by not just a measure of

his practical knowledge or skills in a functional area such as human relations, marketing, or information and communications technologies; but also a reflection of personal experiences, qualities, aptitudes and attitudes. Employees with good behaviour have high personal effectiveness. It is offered by allowing oneself to make self assessment across a wide range of tasks and activities such as teamwork and presentation skills, and ability to manage stress, to influence others, to plan, to relate to others and to priorities objectives.

To convert one's self-knowledge into action and success, one needs to do three things :

- a. Raise the level of awareness
- b. Identify one's key development needs
- c. Create realistic action plans.

4.4 DETERMINANTS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

There are many determinants of the individual behaviour. The main factors are as under :

- a. **Personality:** Personality plays the most important role in determining a person's behaviour. There are various personality types and their behaviour differs according to the differences in the persona. But the personalities can be modified and developed in order to be more effective.
- b. **Perception, attribution and individual decision making:** The performance of an individual also depends to a great extent on what he thinks is right, doable, worth working for, etc. Hence a very important role is played by an individual's perception and attribution about various things. Right kind of perceptions and attributions result in right decision making.
- c. **Attitudes, values and ethics:** What we are is determined up to a big extent by our values, ethics and the attitudes that we develop over the period of our lives. These determinants play a major role in influencing an individual's behaviour.

- d. **Motivation:** Without motivation, nobody feels like working. Forget about any kind of effectiveness in work. If there is a low motivation to work, it shall definitely show in the quality of the output being produced. To have a higher effectiveness, a higher motivation is required. Various motivation techniques help an individual to determine his/her behaviour.
- e. **Stress and well being at work:** A stressed individual cannot work up to his maximum potential. Thus it is needed by him as well as those working with him to ensure his well being at work. This improves the relationship at the workplace and also the individual behaviour.
- f. **Team skills and leadership skills:** Since an individual has to work in teams, it is important for him to be a good team player in order to be productive for the organisation. Apart from this, an organisation is always looking for personnel who would have leadership qualities so as to lead themselves as well as the others to deliver good quality and quantity of the output.
- g. **Communication:** Without effective communication, every individual is known as person with weak behaviour. So one should take care of all types of communication and various methods that one uses for communication among teams and across networks.
- h. **Decision making:** Decision-making ability plays a very significant role in determining and showing the individual behaviour. This is because the decisions taken by an individual determine the course of future actions as well as the consequences of the actions taken.
- i. **Conflict management:** Every organisation is a group of individuals. Wherever there is a diverse group, there are conflicts. If an individual has attributes that can manage conflicts effectively, it will in turn, definitely improve his behaviour as a worker.

4.5 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Biographical characteristics for individual behaviour determination include personal characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, and other such characteristics. Ladies are known to be more emotional and hence show more sensitive side at work places. They get hurt very easily as well. Professionals with high ages as compared to the average age of the organisation would feel a little more responsible. In some cases, these people feel a little outcast, in others, such people often discuss about their ages and productivity. People who are unmarried/singled are more likely to work late hours as compared to those who are married since the latter have to take care of their dependents (especially kids) back home.

4.6 PERSONALITY

When we talk of personality, we don't mean a person who has charm, a positive attitude toward life, a smiling face, or who has won the "miss world" contest. When psychologists talk of personality, they mean a dynamic concept describing the growth and development of a person's whole psychological system. The word 'personality' has interesting etymological origins. It can be traced to the Latin words "per sonare" which translates as "to speak through". The Latin term was used to denote the masks worn by actors in ancient Greece and Rome. This Latin meaning is particularly relevant to the contemporary analysis of personality. Personality traditionally refers to how people influence others through their external appearances and actions. But for psychologists, personality includes:

- a. External appearances and behaviour
- b. The inner awareness of self as a permanent organising force, and
- c. The particular organisation of measurable traits, both inner and outer.

Personality is an individual difference that lends consistency to a person's behaviour. Personality is defined as a relatively stable set of characteristics that influence an individual's behaviour. For our purposes, you should think of personality as the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others. This is most often described in terms

of measurable personality traits that a person exhibits. Through psychologists and social scientists unanimously agree to the importance of personality, they are unable to come up with a unanimous definition. Many authorities on the subject have defined personality in different ways. Some of the definitions are reproduced below:

Probably the most meaningful approach would be to include both the person and the role as **Floyd L Ruch** does in his definition. He states that:

“the human personality includes:

1. External appearance and behaviour or social stimulus value.
2. Inner awareness of self as a permanent organising force.
3. The particular pattern or organisation of measurable traits, both “inner and “outer”.

Gordon Allport gave the most frequently used definition of personality nearly 70 years ago. He said personality is “the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment”.

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

According to **Gluck** – “Personality is a pattern of stable states and characteristics of a person that influences his or her behaviour toward goal achievement. Each person has unique ways of protecting these states”.

James D Thompson and Donald Van Houten define personality as – “a very diverse and complex psychological concept. The word ‘personality’ may mean something like outgoing, invigorating interpersonal abilities . . . but we must also recognize and explain the fact that development results in man acquiring a distinctiveness or uniqueness which gives him identity which enables him and us to recognize him as apart from others. These distinguishing characteristics are summarized by the term ‘personality’”.

From the above definitions we can say that personality is a very diverse and complex psychological concept. It is concerned with external appearance and behaviour, self, measurable traits, and situational interactions. The words of **Clyde Kleeckholm and H.A. Murray** can be used to sum up the meaning of this complex term personality, when they said, “to some extent, a person’s personality is like all other people’s, like some other people’s, like no other people’s.”

4.7 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

What determines personality? Of all the complexities and unanswered questions in the study of human behaviour, this question may be the most difficult. People are enormously complex; their abilities and interests and attitudes are diverse. An early argument in personality research was whether an individual’s personality was the result of heredity or environment. Was the personality predetermined at birth, or was it the result of the individual’s interaction with his or her environment? Personality appears to be a result of both influences. Additionally, today we recognize another factor – the situation. The problem lies in the fact that cognitive and psychological processes, plus many other variables, all contribute to personality. The problem lies in the fact that the cognitive and psychological processes, plus many other variables, all contribute to personality. The determinants of personality can perhaps best be grouped in five broad categories: biological, cultural, family, social and situational.

1. **Biological Factors:** The study of the biological contributions to personality may be studied under three heads:
 - (a) **Heredity:** Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception. Physical stature, facial attractiveness, sex, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy level, and biological rhythms are characteristics that are considered to be inherent from one’s parents. The heredity approach argues that the ultimate explanation of an individual’s personality is the molecular structure of the genes, located in the chromosomes. Research on animals has showed that both physical and psychological characteristics can be transmitted through heredity. But

research on human beings is inadequate to support this viewpoint. However, psychologists and geneticists have accepted the fact that heredity plays an important role in one's personality.

- (b) **Brain:** The second biological approach is to concentrate on the role that the brain plays in personality. Though researchers have made some promising inroads, psychologists are unable to prove empirically the contribution of the human brain in influencing personality. The most recent and exciting possibilities come from the work done with electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) and split-brain psychology. Preliminary results from the electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) research indicate that a better understanding of human personality and behaviour might come from a closer study of the brain. Work with ESB on human subjects is just beginning. There seem to be definite areas in the human brain that are associated with pain and pleasure. This being true, it may be possible physically to manipulate personality through ESB.
- (c) **Biofeedback:** Until recently, physiologists and psychologists felt that certain biological functions such as brainwave patterns, gastric and hormonal secretions, and fluctuations in blood pressure and skin temperature were beyond conscious control. Now some scientists believe that these involuntary functions can be consciously controlled through biofeedback techniques. In BFT, the individual learns the internal rhythms of a particular body process through electronic signals that are feedback from equipment that is wired to the body. From this biofeedback, the person can learn to control the body process in question. More research is needed on biofeedback before any definitive conclusions can be drawn, but its potential impact could be extremely interesting for the future.
- (d) **Physical features:** A vital ingredient of the personality, an individual's external appearance, is biologically determined. The fact that a person is tall or short, fat or skinny, black or white will influence the person's effect

on others and this in turn, will affect the self-concept. Practically all would agree that physical characteristics have at least some influence on the personality. According to **Paul H Mussen**, “a child’s physical characteristics may be related to his approach to the social environment, to the expectancies of others, and to their reactions to him. These, in turn, may have impacts on personality development.” If personality characteristics were completely dictated by heredity, they would be fixed at birth and no amount of experience could alter them. But personality characteristics are not completely dictated by heredity. There are other factors also which influence personality.

2. **Cultural Factors:** Among the factors that influence personality formation is the culture in which we are raised, early conditioning, norms prevailing within the family, friends and social groups and other miscellaneous experiences that impact us. Traditionally, cultural factors are usually considered to make a more significant contribution to personality than biological factors. The culture largely determines attitudes towards independence, aggression, competition, cooperation and a host of other human responses. According to **Paul H Mussen**, “each culture expects, and trains, its members to behave in ways that are acceptable to the group. To a marked degree, the child’s cultural group defines the range of experiences and situations he is likely to encounter and the values and personality characteristics that will be reinforced and hence learned.” Culture requires both conformity and acceptance from its members. There are several ways of ensuring that members comply with the dictates of the culture. The personality of an individual to a marked extent is determined by the culture in which he or she is brought up. It follows that a person reared in a western culture has a different personality from a person reared in our Indian culture.
3. **Family Factors:** Whereas the culture generally prescribes and limits what a person can be taught, it is the family, and later the social group, which selects, interprets and dispenses the culture. Thus, the family probably has the most significant impact on early personality development. A substantial amount of empirical evidence

indicates that the overall home environment created by the parents, in addition to their direct influence, is critical to personality development. For example, children reared in a cold, unstimulating home are much more likely to be socially and emotionally maladjusted than children raised by parents in a warm, loving and stimulating environment. The parents play an especially important part in the identification process, which is important to the person's early development. According to **Mischel**, the process can be examined from three different perspectives.

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

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

4. **Social Factors:** There is increasing recognition given to the role of other relevant persons, groups and especially organisations, which greatly influence an individual's personality. This is commonly called the socialization process. Socialization involves the process by which a person acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioural potentialities that are open to him or her, those that are ultimately synthesized and absorbed. Socialization starts with the initial contact between a mother and her new infant. After infancy, other members of the immediate family – father, brothers, sisters and close relatives or friends, then the social group: peers, school friends and members of the work group – play influential roles. Socialization process is especially relevant to organisational behaviour because

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

5. **Situational Factors:** Human personality is also influenced by situational factors. The effect of environment is quite strong. Knowledge, skill and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behaviour. An individual's personality, while generally stable and consistent, does change in different situations. The varying demands of different situations call forth different aspects of one's personality. According to Milgram, "Situation exerts an important press on the individual. It exercises constraints and may provide 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". We should, therefore, not look at personality patterns in isolation.

4.8 THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

Over time, researchers have developed a number of personality theories and no theory is complete in itself. The theories can be conveniently grouped under four heads:

- a. Intrapsychic Theory
- b. Type Theories
- c. Trait Theories, and
- d. Self-Theory

a. Intrapsychic Theory

Based on the work of Sigmund Freud, Intrapsychic theory emphasizes the unconscious determinants of behaviour. Freud saw personality as the interaction between three elements of personality: the id, ego, and superego. The id is the most primitive element, a primordial source of drives and impulses that operates in an uncensored manner. The superego, similar to

what we know as conscience, contains values and the “shoulds and should nots” of the personality. There is an ongoing conflict between the id and the superego. The ego serves to manage the conflict between the id and the superego. In this, role, the ego compromises, and the result is the individual’s use of defence mechanisms such as denial of reality.

Components of Personality

Freud proposed a new conception of the personality, one that contains three systems – the id, the ego, and the superego. These systems do not exist physically; they are only concepts, or ways of looking at personality.

1. **Id:** The id is the only part of the personality that is present at birth. It is inherited, primitive, inaccessible and completely unconscious. The id contains:
 - (a) The life instincts, which are sexual instincts and the biological urges such as hunger and thirst, and
 - (b) The death instinct, which accounts for our aggressive and destructive impulses. The id operates according to the pleasure principle, that is, to seek pleasure, avoid pain and gain immediate gratification of its wishes. The id is the source of the libido, the psychic energy that fuels the entire personality. Yet the id cannot act on its own; it can only wish, image, fantasize, and demand.
2. **Ego:** The ego is the logical, rational, realistic part of the personality. The ego evolves from the id and draws its energy from the id. One of the functions of the ego is to satisfy the id’s urges. But the ego, which is mostly conscious, acts according to the reality principle. It must consider the constraints of the real world in determining appropriate times, places, and object for gratification of the id’s wishes.
3. **Superego:** When the child is age 5 or 6 the superego – the moral component of the personality – is formed. The superego has two parts :
 - (a) The “conscience”, consisting of all the behaviours for which we have been punished and about which we feel guilty;

- (b) The “ego ideal”, containing the behaviours for which we have been praised and rewarded and about which we feel pride and satisfaction.

In its quest for moral perfection, the superego, a moral guide, sets up signposts that define and limit the flexibility of ego.

Defence Mechanisms

A defence mechanism is a technique used to defend against anxiety and to maintain self-esteem, but it involves self-deception and the distortion of reality. We use defence mechanisms to protect ourselves from failure and from guilt arousing desires or actions. All of us use defence mechanisms to some degree; it is only their overuse that is considered abnormal.

1. **Repression:** According to Freud, repression is the most important and frequently used defence mechanism. Repression operates in two ways:
 - (a) It can remove painful or threatening memories, thoughts, ideas or perceptions from consciousness and keep them in the unconscious.
 - (b) It can prevent unconscious but disturbing sexual and aggressive impulses from breaking into consciousness.
2. **Projection:** We use projection when we attribute our own undesirable impulses, thoughts, personality traits or behaviour to others, or when we minimize the undesirable in ourselves and exaggerate it in others. Projection allows us to avoid acknowledging our unacceptable traits and thereby to maintain our self-esteem, but it seriously distorts our perception of the external world. For example, (1) A sexually promiscuous wife may accuse her husband of being unfaithful. (2) A dishonest man may think everyone is out to cheat him.
3. **Denial:** It is a refusal to acknowledge consciously or to believe that a danger or a threatening condition exists. For example, (1) Smokers use denial when they refuse to admit that cigarettes are a danger to their health. (2) Many people who abuse alcohol and drugs deny that they have a problem. Yet denial is sometimes useful as a temporary means of getting through a crisis until a more permanent

adjustment can be made, such as when people initially deny the existence of a terminal illness.

4. **Rationalization:** It Occurs when we unconsciously supply a logical, rational, or socially or personally acceptable reason rather than accept the real reason for an action or event. Rationalization can be used to justify past, present, or future behaviours or to soften the disappointment connected with not attaining a desired goal. When we rationalize, we make excuses for – or justify – our failures and mistakes.
5. **Regression:** Sometimes, when frustrated or anxious, we may use regression and revert to behaviour that might have reduced anxiety at an earlier stage of development. For example, an adult may have a temper tantrum, rant and rave or throw things.
6. **Reaction Formation:** It is at work when people express exaggerated ideas and emotions that are the opposite of their disturbing, unconscious impulses and desires. In reaction formation, the conscious thought or feeling masks the unconscious one. For example, a former chain smoker becomes irate and complains loudly at the faintest whiff of cigarette smoke.
7. **Displacement:** Occurs when we substitute a less threatening object or person for the original object of a sexual or aggressive impulse. For example, if your boss makes you angry, you may take out your hostility on your wife.
8. **Sublimation:** With sublimation, we re-channel sexual or aggressive energy into pursuits or accomplishments that society considers acceptable or even praiseworthy. For example, an aggressive person may re-channel the aggression and become a football player. A boxer with a ‘bad guy’ image, like ‘Iron’ Mike Tyson, might talk of becoming an evangelist.

Freud viewed sublimation as the only completely healthy ego defence mechanism.

4.9 TYPE THEORIES

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

1. **Sheldon's Physiognomy Theory:** William Sheldon has presented a unique body-type temperamental model that represents a link between certain anatomical features and psychological traits with distinguishing characteristics of an individual and his behaviour. The physique or body-type theories have concentrated on determining a relationship between features of the face or body, and personality. Sheldon identifies three body types:
 - (a) **Endomorph:** He is bulky and beloved. Sheldon's endomorph to be rather fat, thick in proportion to his height. His personality temperament is viscerotonic (the person seeks comfort, loves fine food, eats too much, is jovial, affectionate and liked by all).
 - (b) **Mesomorph:** He is basically strong, athletic and tough. All appreciate his physique. In fact, it is this personality all other "morphs" wish for. According to Sheldon, he will tend to be somatotonic (he is fond of muscular activity; he tends to be highly aggressive, and self-assertive).
 - (c) **Ectomorph:** These people are thin, long and poorly developed physically. Though physically weak, he leads the league in the intelligent department. His temperament is cerebrotonic (excessive inhibition, restraint, and avoidance of social contact). He is labelled as absent-minded, shy, but brilliant university professor stereotype.
2. **Carl Jung's Extrovert-introvert Theory:** The way to type personality is in terms of behaviour or psychological factors. Jung's introvert and extrovert types are an example. However, as Jung himself pointed out, the introvert-extrovert typology turns out to be more in the nature of a continuum than discrete, separate

types. Carl Jung proposed his own two-part theory of personality. These two types are:

- (a) **Extrovert:** They are optimistic, outgoing, gregarious and sociable. Extroverts are basically objective, reality-oriented individuals who are more doers than thinkers.
- (b) **Introverts:** By contrast, introverts are more inward-directed people. They are less sociable, withdrawn and absorbed in inner life. They tend to be guided by their own ideas and philosophy.

Few people are complete introverts or extroverts, but the mixture of these two ingredients determines the kind of overall personality of an individual. At the base of Jung's theory, lies the explanation that the personality has four dimensions:

- (a) **Thinking:** It includes logical reasoning (rational, analytic)
- (b) **Feeling:** It refers to the interpretation of a thing or event on a subjective scale (emotional, effect)
- (c) **Sensation:** It deals with perception of things in a general sense (factual and concrete)
- (d) **Intuition:** It is based on unconscious inner perception of the potentialities of events or things (associative or gestalt)

Type I: Person is a sensation – thinking individual, is basically analytic, oriented toward the present. He/she is primarily interested in facts, and extremely practical in outlook and approach.

Type II: Persons are intuition – thinking. He/she is rational, analytic, takes a broad view, and is sociable.

Type III: Person is sensation – feeling. He/she is factual, wishes to grasp tangible things, but is emotional and

Type IV: Persons are intuition – feeling. He/she is emotional, sociable, takes a broad view, and is more prone than others to hypothesizing.

4.10 TRAIT THEORIES

Some early personality researchers believed that to understand individuals, we must break down behaviour patterns into a series of observable traits. According to trait theory, combining these traits into a group forms an individual's personality. A personality trait can be defined as an "enduring attribute of a person that appears consistently in a variety of situations". In combination, such traits distinguish one personality from another. A trait is a personal characteristic that is used to describe and explain personality. It is a list of relatively stable and consistent personal characteristics. Trait theories are attempts to explain personality and differences between people in terms of their personal characteristics.

1. ***Gordon Allport's Personality Traits:*** Claims that personality traits are real entities, physically located somewhere in the brain. We each inherit our own unique set of raw material for given traits, which are then shaped by our experiences. Traits describe the particular way we respond to the environment and the consistency of that response. If we are shy, we respond to strangers differently than if we are friendly; if we are self-confident, we approach tasks differently than if we feel inferior. Recent research in behavioural genetics supports the notion that the genes influence certain personality characteristics. Allport identified two main categories of traits:
 - (a) **Common Traits:** Common traits are those we share or hold in common with most others in our own culture.
 - (b) **Individual Traits:** According to Allport, there are three individual traits: cardinal, central and secondary traits.
 - (i) **Cardinal Traits:** A cardinal trait is "so pervasive and outstanding in a life that almost every act seems traceable to its influence". It is so strong a part of a person's personality that he may become identified with or known for that trait.

- (ii) **Central Traits:** According to Allport, are those that we would “mention in writing a careful letter of recommendation”.
- (iii) **Secondary Traits:** The secondary traits are less obvious, less consistent and not as critical in defining our personality as the cardinal and central traits. We have many more secondary traits than cardinal or central traits. Examples of secondary traits are food and music preferences.

2. **Raymond Cattell’s 16 Personality Factors:** Raymond Cattell considered personality to be a pattern of traits providing the key to understanding and predicting a person’s behaviour.

Cattell identified two types:

- (a) **Surface Traits:** Observable qualities of a person like honest, helpful, kind, generous etc., Cattell called these “surface traits”.
- (b) **Source Traits:** Make up the most basic personality structure and, according to Cattell, actually cause behaviour. Even though we all possess the same source traits, we do not all possess them in the same degree. Intelligence is a source trait, and every person has a certain amount of it but, obviously not exactly the same amount or the same kind.

Cattell found 23 source traits in normal individuals, 16 of which he studied in great detail. Cattell’s sixteen-personality factors questionnaire, commonly called the “16 P.F Test”, yields a personality profile. The Cattell personality profile can be used to provide a better understanding of a single individual or to compare an individual’s personality profile with that of others.

The trait approach has been the subject of considerable criticism. Some theorists argue that simply identifying traits is not enough; instead, personality is dynamic and not completely static. Further, trait theorists tended to ignore the influence of situations.

Self-theory

The psychoanalytic, type and trait theories represent the more traditional approach to explaining the complex human personality. Of the many other theories, the two that have received the most recent emphasis and that are probably most relevant to the study of organisational behaviour are the self and social theories of personality. Self-theory rejects both psychoanalytic and behaviouristic conceptions of human nature as too mechanistic, portraying people as creatures helplessly buffeted about by internal instincts or external stimuli. Carl Rogers is most closely associated with his approach of self-theory. Rogers and his associates have developed this personality theory that places emphasis on the individual as an initiating, creating, influential determinant of behaviour within the environmental framework.

Carl Rogers developed his theory of personality through insights gained from his patients in therapy sessions. Rogers viewed human nature as basically good. If left to develop naturally, he thought, people would be happy and psychologically healthy. According to Rogers, we each live in our own subjective reality, which he called the phenomenological field. It is in this personal, subjective field that we act and think and feel. In other words, the way we see is the way it is – for us. Gradually, a part of the phenomenological field becomes differentiated as the self. The self-concept emerges as a result of repeated experiences involving such terms as “I”, “me” and “myself”. With the emerging self comes the need for positive regard. We need such things as warmth, love, acceptance, sympathy and respect from the people who are significant in our lives. But there are usually strings attached to positive regard from others.

Conditions of Worth: Our parents do not view us positively regardless of our behaviour. They set up conditions of worth – conditions on which their positive regard hinges. Conditions of worth force us to live and act according to someone else’s values rather than our own. In our effort to gain positive regard, we deny our true self by inhibiting some of our behaviour, denying, distorting some of our perceptions and closing ourselves to parts of our experience. In doing so, we experience stress and anxiety and our whole self-structure may be threatened.

Unconditional Positive Regard: According to Rogers, a major goal of psychotherapy is to enable people to open themselves up to experiences and begin to live according to their own values rather than the values of others in order to gain positive regard. He calls his therapy “personcentred therapy”. Rogers believes that the therapist must give the client unconditional positive regard, that is, positive regard no matter what the client says, does, has done, or is thinking of doing. Unconditional positive regard is designed to reduce threat, eliminate conditions of worth, and bring the person back in tune with his true self.

4.11 PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS IN ORGANISATIONS

Managers should learn as much as possible about personality in order to understand their employees. Hundreds of personality characteristics have been identified. We have selected eight characteristics because of their particular influences on individual behaviour in organisations. They are:

1. **Locus of Control:** Some people believe they are masters of their own fate. Other people see themselves as pawns of fate, believing that what happens to them in their lives is due to luck or chance. An individual’s generalized belief about internal (self) versus external (situation or others) control is called locus of control.
 - (a) **Internals:** Those who believe they control their destinies have been labelled internals. Internals (those with an internal locus of control) have been found to have higher job satisfaction, to be more likely to assume managerial positions, and to prefer participative management styles. In addition, internals have been shown to display higher work motivation, hold stronger beliefs that effort leads to performance, receive higher salaries and display less anxiety than externals (those with an external locus of control).
 - (b) **Externals:** Externals are those individuals who believe that what happens to them is controlled by outside forces such as luck or chance. Externals prefer a more structured work setting and they may be more reluctant to

participate in decision-making. They are more compliant and willing to follow directions. Research on locus of control has strong implications for organisations. A large amount of research comparing internals with externals has consistently shown that individuals who rate high in externality are less satisfied with their jobs, have higher absenteeism rates, are more alienated from the work setting, and are less involved on their jobs than internals. Why are externals more dissatisfied? The answer is probably because they perceive themselves as having little control over those organisational outcomes that are important to them. Knowing about locus of control can prove valuable insights to managers. Because internals believe that they control what happens to them, they will want to exercise control in their work environment. Allowing internals considerable voice in how work is performed is important. Internals will not react well to being closely supervised. Externals, in contrast, may prefer a more structured work setting, and they may be more reluctant to participate in decision-making.

Therefore, internals do well on sophisticated tasks – which includes most managerial and professional jobs – that require complex information processing and learning. Additionally, internals are more suited to jobs that require initiative and independence of action. In contrast, externals should do well on jobs that are well structured and routine and where success depends heavily on complying with the directions of others.

2. **Machiavellianism:** Niccolo Machiavelli was a sixteenth century Italian statesman. He wrote “The Prince”, a guide for acquiring and using power. The primary method for achieving power that he suggested was manipulation of others. Machiavellianism then is a personality characteristic indicating one’s willingness to do whatever it takes to get one’s way. An individual high in Machiavellianism is pragmatic, maintains emotional distance and believes that ends can justify means. “If it works, use it”, is consistent with a high-Mach perspective. High-Machs believe that any means justify the desired ends. They believe that manipulations of others are fine if it helps achieve a goal. Thus, high-Machs are likely to justify their manipulative

behaviour as ethical. They are emotionally detached from other people and are oriented towards objective aspects of situations.

R. Christie and F.L. Geis, have found that high-Machs flourish (a) When they interact fact-to-face with others rather than indirectly. (b) When the situation has a minimum number of rules and regulations, thus allowing latitude for improvisation, and (c) When emotional involvement with details irrelevant to winning distracts low- Machs. A high-Mach individual behaves in accordance with Machiavelli's ideas, which include the notion that it is better to be feared than loved. High-Machs tend to use deceit in relationships, have a cynical view of human nature and have little concern for conventional notions of right and wrong. They are skilled manipulators of other people, relying on their persuasive abilities. High-Machs are suitable in jobs that require bargaining skills or where there are substantial rewards for winning (example: commissioned sales).

3. **Self-esteem:** Self-esteem is an individual's general feeling of self-worth. Individuals with high self-esteem have positive feelings about themselves, perceive themselves to have strength as well as weaknesses, and believe their strengths are more important than their weaknesses. Individuals with low self-esteem view themselves negatively. They are more strongly affected by what other people think of them, and they compliment individuals who give them positive feedback while cutting down people who give them negative feedback.

Research on self-esteem (SE) offers some interesting insights into organisational behaviour.

- (a) High-SEs: People with High SEs
 - (i) Believe they possess more of the ability they need in order to succeed at work.
 - (ii) Individuals with high SE will take more risks in job selection and are more likely to choose unconventional jobs.
 - (iii) They are more satisfied with their jobs.

- (b) Low-SEs: People with low SEs
 - (i) Are more susceptible to external influence.
 - (ii) They depend on the receipt of positive evaluations from others.
 - (iii) They tend to be concerned with pleasing others and therefore, are less likely to take unpopular stands.
 - (iv) They are less satisfied with their jobs.

Self-esteem may be strongly affected by situations. Success tends to raise self-esteem, whereas failure tends to lower it. Given that high self-esteem is generally a positive characteristic, managers should encourage employees to raise their self-esteem by giving them appropriate challenges and opportunities for success.

- 4. **Self-efficacy:** Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task. The higher your self-efficacy, the more confidence you have in your ability to succeed in a task. So, in difficult situations, we find that people with low self-efficacy are more likely to slacken their effort or give up altogether, whereas those with high self-efficacy will try harder to master the challenge. In addition, individuals high in self-efficacy seem to respond to negative feedback with increased effort and motivation; those low in self-efficacy are likely to reduce their effort when given negative feedback. Individuals with high self-efficacy believe that they have the ability to get things done, that they are capable of putting forth the effort to accomplish the task, and that they can overcome any obstacles to their success. There are four sources of self-efficacy:

- (a) Prior experiences
- (b) Behaviour models – witnessing the success of others
- (c) Persuasion from other people and
- (d) Assessment of current physical and emotional capabilities.

Believing in one's own capability to get something done is an important facilitator of success. There is strong evidence that self-efficacy leads to high performance on a wide variety of physical and mental tasks. Managers can help employees develop their self-efficacy. This can be done by providing avenues for showing performance, and rewarding an employee's achievements.

5. **Self-monitoring:** A characteristic with great potential for affecting behaviour in organisations is self-monitoring. Self-monitoring refers to an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external situational factors. High self-monitors pay attention to what is appropriate in particular situations and to the behaviour of other people, and they behave accordingly. Low self-monitors, in contrast, are not as vigilant to situational cues, and act from internal states rather than paying attention to the situation. As a result, the behaviour of low self-monitors is consistent across situations. High self-monitors, because their behaviour varies with the situation, appears to be more unpredictable and less consistent. High self-monitors are capable of presenting striking contradictions between their public persona and their private self. Low self-monitors can't disguise themselves this way.
6. **Positive/Negative Affect:** Individuals who focus on the positive aspects of themselves, other people, and the world in general are said to have positive affect. In contrast, those who accentuate the negative in themselves, others, and the world are said to possess negative affect. Employees with positive affect are absent from work less often. Individuals with negative affect report more work stress. Negative individual affect produces negative group affect and this leads to less cooperative behaviour in the work group. Managers can do several things to promote positive affect, including allowing participative decision making and providing pleasant working conditions.
7. **Risk-taking:** People differ in their willingness to take chances. This propensity to assume or avoid risk has been shown to have an impact on how long it takes managers to make a decision and how much information they require before making their choice. High-risk taking managers make more rapid decisions and use less

information in making their choices than low-risk-taking managers. While, it is generally correct to conclude that managers in organisations are risk averse, there are still individual differences on this dimension. As a result, it makes sense to recognize these differences and even to consider aligning risk-taking propensity with specific job demands. For example, a high-risk-taking propensity may lead to more effective performance for a stockbroker but these personality characteristics might prove a major obstacle for an auditor.

8. **Type A Personality:** Type A behaviour pattern is a complex of personality and behavioural characteristics, including competitiveness, time urgency, social status, insecurity, aggression, hostility and a quest for achievements. Type A personality individual is “aggressively involved in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons”.

Type A Personalities

- (a) Are always moving, walking, and eating rapidly;
- (b) Feel impatient with the rate at which most events take place;
- (c) Strive to think or do two or more things simultaneously;
- (d) Cannot cope with leisure time; and
- (e) Are obsessed with numbers, measuring their success in terms of how much of everything they acquire.

The alternative to the Type A behaviour pattern is the Type B behaviour pattern. People with Type B personalities are relatively free of the Type A behaviours and characteristics. Type B personalities are “rarely harried by the desire to obtain a wildly increasing number of things or participate in an endless growing series of events in an ever decreasing amount of time”.

Type B Personality

- (a) Never suffer from a sense of time urgency with its accompanying impatience;
- (b) Feel no need to display or discuss either their achievements or accomplishments unless such exposure is demanded by the situation;
- (c) Play for fun and relaxation, rather than to exhibit their superiority at any cost; and (d) Can relax without guilt.

Organisations can also be characterized as Type A or Type B organisations. Type A individuals in Type B organisations and Type B individuals in Type A organisations experience stress related to a misfit between their personality type and the predominant type of the organisation.

4.12 SUMMARY

Organisational behaviour is the study and application of knowledge about how people, individuals, and groups act in organisations. It does this by taking a system approach, i.e., it interprets people-organisation relationships in terms of the whole person, whole group, whole organisation, and whole social system. Its purpose is to build better relationships by achieving human objectives, organisational objectives, and social objectives. Organisational behaviour encompasses a wide range of topics, such as human behaviour, change, leadership, teams, etc. There are many theories and models to determine and modify organisational behaviour. Personality plays the most important role in determining the level of individual effectiveness. Various determinants and theories have proven that the individual personality can be developed in order to develop one's effectiveness. The personality not only develops but also changes according to various situations.

4.13 KEYWORDS

- **Competencies:** Through learning and experience, each person has acquired a unique set of skills for dealing with various situations.
- **Conscience:** The behaviours for which we have been punished and about which we feel guilty.

- ***Ectomorph:*** According to Sheldon's Physiognomy Theory, he has thin, long and poorly developed body.
- ***Ego:*** The ego is the logical, rational, realistic part of the personality. The ego evolves from the id and draws its energy from the id.
- ***Encoding:*** Each person has a unique way of perceiving and categorizing experience. One person may see a situation as threatening while another sees it as challenging, and the way it is encoded determines the response.
- ***Endomorph:*** According to Sheldon's Physiognomy Theory, endomorph is bulky and beloved type of person.
- ***Expectancies:*** Through learning, each person has acquired different expectations of being rewarded or punished for various kinds of behaviour.

4.14 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Personality is a pattern of stable states and characteristics of a person that influences his or her behaviour toward goal achievement." Comment.

2. Illustrate through examples how is human personality influenced by situational factors ?

3. A woman who has been angry at her boss at the workplace comes back home and yells at her baby and husband. What is the reason behind it? Discuss technically.

4.15 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Ego is concerned with
 - (a) consequences (b) rewards (c) punishments (d) all of these
2. Which of the following is not a part of reinforcement process?
 - (a) Vicarious (b) Vivacious (c) Direct (d) Self administered
3. Carl Rogers developed his theory of personality through insights gained from his patients in therapy sessions.
 - (a) Counseling (b) therapy (c) moral (d) interrogative
4. How many traits did Cattell find in normal individuals?
 - (a) 21 (b) 22 (c) 23 (d) 24

4.16 BOOKS RECOMMENDED

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BA MANAGEMENT SEMESTER-II

Course Code : BM-201

Lesson No. 5

Semester - II

Unit-II

Perception, Perceptual Process and Factors Affecting Perception

Structure :

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Objectives
- 5.3 Perception
- 5.4 Perception and its application in organisations
- 5.5 Perceptual sets and perceptual worlds
- 5.6 Perceptual Process
- 5.7 Halo effect and stereotyping
- 5.8 Factors affecting perception
- 5.9 Interpersonal perception
- 5.10 Attribution theory of perception
- 5.11 Perception and individual decision making
- 5.12 Barriers to Perception

5.13 Remedies to overcome perceptual Errors

5.14 Summary

5.15 Keywords

5.16 Self assessment questions

5.17 Lesson end exercise

5.18 Books recommended

5.1 INTRODUCTION

We humans seem to attach meanings, interpretations, values and aims to our actions. What we do in the world depends on how we understand our place in it, depends on how we perceive ourselves and our social and physical environment, depends on how we perceive our circumstances. We explain behaviour with terms like ‘reason’, ‘motive’, ‘intention’, ‘purpose’, ‘desire’ and so on.

Therefore, the issue is - each one of us perceive the world around us in different ways. It is our personal perception of that reality which shapes and directs our behaviour, and some ‘objective’ understanding of external reality. For example, if one person on a hillside perceives that it is cold, he will reach for his sweater. On the other hand, if the person standing next to him perceives that it is warm, he will remove his sweater. These contrasting behaviours can be witnessed happening at the same time, regardless of the actual ambient temperature as measured by a thermometer. Another example would be the universal assumption made by managers that subordinates always want promotion when, in-fact, many subordinates really psychologically forced to accept a promotion. Managers seldom attempt to find out and sometimes subordinates themselves do not know, whether promotion should be offered. In other words, the perceptual world of the manager is quite different from the perceptual world of the subordinates and both may be different from reality. Thus, it is clear that human behaviour is a function of the way in which we perceive the world around us, and how we perceive other people and events in that world.

We often find ourselves unable to understand other people's behaviour. To understand each other's behaviour, we need to be able to understand each other's perceptions. First of all, we need to be able to understand why we perceive things differently.

5.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the main features of the process of perception
- distinguish between the bottom-up processing of sensory information and the top-down interpretation of that information
- understand the nature and implications of selective attention (perceptual selectivity) and perceptual organisation
- understand how behaviour is influenced by our perceptions
- explain and illustrate the main processes and problems in person perception including false attributions, halo effects and stereotyping.

5.3 PERCEPTION

Perception is like beauty that lies in the eyes of beholder. Individual differs in the way he sees, interprets and understands a particular event. A manager may perceive nonattendance of duty by the subordinate in a different way. Individuals may also differ in their opinion though the event or situation may be the same. For example, in an organization where lunch is served in a subsidised manner may be interpreted by the employees in a different way. An employee may perceive it as "right" to get a subsidized lunch, the other may feel that it is being given out of surplus of profits achieved by the organization while the third individual may state that it is mandatory for the management to provide lunch free of cost and that the management is not doing any favour to them by providing the lunch.

Definition

Perception is defined as “a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment” - S.P. Robbins

- (a) What one perceives may be different from objective reality. A person coming late on duty may be perceived as casual and tardy while there may be social problems faced by him.
- (b) There is often disagreement among the individuals in the organization in relation to pay and allowances, administrative back up, policies and procedures and the place of work itself. An individual who displays a positive attitude may perceive above factors as good and conducive to work environment while the others may consider them inadequate. Employees also compare themselves on job assignment. If a job is assigned to one individual who may consider the assignment in excess to his job entitlement on the contrary if he is not given the job, he may consider it as neglecting him in allocation of responsibilities.
- (c) It would often be observed that the manager is rated differently by his subordinates because of the different perception of the individual about the manager. The study of perception is very important in the organization because it is necessary for the manager to perceive individuals correctly irrespective of their status and perceive each of the situation as close to the real fact or as it exists by interpreting the sensory reflects in correct way. Sensation and perception are complex phenomenon. Perception is outcome of sensation and is much broader in its nature. Perception involves observing data, selecting, and organizing the data based on sensory reflects and interpreting the same as per personality attributes of the perceiver. That is why no two individuals can perceive an employee in the same manner, for one he may be efficient while for the other he may be perceived as useless.

5.4 PERCEPTION AND ITS APPLICATION IN ORGANISATIONS

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

- a. **Employment Interview:** Interviewers make perceptual judgments that are often inaccurate. Different interviewers see different things in the same candidate and arrive at different conclusions about the applicant. Employment interview is an important input into the hiring decision, and perceptual factors influence who is hired and vis-à-vis the Quality of an organisation's labour force.
- b. **Performance Appraisals:** An employee's performance appraisal is very much dependent on the perceptual process. An employee's future is closely tied to his or her appraisal - promotions, increments and continuation of employment are among the common outcomes. The performance appraisal represents an assessment of an employee's work. While this may be objective most jobs are evaluated in subjective terms. Subjective measures are judgmental. The evaluator forms a general impression of an employee's work, to the degree that managers use subjective measures in appraising employee's the evaluator perceives to be 'good or bad' employee characteristics/behaviours will significantly influence the appraisal outcome.
- c. **Assessing Level of Effort:** In many organisations, the level of an employee's effort is given high importance. Assessment of an individual's effort is a subjective judgment susceptible to perceptual distortions and bias.
- d. **Assessing Loyalty:** Another important judgment that managers decide about employees is whether they are loyal to the organisation.
- e. **Productivity:** What individuals perceive from their work situation will influence their productivity. More than the situation itself than whether a job is actually interesting or challenging is not relevant. How a manager successfully plans and

organises the work of his subordinates and actually helps them in structuring their work is far less important than how his subordinates perceive his efforts. Therefore, to be able to influence productivity, it is necessary to assess how workers perceive their jobs.

- f. **Absenteeism and Turnover:** Absence and Turnover are some of the reactions to the individuals perception. Managers must understand how each individual interprets his job and where there is a significant difference between what is seen and what exists and try to eliminate the distortions. Failure to deal with the differences when individuals perceive the job in negative terms will result in increased absenteeism and turnover.
- g. **Job Satisfaction:** Job satisfaction is a highly subjective, and feeling of the benefits that derive from the job. Clearly his variable is critically linked to perception. If job satisfaction is to be improved, the worker's perception of the job characteristics, supervision and the organisation as a whole must be positive.

5.5 PERCEPTUAL SETS AND PERCEPTUAL WORLDS

In this lesson, you have seen how the perceptual process selects incoming stimuli and organises them into meaningful patterns. It has also been shown that this processing is influenced by learning, motivation and personality -factors which give rise to expectations. These expectations, in turn, make us more ready to respond to certain stimuli in certain ways and less ready to respond to others. This readiness to respond is called the individual's **perceptual set**.

A perceptual set is an individual's predisposition to respond to events in a particular manner. A perceptual set is also known as a **mental set**. As we tend to perceive what we expect to perceive, this can also be called our perceptual expectations. We must accept the fact that two people can observe the 'same' thing but perceive it in quite different ways. Many organisational problems, and particularly communication problems are created by failure to appreciate this feature of the perceptual process. For example, top management of an organisation may perceive that junior employees are overreacting to trivial issues and

may dismiss their complaints lightly. On the other hand, the junior employees may perceive that their grievances are genuine and that the top management are simply not taking them seriously. In a situation like this, it makes little sense to ask whose perceptions are correct. The starting point for resolving issues such as this must lie with the recognition that different people hold different, but equally legitimate, views of the same set of circumstances.

Another common example is the differences in perception that occur between the union and management. Some researchers believe that perceptual differences are a major explanation for industrial disputes. The same “facts” in a dispute are perceived quite differently by union members and by management. For example, union members may perceive that they are underpaid whereas management perceives that they are overpaid for the amount of work they do. In reality, pay may have nothing to do with the ensuing dispute, It might be due to the workers not having control over their own jobs and getting any recognition and they are reacting by perceiving that they are underpaid.

We each have a **perceptual world** that is selective and partial which concentrates on features of particular interest and importance to us. The individual’s perceptual world is their personal internal image, map or picture of their social, physical and organisational environment. Through the processes of learning, motivation and personality development, we each have different expectations and different degrees of readiness to respond to objects, people and events in different ways.

It may be noted here that our perceptions, that is the meanings that we attach to the information available to us, shape our actions. Behaviour in an organisation context can usually be understood once we understand the way in which the individual perceives that context. Figure 2 illustrates the links between available information based on observation and experience, the perception based on that information and outcomes in terms of decisions with respect to actions.

Cultural factors also play a significant role in determining how we interpret available information and experience. Perceptual learning and development take place in the context of socio-cultural environment. It therefore, expected that the socio-cultural background of

the individual will influence his/her perceptions. Accordingly, the nature of perceptual organisations will vary.

For example, one well-known piece of research compared the pace of life in six countries (Britain, Italy, Indonesia, Japan, Taiwan and the United States) by measuring :

- the accuracy of clocks in city bank branches,
- the speed at which city pedestrians walked, and
- the length of time it took to buy a postage stamp.

The research revealed that Japanese cities had the most accurate clocks, the fastest pedestrians and the most efficient post office clerks. Indonesian cities, in contrast, had the least accurate clocks and the slowest pedestrians. Italy had the slowest post office clerks.

Therefore, it is clear that to understand an individual's behaviour, we need to know something of the elements in their perceptual world and the pattern of information and other cultural influences that have shaped that world. To change an individual's behaviour, therefore, we first have to consider changing their perceptions through the information and experiences available to them.

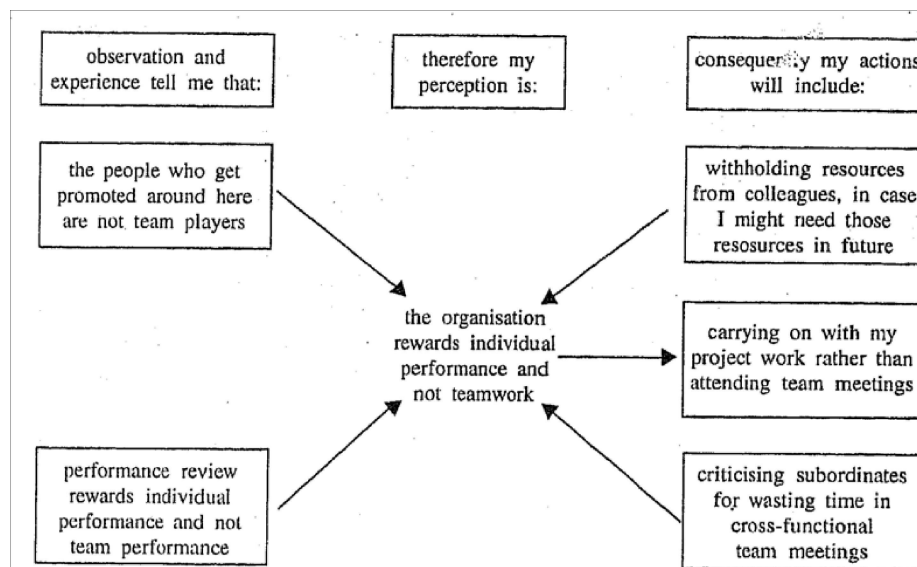


Figure 2: The information-perception-action link

5.6 PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

We process and interpret the incoming raw data in the light of our experiences, in terms of our current needs and interests, in terms of our knowledge, expectations, beliefs and motives. **Perception** may be defined as the dynamic psychological process responsible for attending to, organising and interpreting sensory data. The main elements in the perceptual process are illustrated in Figure 1.

From a psychological point of view, the process of sensation, on the one hand, and perception, on the other, work together through what are termed respectively '**bottom-up**' and '**top-down**' processing.

The bottom-up phase concerns the way in which we process the raw data received by our sensory apparatus. One of the key characteristics of bottom-up processing concerns the need for selectivity. We are simply not able to process all of the sensory information available to us at any given time. Bottom-up processing screens or filters out redundant and less relevant information so that we can focus on what is important.

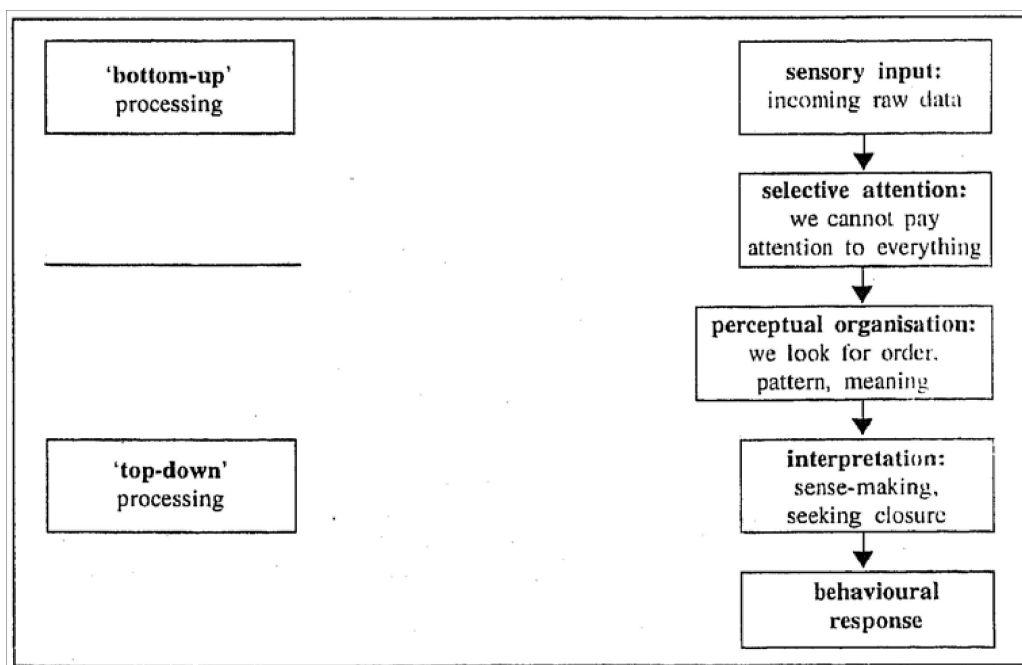


Figure 1: The Process of Perception

On the other hand, ‘top-down’ phase concerns the mental processing that allows us to order, interpret and make sense of the world around us. One of the key characteristics of top-down processing concerns our need to make sense of our environment and our search for meaning.

This distinction between sensation (bottom-up) and perception (top-down) can be illustrated in our ability to make sense of incomplete or even incorrect sensory information. For example, the missing letter or comma, or the incorrectly spelled term, does not normally interfere with the comprehension of the human reader:

This sentence us incorrect, bit yoo wull stell bi abl to understand it

In the above example, our top-down conceptual processing ability means that we are able to fill in the gaps and correct the mistakes and thus make sense of ‘imperfect’ incoming raw data.

All of us have a similar nervous system and share more or less common sensory equipment. However, we have different social and physical backgrounds which give us different values, interests and expectations and therefore different perceptions. We do not behave in, and in response to, the world ‘as it really is’. This idea of the ‘real world’ is somewhat arbitrary. In fact, we have, and in response to, the world as we perceive it. We each live in our own perceptual world.

Perception is a dynamic process because it involves ordering and attaching meaning to raw sensory data. Our sensory apparatus is bombarded with vast amounts of information. We are not ‘passive recorders’ of this sensory data. We are constantly shifting and sorting this stream of information, making sense of it and interpreting it. Therefore, it can be said that perception is an information-processing activity. This information processing concerns the phenomena of selective attention (perceptual selectivity) and perceptual organisation.

Selective attention is the ability, often exercised unconsciously, to choose from the stream of sensory data to concentrate on particular elements and to ignore others.

Our attention is also influenced by context Factors. For example, the naval commander on the ship’s bridge and the cook in the kitchen may both have occasion to

shout “fire”, but these identical utterances will mean quite different things to those within earshot and will lead to radically different forms of behaviour (involving the taking and the saving of lives respectively). Thus, it is clear that knowledge of the context also affect our attention.

The internal factors affecting perception are:

- **Learning:** Our past experience leads to the development of perceptual expectations or perceptual sets which give us predispositions to perceive and to pay attention to some stimuli and to ignore other information.
- **Personality:** Our personality traits also predispose us to perceive the world in particular ways, to pay attention to some issues and events and human characteristics and not others.
- **Motivation:** We are more likely to perceive as important, and thus to respond to, stimuli that find motivating.

Much of perception can be described as classification or categorisation. We categorise people as male or female, lazy or energetic, extrovert or shy. We classify objects as cars, buildings, furniture, crockery and so on and we refine our classification schemes further under these headings. It may be noted here that these categories are learned. They are social constructs. What we learn is often culture-bound or culture-specific. For example, the British revulsion at the thought of eating dog (classified as pet), the Hindu revulsion at the thought of eating beef (classified as sacred) and the Islamic aversion to alcohol (classified as proscribed by the Koran) are all culturally transmitted emotions based on learned values.

However, different people within the same culture have different experiences and develop different expectations. The internal factors - our past experience and what we have learned, our personalities, our motivations - contribute to the development of our expectations of the world around us, what we want from it, what will happen in it and what should happen. We tend to select information that fits our expectations and pay less attention to information that does not.

Our categorisation process and the search for meaning and pattern are key characteristics of perception. This perceptual work is captured by the concept of perceptual organisation. Perceptual organisation is the process through which incoming stimuli are organised or patterned in systematic and meaningful ways.

Max Wertheimer first identified the principles by which the process of perceptual organisation operates. The ‘proximity principle’ states that we tend to group together or to classify stimuli that are physically close to each other and which thus appear to ‘belong’ together. For example, note how you ‘see’ three pairs rather than six blobs here:



The ‘similarity principle’ states that we classify or group together stimuli that resemble each other in appearance in some respect. For example, note how you ‘see’ four pairs here, not eight objects:



The fact that we are able to make use of incomplete and ambiguous information by ‘filling in the gaps’ from our own knowledge and past experience is known as the ‘principle of closure’.

5.7 HALO EFFECT AND STEREOTYPING

The concept of perceptual set or perceptual expectation applies to the ways in which we see other people, events and objects. To understand the nature of perception is to understand, at least in part, the sources and nature of many organisational problems. There are two related and prominent features of the process of people perception: the **halo effect and stereotyping**.

The term ‘halo effect’ was first used by the psychologist Edward Thorndike in 1920. A halo effect is a judgement based on a single striking characteristic such as an

aspect of dress, speech, posture or nationality. Haloes can be positive or negative. This phenomenon applies to our perception of people. For example, it is a natural human response on meeting a stranger, to make judgements about the kind of person they are and whether we will like them or not. We do this to others on a first encounter, they do this to us.

It may be noted here that the halo effect is an error at the selective attention stage (see figure 1). Since we cannot pay attention to so much new information about someone, we are forced to be selective with respect to the available information. The halo effect can work in both directions. For example, if our judgement about someone based on a single striking characteristic is favourable, we give the other person a positive halo. If our judgement, on the other hand, is not favourable, we give the other person a negative halo.

A recent comprehensive review of the performance appraisal literature found that the halo effect was the dependent variable in over a one third of the studies and was found to be a major problem affecting appraisal accuracy. Examples of the halo effect are the extremely attractive woman secretary who is perceived by her male boss as being an intelligent, good performer when, in fact, she is a poor typist and quite dense and the good typist who is also very bright but who is perceived by her male boss as a “secretary”, not as a potential manager with the ability to cope with important responsibilities.

One classic research study noted three conditions under which the halo effect is most marked:

- when the traits to be perceived are unclear in behavioural expressions
- when the traits are not frequently encountered by the perceiver, and
- when the traits have moral implications.

Thus, the halo effect can act as an early screen that filters out later information which is not consistent with our earlier judgement. We also tend to give more favourable judgements to people who have characteristics in common with us. It may be mentioned here that the halo effect can apply to things as well as to people.

The concept of perceptual organisation also applies to person perception. The term '**stereotyping**' was first used by typographers to make blocks of type and was first used to describe bias in person perception by Walter Lip Mann in 1922. The concept refers simply to the way in which we group together people who seem to us to share similar characteristics. Lip Mann saw stereotypes as 'pictures in the head', as simple, mental images of groups and their behaviour. So, when we meet an accountant, a nurse, a lecturer, an engineer, a poet or an actor, we attribute certain personality traits to them because they are accountants, or engineers or whatever. There is a consensus about the traits possessed by the members of these categories. Yet in reality, there is often a discrepancy between the agreed-upon traits of each category and the actual traits of the members. In other words, not all engineers carry calculators and are coldly rational, nor are all personnel managers do gooders who are trying to keep workers happy. On the contrary, there are individual differences and a great deal of variability among members of these groups. In spite of this, other organisation members commonly make blanket perceptions and behave accordingly. In terms of the model of the perceptual process in figure 1, stereotyping is an error at the perceptual organisation stage.

Thus, it is clear that stereotypes are overgeneralisations and are bound to be radically inaccurate on occasion. However, they can be convenient. We may be able to shortcut our evaluation process and make quicker and more reliable predictions of behaviour by adopting a stereotyped perspective. But, we can have problems with those who fall into more than one category with conflicting stereotypes. For example, an engineer who writes poetry.

5.8 FACTORS AFFECTING PERCEPTION

a. Perceptual learning:

Based on past experiences or any special training that we get, every one of us learns to emphasise some sensory inputs and to ignore others. For example, a person who has got training in some occupation like artistry or other skilled jobs can perform better than other untrained people. Experience is the best teacher for

such perceptual skills. For example, blind people identify the people by their voice or by sounds of their footsteps.

b. Mental set:

Set refers to preparedness or readiness to receive some sensory input. Such expectancy keeps the individual prepared with good attention and concentration. For example, when we are expecting the arrival of a train, we listen to its horn or sound even if there is a lot of noise disturbance.

c. Motives and needs:

Our motives and needs will definitely influence our perception. For example, a hungry person is motivated to recognise only the food items among other articles. His attention cannot be directed towards other things until his motive is satisfied.

d. Cognitive styles:

People are said to differ in the ways they characteristically process the information. Every individual will have his or her own way of understanding the situation. It is said that the people who are flexible will have good attention and they are less affected by interfering influences and to be less dominated by internal needs and motives than or people at the constricted end.

e. Extrasensory Perception (ESP):

There are some instances reported by people that they have experienced some perceptions without the aid of their sense organs. Psychologists have named the perception that occurs without sensory stimulation as 'Extrasensory perception' (ESP). This is otherwise known as sixth sense in common man's view. Some of the common phenomena in ESP are clairvoyance, telepathy, meeting the souls, precognition, psycho-kinesis, reincarnation, etc. Though research is going on, the researchers are unable to confirm them, because these experiences are not repeatable for verification. In many instances they remain as coincidences.

f. Errors in Perception:

As seen above perception is process of analysing and understanding a stimulus as it is. But it may not be always possible to perceive the stimuli as they are. Knowingly or unknowingly, we mistake the stimulus and perceive it wrongly. It may be due to defect in our sense organs or defective functioning of the brain. Many times the prejudices in the individual, time of perception, unfavourable background, lack of clarity of stimulus, confusion, conflict in mind and such other factors are responsible for errors in perception. There are two kinds of errors:

a. Illusion:

Illusion is a false perception. Here the person will mistake a stimulus and perceive it wrongly. For example, in the dark, a rope is mistaken as a snake or vice versa. The voice of an unknown person is mistaken as a friend's voice. A person standing at a distance who is not known may be perceived as a known person.

b. Hallucination:

Sometimes we come across instances where the individual perceives some stimulus, even when it is not present. This phenomenon is known as hallucination. The person may see an object, person, etc. or he may listen to some voice though there are no objects and sounds in reality. Hallucinations pertain to all the sensations appear in people, but visual and auditory hallucinations are more common. Usually persons with unsound mind, emotionally disturbed, alcoholics and those who are in confused states may experience hallucinations. However, among abnormal people and intoxicated persons hallucinations are very common.

In addition to these errors, there are some abnormalities in our sense perceptions called anaesthesia (no sensation), hyperesthesia (excessive sensitivity) and paraesthesia (distorted or wrongly localised sensation). In these cases the tactile (skin) sensation is wrongly perceived.

Observation and Nurse:

Good and keen observational ability is an essential characteristic of a nurse. The most important activities of a nurse include observation of changes in pulse, respiration, heart beat and blood pressure because they indicate general condition of a patient. The condition of the postoperative case, the emergency cases also require accurate observation. Observation involves attention and perception. The nurse should always concentrate her attention on duties. Distraction of attention may lead to serious consequences like death of a patient. Attention helps to understand the problems of patient. At the same time, accurate perception helps the nurse to have a clear picture of the condition of the patient. While attending the emergency cases, during operations and other serious conditions accurate perception of the situations help the nurse to deal with the situation in an effective manner.

g. Characteristics of the Perceiver

When an individual looks at the object and attempts to interpret the same, what he or she sees it is largely influenced by the personal characteristics. Perception is a matter of attitude that can be positive or negative. Some workers would feel and perceive that the prevailing working conditions in the organizations are congenial for work and it contributes positively while for others, it would be inadequate and demand improvement. This is indicative of positive and negative attitude patterns. Motive is another factor that plays an important role in perception. Motive is nothing but unsatisfied needs. This exerts considerable influence on perception. Boss who is insecure perceives subordinate who does well as threat to his position. Personal insecurity is a threat to personal survival in a job especially if one is frequently transferred. Interest is persons liking for a particular thing in an individual. May be some people get attracted to eyes of a girl because he has interest in the eyes while other person may be interested in hair style, therefore different person (perceiver) will perceive a girl based on perceivers' interest. It has also been observed in the work places that workers would display interest as per their

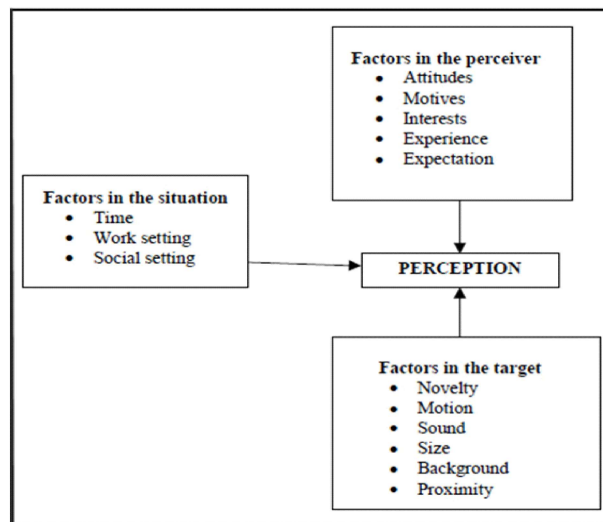
liking. Students in the class when preoccupied are not attentive in the class. Past experience also plays an important role in perception. Just as interest narrows down one's perception so does past experience. In contrast past experience nullifies an object interest. For example second or subsequent visit to a historic place. Object or events that have not been experienced before are more noticeable and creates an interest. For example a female manager. Expectations can distort one's perception in what one sees and what one expects to see. For example, power hungry police officer to be strict regardless of his actual traits. Several characteristics of a perceiver define one's perception of another person. Familiarity with the person being perceived leads the perceiver to believe that he or she understands the intentions of the individual. Attitudes and moods also affect one's impressions of others. The perceiver's self-concept leads to a more negative or positive view of the attributes of others. Finally, a person's cognitive structure, or pattern of thinking, affects his or her perception of others.

h. Characteristics of the Target

Objects, events that are similar to each other tend to group together and have a tendency of perceiving them as common group for example. Blacks, Whites or Indians etc irrespective of their different characteristics. Physical and time proximity also leads us to perceiving a situation in a different form than actual reality. Increase in the sales volume may be attributed to newly posted sales manager. In actuality the increase in sales may have been the outcome of hard work done in the past by sales representatives and public contact. Soldiers in identical uniform and their uprightness is perceived as being strict, ruthless and tough, on the contrary they are sober, soft and very delicate at heart. It is therefore important to analyse the event, situation, or an object in its correct perspective and be led by similarity, physical and time proximity. The person being perceived influences the social perception process through a combination of physical appearance, verbal and nonverbal communication, and apparent intention.

i. Characteristics of the Situation

The social context in which you meet an individual has a great deal to do with perceiving the individual positively or negatively. The strength of the situational cues also affects person perception. Strong situational cues lead to the assumption that the situation prompts a person's behaviour rather than his/her own personality. Change in situation leads to incorrect perception about a person. Time is one factor, which influences the perception. Time is related to work setting and social setting. A person decked up for party may not be noticeable but the same dress in office would be noticed distinctly, though the person has not changed. You would have very frequently heard people say that their manager is different during working hours and 1800 opposite while in social setting. Infact, person is the same but the perceiver perceives the manager as per business like setup while on work, while the person is observed on a private or a personal platform when meeting him in the club or at home. What is important to remember is the perception should be done in a correct manner not to be led due to work setting or social setting and that the situation is not allowed to perceive wrongly. An object can be identified by its size, shade, shape, sound it makes and background. It can be distinguished based on its movement. In darkness it may be identified by its silhouette, for example caravan moving on skyline at the dawn.



5.9 INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTION

Interpersonal perception begins with the perception of another person, an awareness and appraisal of his attitudes, attributes, intentions and their likely reactions to one's actions. Research was conducted by Zalking and Costello for better understanding of interpersonal perception. The specific characteristics of the perceiver, according to them are:

Knowing oneself makes it easier to see other accurately.

One's own characteristics affect the characteristics he is likely to see in others.

The person who accepts himself is more likely to be able to see favourable aspects of other people.

Accuracy in perceiving others is not a single skill.

Similarly the characteristics of the person who is being perceived are:

- 1) The status of the person perceived will greatly influence other's perception of him.
- 2) The person being perceived is usually placed into categories to simplify the viewer's perceptual activities. Two common categories are status and role.
- 3) The visible traits of the person will greatly influence the perception of him.

In order to develop perceptual skills one has to avoid perceptual distortion, make accurate self-perception, put oneself in another person's place and create good impression about oneself.

5.10 ATTRIBUTION THEORY OF PERCEPTION

Attribution is the process by which we make sense of our environment through our perceptions of causality. An attribution, therefore, is a belief about the cause or causes of an event or an action. Fritz Heider and Harold Kelley developed attribution theory during the 1950s and 1960s. They stated that our understanding of our social world is based on our continual attempts at causal analysis based on how we interpret our experience.

Why is that person so successful? Why did that project fail? If we understand the causes of success, failure and conflict, we may be able to adjust our behaviour and other factors accordingly. Attribution is simply the process of attaching or attributing causes or reasons to the actions and events we see. Causality is usually described in terms of internal causality and external causality. For example, we may explain a particular individual's success or promotion with reference to his/her superior skills and knowledge (internal causality) or with reference to luck, 'friends in high places' and coincidence (external causality).

In recent years, attribution theories have been playing an increasingly important role in work motivation, performance appraisal and leadership but are also recognised to influence perceptions. Attributions have been found to strongly affect evaluations of Intra Personal Processes others' performance, to determine the manner in which supervisors behave towards subordinates and to influence personal satisfaction with one's work. For example, what the manager perceives as the cause of a subordinate's behaviour will affect the manager's perception of and resulting behaviour toward the subordinate.

Research has revealed patterns in our attributions. For instance, when we are explaining our personal achievements, we point to our capabilities. But, when we are explaining our lack of success, we blame our circumstances. On the other hand, when speaking about others, we tend to attribute success and failure to personality features. In psychology, this tendency to exaggerate the influence of personality when explaining the behaviour of others and to overlook the effect of contextual factors is known as the fundamental attribution error.

In day-to-day life, we come across people with whom we interact. Motives, intentions, belief and attitude of people have an impact as to how they behave. It has been seen that our perception about the people is greatly influenced by the assumption we make about a person and not by reality. There are two factors, which has an impact on human behaviour. First is internally caused behaviour – refers to internal factors on which individual has a full control, secondly the externally caused behaviour refers to the behaviour which has been caused due to external factors and that the individual has no control over

it. Attribution theory suggest that when we evaluate human behaviour, it is either internally caused or it is caused due to external factors as explained above. The determination however depends on the following three factors.

- (a) **Distinctiveness:** Let us for evaluation purposes take an example of X worker coming late for duty. When we carry out interpretation there are two factors, one whether arriving late is usual or unusual behaviour. If it is usual, it is attributed to internal factor on which X has full control. When the behaviour is unusual then it can be attributed to external factors. In the former situation individual could be counselled appropriately in the later situation, the external factors cannot be corrected. If the external factors are high, then late coming should not be attributed to the individual behaviour.
- (b) **Consensus:** This factor refers to group behaviour. If the entire group taking the same route came late on duty, the causation is attributed to external factors. But by some chance if X only was late then the causation would be internal.
- (c) **Consistency:** If the behaviour of Mr. X is consistence, that is if he is consistently coming late then attribution should be to internal factors. In such cases there is a high internal causation. If X came late once in a while the causation would be low and attributed to external factors. More consistence the behaviour, the more the observer is inclined to attribute it to internal causes. It has been seen that we have the tendency to under estimate the influence of external factors and over estimate the influence of internal factors or personal factors while carrying out perception.

This phenomenon is called the **fundamental attribution error**. Fall in sales of a commodity is generally attributed to inefficiency of sales force rather than market trend, recession or innovative product launched by the competitor. There is also a **self-serving bias** error caused by the individuals who tend to attribute their own success to internal causation like ability, hard work and self-worth and the failure, to external factors like Luck. This phenomenon is called a self-serving bias displayed by the individuals. There are bias, which distorts attribution universally across culture. During World War II it was considered by Allies that Japanese are invincible, but the attribution proved to be false at

later date when tide took the turn and Japanese had to suffer total annihilation. Self-serving bias does not apply to all organizations, where cultural identity has been established like Defence Services of India. Where the leader takes the responsibility for the failure of group task and attribute success to collective efforts. This is the main reason that soldiers have great faith in their leader and his ability and that is how the soldiers are led in war and they follow the leader blindly because they have a correct perception of their leader.

Aspect of personality that influence perceptions: Costello, Zalkind (1962) and Hamacheck (1971) indicate the following relationship between personality factors and perception

- (a) Secure person perceives others as warm individuals.
- (b) Thoughtful individuals do not perceive situation in terms of Black and White but understand that there can be different shades of gray. Hence they do not make judgments based on single piece of evidence.
- (c) Self-accepting people perceive others liking and accepting them. Those who are not self-accepting tend to distrust others.
- (d) Self-accepting person also accepts others easily which is not true of those who are not self-accepting.
- (e) People tend to perceive others more accurately when they are more like the ones they perceive than if they are different from those who are being perceived.

5.11 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. Non-managerial employees decide how much effort to put forth at work and whether to comply with a boss's request. Organizations have begun empowering their non-managerial employees with decision-making authority historically

reserved for 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 labeled "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 distortions often surface that can bias analysis and conclusions

5.12 BARRIERS TO PERCEPTION

The following are the barriers to perception:

- a. **Selective Perception:** We receive a vast amount of information. Therefore, it is impossible for us to assimilate everything we see - on eye certain stimuli can be taken. That is why their boss may reprimand some employees for doing something that when done by another employee goes unnoticed. Since, we can't observe everything going on about us, we engage in selective perception. Selective perception is also out tendency to choose information that supports our view points; Individuals often ignore information that makes them feel uncomfortable or

threatens their view points. Selective perception allows us to “speed-read” others, but not without the risk of drawing an inaccurate picture. Because we see what we want to see, we can draw unwarranted conclusions from an ambiguous, perception tends to be influenced more by an individual’s attitudes, interests, and background than by the stimulus itself.

- b. **Stereotype:** A stereotype is a generalization about a group of people. When we judge someone on the basis of our perception of the group to which he or she belongs, we are using the shortcut called stereo typing. Stereo types reduce information about other people to a workable level, and they are efficient for compiling and using information. It is a means of simplifying a complex world and it permits us to maintain consistency. It is less difficult to deal with an unmanageable number of stimuli if we use stereo types. Stereo types can be accurate, and when they are accurate, they can be useful perceptual guidelines. However, most of the times stereotypes are inaccurate.

Attractiveness is a powerful stereo type. We assume that attractive individuals are also warm, kind, sensitive, poised, sociable, outgoing, independent, and strong. Are attractive people sociable, outgoing, independent, and strong? Are attractive people really like this? Certainly all of them are not. In organizations, we frequently hear comments that represent stereo types based on gender, age, nationality etc. From a perceptual stand point, if people expect to see this stereo type, that is what they will perceive, whether it’s accurate or not.

- c. **Halo Effect:** The halo error in perception is very similar to stereo typing. Where as in stereo typing the person is perceived according to a single category, under the halo effect the person is perceived on the basis of one trait. When we draw a general impression about an individual based on a single characteristic, such as intelligence, sociability or appearance, a halo effect is operating. The propensity for the halo effect to operate is not random. Research suggests it is likely to be most extreme when the traits to be perceived are ambiguous in behavioural terms, when the traits have moral over tones, and when the perceiver

is judging traits with which he or she has limited experience. Example of halo effect is the extremely attractive women secretary who is perceived by her male boss as being an intelligent, good performer, when, in fact, she is a poor typist.

- d. **First-impression error:** Individuals place a good deal of importance on first impressions. First impressions are lasting impressions. We tend to remember what we perceive first about a person, and sometimes we are quite reluctant to change our initial impressions. First - impression error means the tendency to form lasting opinions about an individual based on initial perceptions. Primacy effects can be particularly dangerous in interviews, given that we form first impressions quickly and that these impressions may be the basis for long-term employment relationships.
- e. **Contrast Effect:** Stimuli that contrast with the surrounding environment are more likely to be selected for attention than the stimuli that blends in. A contrasting effect can be caused by colour, size or any other factor that is unusual (any factor that distinguishes one stimulus from others at present). For example, a man walking down the street with a pair of crutches is more attention getting than a common man. A contrast effect is the evaluation of a person's characteristics that are affected by comparisons with other people recently encountered that rank higher or lower on the same characteristics. The "contrast" principle essentially states that external stimuli that stands out against the background or which are not what are expecting well receive their attention. The contrast effect also explains why a male students tands out in a crowd of female students. There is nothing unusual about the male students but, when surrounded by females, he stands out.

An illustration of how contrast effects operate in an interview situation in which one sees a pool of job applicants. Distortions in any given candidate's evaluation can occur as a result of his or her place in the interview schedule. The candidate is likely to receive a more favourable evaluation if preceded by mediocre applicants, and a less favourable evaluation if preceded by strong applicants.

- f. **Projection:** It is easy to judge others if we assume they are similar to us. This tendency to attribute one's own characteristics to other people is called projection.

Projection can distort perceptions made about others. People who engage in projection tend to perceive others. According to what they they are like rather than according to what the person being observed is really like. When managers engage in projection, they compromise their ability to respond to individual differences. They tend to see people as more homogeneous than they really are.

- g. Implicit Personality Theories:** We tend to have our own mini-theories about how people look and behave. These theories help us organize our perceptions and take shortcuts instead of integrating new information all the time. Implicit-personality theory is opinions formed about other people that are based on our own mini theories about how people behave. For example we believe that girls dressed in fashionable clothes will like modern music and girls dressed in traditional dress like saree will like Indian classical music. These implicit personality theories are barriers because they limit out ability to take in new information when it is available.
- h. Self-Fulfilling Prophecies:** Self-fulfilling prophecies are the situation in which our expectations about people affect our interaction with them in such a way that our expectations are fulfilled. Self -fulfilling prophecy is also known as the **Pygmalion effect**, named after a sculptor in Greek mythology who carved a statue of a girl that came to life when he prayed for this wish and it was granted. The Pygmalion effect has been observed in work organizations as well. A manager's expectations of an individual affect both the manager's behaviour toward the individual and the individual's response. For example, suppose a manager has an initial impression of an employee as having the potential to move up within the organization. Chances are that the manager will spend a great deal of time coaching and counselling the employee, providing challenging assignments and grooming the individual for success.

5.13 REMEDIES TO OVERCOME PERCEPTUAL ERRORS

As discussed earlier, the main sources of errors in perception include the following:

- Not collecting enough information about other people.
- Basing our judgements on information that is irrelevant or insignificant.
- Seeing what we expect to see and what we want to see and not investigating further.
- Allowing early information about someone to affect our judgement despite later and contradictory information.
- Accepting stereotypes uncritically.
- Allowing our own characteristics to affect what we see in others and how we judge them.
- Attempting to decode non-verbal behaviour outside the context in which it appears.
- Basing attributions on flimsy and potentially irrelevant evidence.

Thus, it is clear that errors in perception can be overcome by:

- Taking more time and avoiding instant or 'snap' judgements about others.
- Collecting and consciously using more information about other people.
- Developing self-awareness and an understanding of how our personal biases and preferences affect our perceptions and judgements of other people.
- Checking our attributions - particularly the links we make between aspects of personality and appearance on the one hand and behaviour on the other.

Therefore, it can be said that if we are to improve our understanding of others, we must first have a well-developed knowledge of ourselves - our strengths, our preferences,

our weaknesses and our biases. The development of self-knowledge can be an uncomfortable process. In organisational settings, we are often constrained in the expression of our feelings (positive and negative) about other people due to social or cultural norms and to the communication barriers erected by status and power differentials. This may in part explain the enduring emphasis in recent years on training courses in social and interpersonal skills, self-awareness and personal growth.

5.14 SUMMARY

Perception depends on the attitude of the individual. Individuals differ in the way they see a particular event or observe an object or a situation. Perception is a processes of interpretation of sensory impressions of the environment. What one perceives may be different from the objective reality. There are three factors that affect the perception of the individual. These are, 1. The perceiver. Perception differs from individual to individual based on attitude, motives, interests, experience and the expectations. 2. The object. Individual has a tendency to group together the items, situations, and people to physical and time proximity. This leads to perceiving the situation in a different form. Objects can be perceived differently based on shape, size, shade, sound, movement and its background. 3. The situation. Individual behaves differently in different situations. Therefore he should be perceived in the correct fashion. Work setting and social setting play decisive role in perception. Human behaviour is caused due to internal or external factors. These factors are related to distinctiveness, consensus and consistency. It has been observed that we have a tendency to under estimate the influence of external factors and over estimate the influence of internal factors. This is said to be a fundamental attribution error. Costello, Zalkind and Hamchek have indicated very close relationship between personality and perception. Common errors while judging others are selective perception, halo effect, projection, contrast effect, and stereotyping. Individual decision making relates to 'identification of problems, what does it involve to solve the problem and how far one can plan now.' Decision must be taken in time and implemented. Studies have been conducted by Taylor et al to see if there is co-relation between certain characteristics of a decision maker such as age, level of intelligence, experience, aptitude for creativity and level of

motivation and such variables as decision accuracy, confidence in the decisions and time spent in studying the problem and reaching the decision. There are various factors that affect decision making. These are availability of information of correct type, personal bias, habits, time available and risk taking ability of a decision maker. Understanding the process of perception is important because (1) It is unlikely that any person's definition of reality will be identical to an objective assessment of reality. (2) It is unlikely that two different person's definition of reality will be exactly the same. (3) Individual perceptions directly influences the behaviour exhibited in a given situation. The important fact is that people who work together often see things differently, and this difference can create problems in their ability to work together effectively.

In order to decrease the errors involved in perception, one has to keep in mind the way the perceptual process works. By understanding the process one can do a better job at minimizing their negative effect. Secondly, one can compare one's perception with other people, if they are representing different backgrounds, cultures or training. This may lead to agreements or otherwise, communications can help to sort out the differences. Thirdly, one should understand other person's point of view, it may help to know when one is wrong. The point is that one should listen and understand the other person rather than try to convince him or her that one is right. Fourthly, one should be willing to change, when one comes across new information. Finally, one should view the world in dynamic terms, because one's behaviour can alter the phenomenon that is the basis for one's perceptions, so, one must notice the impact of one's own behaviour.

In short, it can be said that perceptual skills can be enhanced by knowing and perceiving oneself accurately, being emphatic i.e. to see a situation as it is experienced by others, having positive attitudes, which helps in reduction of perceptual distortions, enhancing one's self-concept, which helps in perceiving more accurately, making a conscious effort to avoid the possible common biases in perception, communicating with employees to erase incorrect perceptions, avoiding attributions etc.

5.15 KEYWORDS

- **Central tendency:** Appraising everyone at the middle of the rating scale.
- **Contrast error:** Basing an appraisal on comparison with other employees rather than on established performance criteria.
- **Different from me:** Giving a poor appraisal because the person has qualities or characteristics not possessed by the appraiser.
- **Halo effect:** Appraising an employee undeservedly on one quality (performance, for example) because s/he is perceived highly by the appraiser on another quality (attractiveness).
- **Horn effect:** The opposite of the halo effect. Giving someone a poor appraisal on one quality (attractiveness) influences poor rating on other qualities. (performance).
- **Initial impression:** Basing an appraisal on first impressions rather than on how the person has behaved throughout the period to which appraisal relates.
- **Latest behaviour:** Basing an appraisal on the person's recent behaviour.
- **Lenient or generous rating:** Perhaps the most common error, being consistently generous in appraisal mostly to avoid conflict.
- **Performance dimension error:** Giving someone a similar appraisal on two distinct but similar qualities, because they happen to follow each other on the appraisal form.
- **Same as me:** Giving a good appraisal because the person has qualities or characteristics possessed by the appraiser.
- **Spillover effect:** Basing this appraisal, good or bad, on the results of the previous appraisal rather than on how the person has behaved during the appraisal period.

- **Status effect:** Giving those in higher level positions consistently better appraisals than those in lower level jobs.
- **Strict rating:** Being consistently harsh in appraising performance.

5.16 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is perception? What are its main features?

2. How does an understanding of someone's perceptual world help us to understand their behaviour?

3. Explain and illustrate the main processes and problems in person perception including halo effects, stereotyping and false attributions.

4. What are the common errors in perception? How would you overcome these?

5.17 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Explain Attribution Theory of perception.

2. How does personality affect individual perception?

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3. What are various factors that affect perception?

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4. Explain fundamental attribution error with suitable example.

5.18 BOOKS RECOMMENDED

1. Furnham, A. (1997). The Psychology of Behaviour at Work. Sussex: Taylor & Francis.
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4. Robbins, S.P. (2001). Organisational Behaviour. Singapore: Pearson Education.
Zalkind, S.S. and Costello, T.W. (1962). Perception: Some Recent Research and Implications for Administration. Administrative Science Quarterly, 7,218-235.

BA MANAGEMENT SEMESTER-II

Course Code : BM-201

Lesson No. 6

Semester - II

Unit-II

**Learning-Types, Elements, Theories of Learning. Social Learning. Attitude -
Concept, Nature and Factors Affecting Attitude.**

Structure:

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Objectives
- 6.3 Concept of learning
- 6.4 Definitions of learning
- 6.5 Characteristics of learning
- 6.6 Learning process and its elements
- 6.7 Approaches to learning
- 6.8 Types of learning
- 6.9 Theories of learning
- 6.10 Laws of learning
- 6.11 Doctrines of learning
- 6.12 Social Learning

- 6.13 Benefits of social learning
 - 6.14 The Challenge of implementing social learning
 - 6.15 Concept and definitions of Attitude
 - 6.16 Nature and Characteristics
 - 6.17 Attitude Formation
 - 6.18 Factors affecting formation of Attitude
 - 6.19 Types of Attitude
 - 6.20 Theories of Attitude Formation
 - 6.21 Functions of Attitude
 - 6.22 Changes in Attitude
 - 6.23 Summary
 - 6.24 Keywords
 - 6.25 Self assessment questions
 - 6.26 Lesson end exercise
 - 6.27 Books recommended
-

6.1 INTRODUCTION

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 in organisations. There is little organisational behaviour that is not either directly or indirectly affected by learning. For example, a worker's skill, a manager's attitude, a supervisor's motivation and a secretary's mode of dress are all learned. Our ability to learn is also important to

organisations preoccupied with controlled performance. Employees have to know what they are to do, how they are to do it, how well they are expected to do it, and the consequences of achieving good or poor levels of performance. Thus, learning theories have influenced a range of organisational practices concerning the induction of new recruit, the design and delivery of job training, the design of payment systems, how supervisors evaluate and provide feedback on employee performance, the design of forms of learning organisation

Attitude is a psychological phenomenon. The evaluative statements made by individuals express the attitudes possessed by him. Attitudes relate to an individual's job, superiors, satisfaction, security, and the organisation to which he belongs. Attitudes are not in-born. They are learnt and developed by worldly interaction. Attitude structure is responsible for the development of attitudes. Attitudes are permanent impressions and are developed by repeated experiences. A single experience does not develop attitudes. Individuals develop an attitude by associating the information received from a stimulus with information in the brain. Consistency of information enables one to develop an attitude. Inconsistency leads to rejection of information, and no attitude is developed. Festinger has developed the cognitive dissonance theory to explain the formation of attitudes. According to this theory, individuals attempt to reduce dissonance, which leads to attitude development. The functional theory and social judgement theory have also been put forward to explain the formation of attitude. Attitude change is inevitable to any organisation. Employees possess certain attitudes, which may be congruent or incongruent with those of the organisation. Therefore, they should try to change their attitudes so that they are suited to the organisation. Although attitudes are learnt as permanent impressions, consistent efforts can change attitudes. Managers use a number of strategies to change attitudes.

6.2 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this lesson, you will be able to:

- understand the nature of learning process
- explain the characteristics of the behaviourist and cognitive approaches to learning

- differentiate between Pavlovian and Skinnerian conditioning
- To evaluate the characteristic features of attitudes
- To appraise the importance of employees' attitudes towards managers
- To appraise how attitudes are formed in organisations
- To understand various components of attitude formation
- To comprehend the role of cognitive dissonance in attitude formation
- To know the strategies adopted by managers in attitude formation
- To identify the motives of forming attitudes

6.3 CONCEPT OF LEARNING

Learning covers virtually all behaviours and is concerned with the acquisition of knowledge, attitudes and values, emotional responses (such as happiness and fear), and motor skills (such as operating a computer keyboard or riding a bicycle). We can learn incorrect facts or pick up bad habits in the same way that we learn correct facts and acquire good habits. It refers to a spectrum of changes that occur as a result of one's experience. Learning may be defined as "any relatively permanent change in behaviour or behavioural potential produced by experience". It may be noted here that some behavioural changes take place due to the use of drugs, alcohol, or fatigue. Such changes are temporary. They are not considered learning. Therefore, changes are due to practice and experience, and relatively permanent, alone are illustrative of learning. In the definition given above, it is clear that the process of learning has certain distinctive characteristics. These are: (i) (ii) (iii) First, learning always involves some kind of experience. These experiences may be derived from inside the body or they may be sensory, arising outside. The task of inferring whether or not learning has taken place may be an obvious one, but observable behaviour may not always reveal learning. It is important to distinguish between two types of learning. Procedural learning or 'knowing how', concerns your ability to carry out particular skilled actions such as riding a horse. Declarative learning or 'knowing that', concerns your store of factual knowledge such as an understanding of the history of our use of the horse.

Second, the behavioural changes that take place due to learning are relatively permanent. Behaviour can be changed temporarily by many other factors and in ways which we would not like to call learning. These other factors include growing up or maturation (in children), aging (in adults), drugs, alcohol and fatigue. For example, you must have noticed that whenever one takes a sedative or drug or alcohol, one's behaviour changes. Each one of these drugs affect physiological functions leading to certain changes in behaviour. Such changes are temporary in nature and disappear as the effect of drugs wears out. Third, learning cannot be observed directly. We can only observe a person's behaviour and draw the inference from it that learning has taken place. A distinction has to be made between learning and performance. Performance is evaluated by some quantitative and some qualitative measures of output. For example, the number of calls a sales representative makes to customers or the quality of a manager's chairing of a committee meeting. But, learning acts as a constraint on the outcome. Normally, we cannot perform any better than we have learned, though there are occasions when the right motivational disposition and a supportive environment helps to raise the level of performance. Researchers have found that increased Indian Environment: motivation may improve our performance up to a point but, beyond this, increased motivation may cause a lowering of the level of performance.

6.4 DEFINITIONS OF LEARNING

Learning is the basis of the human development process. It is a continuous process of changing oneself. Learning is a cognitive function of the human brain. Thus, learning is a psychological process of understanding, acquiring information, processing, storing and using the same in the future. It is a natural human activity commencing from the birth of an individual, which determines and influences behaviour. In the context of an organisation, learning involves acquisition of skills and manners, formulating attitudes etc., which will influence the work behaviour and performance of employees.

A permanent change in the behaviour of an individual is an indication of learning. Learning is defined in many ways. Some definitions of learning are presented below:

Learning can be defined as relatively permanent change in the behaviour that occurs as a result of experience or reinforced practice -**Fred Luthans**.

According to **Hillgard and Bower**, “Learning is the process by which an activity originates or is changed through reacting to an encountered situation, provided that the characteristics of the change activity cannot be explained on the basis of native response tendencies, maturation, or temporary states of the organism”.

Learning is “a process of acquiring the ability to respond adequately to a situation, which may or may not have been previously encountered, the favourable modification of response Tendencies consequent upon previous experience, particularly the building of a new series of complex and coordinated motor responses, the fixation of items in memory so that they can be recalled or organised: the process of acquiring insight into a situation.”

- **Howard C. Warren.**

According to **Seluffrnan and Kanuk**, “Learning is a process by which individuals acquire knowledge and experience which they apply to future related behaviour.”

Mitchell defines learning as “a change process of acquisition of new knowledge and skills repeat or practice which acts as a feedback to cause fairly permanent change in the behaviour of an individual.”

Another definition that deserves attention is that, “Learning is the process of having one’s behaviour modified, more or less permanently, by what he does and the consequences of his action, or by what he observes.” Steers and Porter.

6.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNING

Learning is a continuous process of change in the behaviour and personality of a person. An important variable that influences behaviour is learning. Learning is a general phenomenon Learning takes place from the moment a child is born. We learn to eat, learn to stand and walk and learn to respond. Learning occurs by observation and imitation and is a continuous, lifelong process. The environment also plays a significant role in individual learning. The degree of learning differs from person to person. Learning has specific managerial applications. The rate c: learning, learning aptitude, learning habits and learning curve of subordinates determine managerial strategies to be used to make subordinates committed to their jobs. For instance, reinforcement is

required for those subordinates who are very slow in learning and a manager should use redundancy in communicating with them. A subordinate with an aptitude for learning needs little direction and communication from the superior, and a manager can use a participative approach with these subordinates. Thus, a manager needs to understand the learning patterns of his subordinates to know their behaviour and shape his own behaviour suitable to them. However, individual learning alone does not contribute to the effective building of an organisation in the new millennium. Today, learning organisations have become a philosophy for companies. They encourage learning by everyone, irrespective of position and role in the organisation. Peter Senge, a pioneer in learning organisations, views it as a group of people who expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire. A number of reasons compelled organisations to convert to learning organisation. The notable ones are: thrust on quality, innovation, adapting to continuous change and emphasis on community development. Even at an individual level, people prefer to create learning organisations as they promote creativity, promote system thinking and enable them to accept changes with less resistance. Learning involves detection and correction of errors. By continuous learning, an organisation transforms into an adaptive, caring and innovative organisation. For this purpose, organisations should adopt a number of strategies such as the accidental strategy, subversive strategy and declared strategy. In this chapter we will learn more about learning and learning organisations.

- (1) Learning is a psychological process and a behavioural reaction.
- (2) It is the cognitive function of the human brain.
- (3) Learning involves a permanent change. Temporary change in the behaviour does not reflect learning.
- (4) Change in behaviour is brought about by the practice of experimentation and not by physical maturity alone.
- (5) Learning occurs through repetitions or reinforced practices or experience.
- (6) It involves responses from the outside environment.

- (7) Learning disappears with inadequate opportunities to display skills.
- (8) It is related to the future, based on past actions.

6.6 LEARNING PROCESS AND ITS ELEMENTS

Having understood the concept of learning we will now learn more about the learning process. It is not a one time activity, but occurs for as long as a person lives, albeit at different rates, with a change in behaviour. A stimulus that drives individual response is responsible for learning. Sometimes, learning is possible with a single observation, and need not follow the process. Although there are different views about the learning process, it can be described below:

Cues give direction to a drive to produce a response. If a response is reinforced, the experience is retained and behaviour is learnt, otherwise, it produces spontaneous recovery, which results in no learning. This leads to loss of memory called extinction. The result is that an individual seeks different cues. A retained learnt behaviour may produce new cues, which may lead to creativity. Elements of the learning process are explained below.

- a. **Cues:** A cue is an object or information, also called a stimulus that draws the attention of an individual. Sensory organs receive cues from the environment. Strong cues provide direction to human motives. Weak cues are ignored by the brain. Cues are of two types, generalized and discriminative. Generalization occurs when the same cue or stimulus is present but in a new way. The more cues are related to each other, the more they are likely to generalize the characteristics for retention. Discrimination is eliciting a positive response to a certain stimulus and ignoring the other stimuli, which are unimportant. In both cases, there is a possibility of driving human motivation.
- b. **Drives:** Drive is an action produced by a strong stimulus or cue. It is the basis for human motivation. Drives can be physiological or psychological. Physiological drives are related to the human body, and psychological

drives are related to the human brain. They are interdependent and both may respond to a given stimulus. However, the response may vary with the intensity of the cue.

- c. **Response:** Response is any action or reaction shown by an individual to stimuli. The response may be overt, that is physically observable or can be covert that is only an expression of behaviour.
- d. **Reinforcement:** Reinforcement is bringing strength of association between a cue and response. A single response is less likely to bring about a change in behaviour. Repetition of response is known as reinforcement. Individual learning occurs when the same response is observed for a similar cue. If the response is positive, there is a greater probability of learning, whereas if the response is negative, the probability for learning is less. This is because individuals like to avoid discomfort, which results from a negative response.
- e. **Retention:** Retention is storing of information in the brain. Behaviour is learnt in response to reinforced stimuli. A reinforced stimulus becomes stable and consistent over a period. The stability is known as retention. The more the strength of the response, the greater is the retention. Retained response directs future behaviour. Sometimes, it may lead to formation of cues because of the creativity of people.
- f. **Spontaneous recovery:** A non-reinforced response is known as spontaneous recovery. It is a -lime response. It does not lead to change in behaviour.
- g. **Extinction:** Extinction is loss of memory. If a response is not reinforced, individuals are likely to forget the response, which slowly disappears from the mind. Therefore, behaviour is extinguished under conditions of non-reinforcement. When behaviour is extinguished individual searches for new cues.

Therefore, managers reinforce stimuli to bring about change in behaviour.

6.7 APPROACHES TO LEARNING

This lesson explains two current and influential approaches to learning, based on behaviourist psychology and cognitive psychology. These theoretical perspectives are in many ways contradictory, but they can also be viewed as complementary. It may be mentioned here that these two perspectives have very different implications for organisation and management practice. The two approaches are based on the same empirical data, but their interpretations of these data are radically different. These approaches are as under:

Table 1: Behaviourist and Cognitives Perspectives on Learning : A Comparison

Behaviourist, stimulus-response	Cognitive, information processing
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• studies only observable behaviour• behaviour is determined by learned sequences of muscle movements• we learn habits• Problem solving occurs by trial and error dull, boring but amenable to research ?	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• also studies mental processes• behaviour is determined by memory, mental processes and expectations• we learn cognitive structures and alternative ways to achieve our goals• problem solving also involves insight and understanding rich, interesting but complex, vague and

- a. **The Behaviourist Approach to Learning:** The oldest theory of learning states that ideas that are experienced together tend to be associated with each other. Behaviourist psychologists now speak of the association between stimulus and response. Learning is a result of experience. We use knowledge of the results of past behaviour to change, modify and improve our behaviour in future. We cannot learn without appropriate feedback. Behaviourists and cognitive psychologists agree that experience affects behaviour but disagree over how this happens. Feedback may be either rewarding or punishing. Common sense suggests that if a

particular behaviour is rewarded, then it is more likely to be repeated. If it is punished or ignored, it is more likely to be avoided. This observation is encapsulated in the behaviourists' 'law of effect' which simply states that we learn to repeat behaviours that have favourable consequences and to avoid behaviours that lead to punishment or to other unfavourable or neutral consequences. The American psychologist John B. Watson introduced the term 'behaviourism' in 1913. Behaviourists argue that nothing of psychological importance happens between the stimulus and the response. On the other hand, cognitive theory argues that something of considerable psychological importance happens between stimulus and response. The development of associations between stimuli and responses happens in two different ways known as Pavlovian conditioning and Skinnerian conditioning. Pavlovian conditioning is also known as classical and as respondent conditioning. The concept and related conditioning techniques were developed by the Russian. Social Processes and Issues physiologist Ivan Petrovich Pavlov. Pavlov's work with dogs is well-known. Dog owners are still trained today in the use of classical conditioning methods. If you show meat to a dog, it will produce saliva. The meat is the stimulus, the saliva is the response. The meat is an unconditioned stimulus (US), because the dog salivates naturally. Similarly, the saliva is an unconditioned response (UR). Unconditioned responses are also called reflexes. Your pupils contract when light is shown into your eyes. Your lower leg jerks when you are struck just below the knee cap. These are typical human reflexes. Humans also salivate naturally-another unconditioned response-at the sight of and smell of food. 38 Suppose we now ring a bell when we show the meat to the dog. Do this often enough and the dog will associate the bell with the meat. Eventually the dog will start to salivate at the sound of the bell without food being present. The bell is a conditioned stimulus (CS) and the saliva is now a conditioned response (CR). The dog has now learned from that experience to salivate at the sound of a bell as well as the sight of food. All kinds of stimuli can be conditioned in this way.

This relationship of conditioned stimulus (CS), unconditioned stimulus (US), conditioned response (CR) and unconditioned response (UR) are shown below:

Relationship of Stages of Conditioning and Operations

<i>Stages of Conditioning</i>	<i>Operations</i>
Before	Sound of the bell – Alertness (No specific response)
During	Sound of the bell (CS) + Food (US) – Salivation (UR)
After	Sound of the bell (CS) – Salivation (CR)

Suppose we now stop giving meat to the dog after the bell. The dog will continue to salivate at the sound of the bell alone. But, if we continue to do this, the association between the conditioned stimulus and conditioned response eventually suffers extinction. It may be mentioned here that the conditioned response may also be invoked by stimuli similar to the original conditioned stimulus, such as a bell with a different pitch. This phenomenon is called stimulus generalisation. A complementary phenomenon, stimulus discrimination, can also be demonstrated by conditioning the dog to salivate at a bell of one pitch, but not at another. The concept of generalisation accounts for our ability to react to novel situations where we perceive similarities to familiar situations. For example, the personnel manager when dealing with a new problem, may see certain similarities between it and a past problem and as a consequence is able to draw inferences from the past situation to illuminate the present. This is an act of generalisation on the part of the personnel manager. On the other hand, discrimination is evident when a car manufacturer highlights the positive design features of a particular car when compared with similarly priced competitive models. However, despite the theoretical possibility of the widespread applicability of classical conditioning, most modern theorists agree that it represents only a very small part of total human learning. Skinnerian conditioning is also known as instrumental and as operant conditioning. It was discovered by the

American psychologist B.F. Skinner. Instrumental conditioning demonstrates how new behaviours or responses become established through association with particular stimuli. Given a particular context, any behaviour that is rewarded or reinforced will tend to be repeated in that context. Skinner put a rat into a box (now known as a 'Skinner box') with a lever inside which, when pressed, gave the animal food. The rat was not taught to press the lever. However, in the process of wandering around the box, the rat eventually nudges the lever. That random behaviour is reinforced with food and it is likely to happen again. 39 The Changing Scenario Skinnerian conditioning is also called instrumental conditioning because it is related to behaviours that are instrumental in getting some material reward. Skinner's rat thus has to be under the influence of some drive before it can be conditioned in this way. His rats are hungry when they went into his box and their behaviour led to a desired reward. Skinner argued that animals and humans do behave in the absence of specific stimuli. In fact, most human behaviour is of this kind, according to Skinner. Behaviours emitted, in the absence of identifiable stimuli are called operants. Operant conditioning explains how new patterns of behaviour become established. Respondent conditioning does not alter the animal's behaviour, only the behaviour's timing. Skinner also studied numerous variations on the operant conditioning theme. One important variation concerns the occasional reward of desired behaviour rather than delivering rewards in a continuous and regular manner. This phenomenon mirrors real life more closely than the laboratory experiment. For example, why do gamblers keep playing when they lose? Life is full of examples that demonstrate the power of intermittent reinforcement. In other words, desired behaviour can be maintained without regular and consistent reinforcement every time that it occurs. The pattern and timing of rewards for desired behaviour is known as the schedule of reinforcement. A schedule of reinforcement establishes the pattern and frequency of rewards contingent on the display of desirable behaviour. There are two main classes of intermittent reinforcement, concerning interval schedules and ratio schedules, which are summarised in Table below. It may be mentioned here that the fixed ratio and fixed internal schedules and the

variable ratio and variable interval schedules are not the only methods of administering rewards.

Schedules of Reinforcement

Schedule	Description	Implications
Continuous	reinforcement after every correct response	can establish high performance, but can also lead to satiation; rapid extinction when reinforcement is withheld
Fixed ratio	reinforcement after a predetermined number of correct responses	tends to generate high rates of desired responses
Variable ratio	reinforcement after a random number of correct Responses	can produce a high response rate that is resistant to Extinction
Fixed interval	reinforcement of a correct response after a predetermined period	can produce uneven response patterns, slow following reinforcement, vigorous immediately preceding
Variable interval	reinforcement of a correct response after random periods	Reinforcement can produce a high response rate that is resistant to extinction

Many other possible combinations exist. However, these four schedules are the way most employees in today's organisations are reinforced. Much of the learning and resulting behaviour of every worker, supervisor, sales person, and manager is determined by when and how they are reinforced. Understanding and then applying what is known about the administration of reinforcement can be of great assistance to modern human resource managers. In fact, one of the most important functions of all managers may well be the way they administer reinforcement to their people. Skinner explained the development of complex patterns of behaviour with the theory of operant conditioning. This shows how our behaviour is shaped by our environment, by our experiences in that environment and by the selective rewards and punishments that we receive. He argued that thinking, problem solving and

the acquisition of language are dependent on these simple conditioning processes. Operant conditioning has been enormously influential. It has led to the widespread use of programmed learning, a technique of instruction designed to reinforce correct responses in the learner and to let people learn at their own pace. The behaviour modification techniques described later in this unit are also based on Skinner's ideas.

It is generally accepted that reinforcing desired behaviour is more effective than punishing undesirable behaviour. However, C.C. Walters and J.E. Grusek (1977) suggested after a review of research that punishment can be effective if it meets the following conditions:

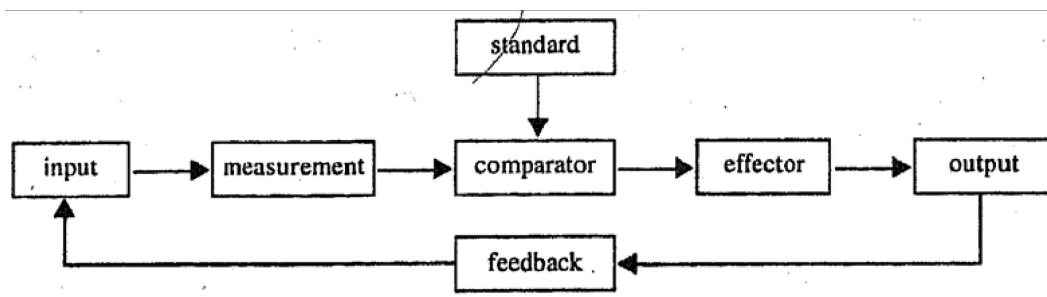
- the punishment should be quick and short;
- it should be administered immediately after the undesirable behaviour;
- it should be limited to its intensity;
- it should be specifically related to behaviour and not to character traits;
- it should be restricted to the context in which the undesirable behaviour occurs;
- it should not send 'mixed messages' about what is accepted behaviour; and
- penalties should take the form of withdrawal of rewards, not physical pain.

b. The Cognitive Approach to Learning

The rewards and punishments that behaviourists call reinforcement work in more complex ways than conditioning theories suggest. Reinforcement is always knowledge or feedback about the success of past behaviour. Feedback is information that can be used to modify or maintain previous behaviours. However, this information has to be perceived, interpreted, given meaning and used in decisions

about future behaviours. The feedback has to be processed. Thus, cognitive learning theories are also called information-processing theories.

This approach draws concepts from the field of cybernetics which was established by the American mathematician Norbert Wiener. He defined cybernetics as ‘the science of communication in the animal and in the machine’. One central idea of cybernetics is the notion of the control of system performance through feedback. These theories of learning are based on **cybernetic analogy**.



The elements of a cybernetic. feedback control system

The cybernetic analogy claims that this control loop is a model of what goes on inside the mind. For standard, read motive, purpose, intent or goal. The output is behaviour. The senses are our measuring devices. Our perceptual process is the comparator which organises and imposes meaning on the sensory data, thus controlling behaviour in pursuit of given objectives.

We have in our minds some kind of ‘internal representation’ or ‘schema’ of ourselves and the environment in which we function. This internal representation is used in a purposive way to determine our behaviour. This internal representation is also called the image, also known as the individual’s perceptual world.

Our behaviour is purposive. We formulate plans for achieving our purposes. The plan is a set of mental instructions for guiding the required behaviour. For example, within the master plan (get a qualification), there are likely to be a number of sub-plans (submit assignments on time, pass this course, make new friends, etc.). We can use information on

how we are doing- **feedback**- to update our internal representation and to refine and adapt our plans. Feedback comes in different forms. These are:

- i. **Intrinsic feedback** is information which comes from within our bodies, from the muscles, joints, skin and other internal mechanisms such as that concerned with maintaining balance when walking.
- ii. **Extrinsic feedback** is information which comes from our environment such as the visual and aural information needed to drive a car.
- iii. **Concurrent feedback** is information which arrives during our behaviour and which can be used to control behaviour as it unfolds.
- iv. **Delayed feedback** is information which is received after a task is completed and which can be used to influence future performance.

These different forms of feedback can be understood with the help of the following example. When you submit an assignment, intrinsic feedback is of limited value. Extrinsic feedback from your evaluator is what matters and feedback is typically delayed rather than concurrent. Evaluators, of course, cannot provide concurrent feedback while you are submitting an assignment, but the longer the delay, the less effective the feedback is likely to be.

People generally have an intense desire to know how they are doing, especially if they have some degree of achievement motivation. It is generally accepted that feedback enhances individual performance. A recent comprehensive review of thirty laboratory and forty-two field experiments concluded that objective feedback had a positive effect. In general, feedback should be as positive, immediate, graphic and specific as possible to be effective.

A general guideline regarding feedback about performance is that it can be an effective positive reinforcer. For example, a supervisor faced with the problem of people taking unscheduled breaks successfully used feedback to reinforce them for (i) (ii) (iii) (iv). staying on the job, The supervisor calculated the exact cost for each worker in the unit (in terms of lost group piece-rate pay) every time any one of them took an unscheduled

break. This information regarding the relatively significant amount of lost pay when any one of them took an unscheduled break was fed back to the employees of the unit. After this feedback, staying on the job increased in frequency and taking unscheduled breaks dramatically decreased. In this case, feedback pointed out the contingency that staying on the job meant more money.

6.8 TYPES OF LEARNING

a. Motor learning:

Most of our activities in our day-to-days life refer to motor activities. The individual has to learn them in order to maintain his regular life, for example walking, running, skating, driving, climbing, etc. All these activities involve the muscular coordination.

b. Verbal learning :

This type of learning involves the language we speak, the communication devices we use. Signs, pictures, symbols, words, figures, sounds, etc, are the tools used in such activities. We use words for communication

c. Concept learning:

It is the form of learning which requires higher order mental processes like thinking, reasoning, intelligence, etc. we learn different concepts from childhood. For example, when we see a dog and attach the term ‘dog’, we learn that the word dog refers to a particular animal. Concept learning involves two processes, viz. abstraction and generalisation. This learning is very useful in recognising, identifying things.

d. Discrimination learning:

Learning to differentiate between stimuli and showing an appropriate response to these stimuli is called discrimination learning. Example, sound horns of different vehicles like bus, car, ambulance, etc.

e. Learning of principles:

Individuals learn certain principles related to science, mathematics, grammar, etc. in order to manage their work effectively. These principles always show the relationship between two or more concepts. Example: formulae, laws, associations, correlations, etc.

f. Problem solving:

This is a higher order learning process. This learning requires the use of cognitive abilities-such as thinking, reasoning, observation, imagination, generalization, etc. This is very useful to overcome difficult problems encountered by the people.

g. Attitude learning:

Attitude is a predisposition which determines and directs our behaviour. We develop different attitudes from our childhood about the people, objects and everything we know. Our behaviour may be positive or negative depending upon our attitudes. Example: attitudes of nurse towards her profession, patients, etc.

6.9 THEORIES OF LEARNING

Psychologists have tried to explain how people learn and why they learn. They have conducted many experiments on animals and children and come to certain definite conclusions which explain the modes of learning.

These are called as theories of learning. In many books, these explanations are treated as kinds of learning. In a sense it is true. But the term learning is very comprehensive. It covers a wide range of activities which cannot be explained within a limited framework. There are many theories explaining modes of learning. Important among them are:

a. Trial and Error Learning Theory

This theory was developed by an American psychologist EL Thorndike (1874-1949). He argues that learning takes place through trial and error method. According to him learning is a gradual process where the individual will make

many attempts to learn. The essence of this theory is-as the trials increase, the errors decrease.

This is possible because of association formed between sense impressions and impulses to action. Such an association comes to be known as a 'bond' or a 'connection, because it is these bonds or connections which become strengthened or weakened in making and breaking of habits. According to this theory when an individual is placed in a new situation, he makes a number of random movements. Among them, those which are unsuccessful are eliminated and the successful ones are fixed.

These random movements are not eliminated at once. In the first attempt their number is very large, in the second attempt the number of errors diminishes and the range of activity becomes narrower. Gradually the individual learns to avoid unnecessary movements and reaches the goal. Improvement takes place through repetition.

Thorndike studies the character of trial and error learning in a number of experiments on cats-using a box which he called 'puzzle box'. In one of the experiments a hungry cat was placed in the box and the door was closed which could be opened by pressing a Latch. A fish was placed outside the box in a plate.

The cat could see this fish. The cat was given 100 trials-ten in the morning and ten in each afternoon for five days. The cat was fed at the end of each experimental period and then was given nothing more to eat until after the next session. If, succeeded in opening the door in any trial by chance, he went to eat food (fish). A complete record was made of the cat's behaviour during each trial.

In the beginning the cat made a number of random movements like biting, clawing, dashing, etc. gradually in subsequent trials the cat reduced the incorrect responses (errors), as it was in a position to manipulate the latch as soon as it was put in the box.

This experiment revealed that the random movements were decreased gradually, that is-as the trials increased the errors decreased. As the trials increased the solution to open the door (pressing the latch) was discovered and at the end, the cat could open the door with zero error. The time taken in each trial was eventually reduced.

Thorndike conducted many experiments with maze and puzzle box learning in which cats and rats were used. He has demonstrated that through numerous trials the animal learns much and gradually improves his effort.

We all learn many skills like swimming, cycling, riding, etc., through this method. Children learn to sit, stand, walk, and run by this method only. However, this method involves considerable waste of time and effort.

b. Learning by Conditioning:

In literal sense, conditioning means ‘getting used’ to, or ‘adjusted’ to a new situation, or a stimulus. It is a process of substituting the original stimulus by a new one and connecting the response with it. There are two types of conditioning theories:

a. Classical conditioning:

This method of conditioning got its name from the fact that, it is a kind of learning situation that existed in the early classical experiments of Ivan P Pavlov (1849-1936), Russian physiologist who was awarded Nobel Prize, in 1904 for his experiments.

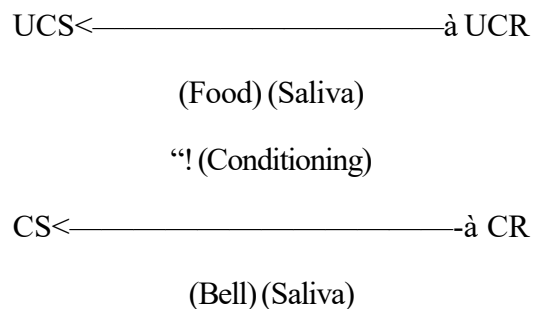
Pavlov designed an apparatus to measure the quantity of saliva produced in response to food (meat powder). At the beginning of his experiment Pavlov noted that no saliva flowed when he rang the bell. He then trained the dog by sounding the bell, and shortly afterwards presenting food.

After the sound of the bell had been paired with food a few times, he tested the effects of the training by measuring the amount of saliva that flowed when he rang the bell and did not present food. He found that

some saliva was produced in response to the sound of the bell alone. He then resumed the training-paired presentation of bell and food a few times and then tested again with the bell alone.

As the training continued, the amount of saliva on tests with the bell alone increased. Thus, after training the dog's mouth watered-salivated-whenver the bell was sounded. This is what was learned; it is the conditioned response.

This theory states that CS (bell) becomes a substitute after pairing with UCS (food) and acquires the capacity to elicit a response. It is because the association (conditioning) is formed between CS and UCS. This may be symbolically presented as follows:



Sub-principles of Classical Conditioning:

There are certain sub-principles which explain the different phenomena of this experiment.

a. Extinction and spontaneous recovery:

Extinction means cessation of a response. The strength of the CS gradually decreases when it is presented alone and not followed by UCS for a number of trials. This process is called 'extinction'. In this experiment when only bell is presented without food for a number of trials, the dog stopped salivation gradually.

But when the CS (bell) was paired again with UCS (food) for some trials, the CR (salivation) recovered. This is known as ‘spontaneous recovery’. In spontaneous

recovery the dog required less number of trials than the first time, because the association between CS and UCS still existed in the brain of the animal.

b. Stimulus generalization:

A tendency to respond to a stimulus which is similar to original one is called stimulus generalization, the greater the similarity, the more the generalization. In this experiment, the dog started salivating even for the sound of a buzzer which was similar to bell.

c. Stimulus discrimination:

When there is much difference between two stimuli, the animal can discriminate between the two. For example, if the dog is conditioned to salivate at the signal of red light, it will not salivate when green light is presented.

d. Higher order conditioning:

If a 'light' is presented followed by bell and then by food for a number of trials, the dog will start salivating to light itself. This phenomenon is called higher order condition.

All these principles are very useful in behaviour therapy. Conditioning is not confined only to the laboratory.

In our day-to-day's life we come across many instances of such learning. For example, a small child who does not know, touches a burning candle, it gives him a painful experience and withdraws his hand. Later this experience will make him withdraw from burning objects and avoid them all together.

Conditioning is used as psychotherapeutic technique very effectively in the treatment of abnormal behaviours such as phobias, alcoholism, enuresis, etc. These are called behaviour modification techniques. Watson and others have conducted many experiments to prove the usefulness of this method.

ii. Operant Conditioning:

This method of conditioning was developed by an American psychologist BF Skinner. This theory is also known as ‘Instrumental conditioning’, because the animals use certain operations or actions as instruments to find solution.

Skinner conducted his famous experiment by placing a hungry rat in a box called after his name ‘Skinner box’. This box was containing a lever and a food tray in a corner of the box. It was so arranged, that the animal was free to move inside the box, but the pressing of the lever would get the animal a pallet of food in the tray as reinforcement.

Arrangement was also made to record the number of pressings of the lever by a mechanical device. It was found in the beginning that the rat pressed the lever occasionally and used to get food as reinforcement for each pressing.

Gradually, as the animal learnt the pressing of lever would give some food, it repeated the responses very rapidly. This rapid increase in pressing the lever is the indication of the animal conditioned to get food.

In day-to-day’s life also, much learning takes place in animals as well as in human beings by this method. The reinforcement will be the motivating factor. It will make the organism to repeat its action.

It is on the basis of these experiments, Skinner made his famous statement “Rewarded behaviour is repeated”. Instrumental conditioning involves more activity by the learner than classical conditioning. Skinner conducted his experiments on different animals like pigeons, rats, etc.

Reinforcement which is the most important aspect of this experiment is divided into two types: positive reinforcement is used in reward training. Negative reinforcement-like punishment is used to stop undesired responses or behaviours. Operant conditioning is useful in shaping undesirable behaviour and also in modification of behaviour.

This is also useful in training of mentally retarded children to learn dressing, eating and toilet training skills, treatment of phobias, drug and alcohol addictions, and psychotherapy and to teach needed behaviour in children. Further, these experiments have proved that intermittent reinforcement yields better results than continuous reinforcement.

c. Learning by Insight:

Many times learning proceeds by the more efficient process of trying those methods which are seen to have a relation to solution. This is possible by understanding or perception of the situation.

Learning by perceiving the relationship in the scene and understanding the situation is insightful learning. This theory was developed by a psychologist known as Wolfgang Kohler, who belonged to Gestalt school of psychology.

According to Gestalt theory—perception of a situation as a ‘whole’ gives better understanding than sum total of its parts. That is, the situation viewed as a whole will definitely look different from that, viewed through its parts.

Kohler conducted his most famous experiments on chimpanzee- called Sultan. In the experiment, Sultan was put in a cage and a banana was placed at some distance outside the cage. Then the chimpanzee was given two sticks, so constructed that one stick could be fitted into another and make the stick longer.

The hungry Sultan first attempted with its hands to get the banana. Then he took one of the sticks and tried to pull the banana nearer, then tried with other stick, but failed to reach it. By this effort, the chimpanzee became tired and left the attempts to reach banana and started playing with sticks.

While playing so, one of the sticks got fitted into the other and the stick became lengthier. Immediately Sultan became elated and pulled the banana with this long stick and ate it. This ‘sudden flash of idea’ to reach food with longer stick was called as ‘Insight’, by Kohler.

He conducted many experiments to prove that learning takes place also by insight and not only by trial and error. He concluded that the occurrence of insight to find solution to a problem is possible by perception of the whole situation.

Kohler conducted many experiments on this line of learning to prove that, just trial and error method is not enough to find solution for many complex problems.

Trial and error or association through connectionism and conditioning may account for simple acquisition of knowledge, skills, interests, habits and other personality characteristics. But it is absolutely insufficient for solving complex problems.

It is here the method of insightful learning is very useful. Because it involves many higher mental processes such as thinking, reasoning, intelligence, etc.

Insight occurs, when the individual sees in a flash, the solution to his problem or difficulty. It is not blind or stupid learning. It is an intelligent way of learning. In many occasions people try to size up the situation, things and arrive at a conclusion. With experience man is able to solve problems better and sooner.

He exercises his discrimination ability in solving problems, and learning becomes a matter of insight rather than of trial and error. Archimedes's example of 'Aha' experience (eureka) explained in creative thinking is the appropriate example for occurrence of insight.

d. Learning by Imitation:

It is the simplest method of learning. Many of our day-to-day's activities are learnt by imitating others. For example, the way we eat, drink, walk, talk, dress, etc, are all learnt by imitating others. We observe and watch what and how other people do certain activities and imitate them.

We observe the demonstrations given by an expert, imitate his movements and learn them. By copying the behaviour of others, people avoid waste of time and effort of trial and error method of learning. For example, a boy observes the way

of holding a cricket bat, the movements of an expert player, imitates the same and learns.

Psychologists like Millar and Dollard have tried to show that the tendency to imitate is itself a learned response and if reinforced, the individual will be more likely to continue to imitate.

Many people believe that imitation is a lower form type of learning. Still others argue that imitation can never lead to novel responses and there will be no chance to use individual's creativity or originality. But at the same time many educationists believe that only the imitative individual can learn better. Whatever may be the opinion it is quite obvious that we learn many things by imitation.

6.10 LAWS OF LEARNING

EL Thorndike has explained three laws of learning called Primary laws and in addition to these, he has also framed 5 subsidiary laws in connection with his trial and error learning theory.

a. Primary laws:

These are the most important laws, which explain the basic aspects of learning. They are:

1. Law of readiness:

By readiness means the organism is ready to respond or act. This is more essential prerequisite for learning.

This indicates that the animal or human being is motivated to learn. This condition of readiness has two effects— satisfaction and annoyance. When the animal is ready to act- if permitted- it gives pleasure. If it is not permitted, it feels annoyed.

In the same way when the animal is not ready to learn- if asked to learn- it is annoying. On the other hand, if it is prevented from learning it gives pleasure.

These points have been given below in the words of Thorndike:

- a. For a conduction unit ready to conduct-to conduct is satisfying.
- b. For a conduction unit ready to conduct-not to conduct is annoying.
- c. For a conduction unit not ready to conduct- to conduct is annoying.

This law clearly shows that readiness of a person to learn is very important. Hence motivate him to learn.

2. Law of exercise:

This law is also known as law of frequency. Frequency refers to number of repetitions of learning. Thorndike believed that repeated exercising of a response strengthens its connection with stimulus.

This aspect refers to law of use and disuse, which explains that, anything not in use will perish. So also if the response is not repeated, its bond with stimulus gets weakened. This is also according to the statement that ‘practice makes man perfect’.

In Thorndike’s experiment the cat becomes perfect after repeating the response more number of times, i.e. it learnt to open the door without committing any error.

3. Law of effect:

This law states that when a connection is accomplished by satisfying effect- its strength is increased. By this, Thorndike meant that the probability of its occurrence is greater. In his experiment if the hungry cat succeeded in opening the door, would get its favourable dish to eat.

This had a positive effect on its response. Rewards always strengthen connections between stimuli and responses, and on the other hand, punishment weakens connections.

b. Secondary laws:

In addition to the three primary laws explained above, Thorndike has given five secondary or subsidiary laws also.

They are as follows:

1. Law of multiple response:

It means when a response fails to elicit a desired effect, the learner will try with new responses until the goal is reached.

2. Law of set or attitude:

Mental set or positive attitude is very important in any learning.

3. Law of associative shifting:

This is nothing but shifting of the response to a new situation which is similar to the earlier one. Because the fundamental notion is that, if a response can be kept intact through a series of changes in stimulating situation, it may finally be given to a new situation.

4. Law of prepotency of elements:

This law states that the learner is able to react in a selected way, only to the salient elements of the problem and not for other unimportant elements.

5. Law of response by analogy:

It means comparing a new situation to the previously learned one and thus giving a response by analogy.

As stated above, Thorndike formulated these laws on the basis of his experiments. According to the law of readiness, the cat was ready to learn, because it was hungry. This hunger motivated the cat to learn to open the door.

According to the second law, the cat was repeatedly given trials and exercise which strengthened its learning. Finally on each trial the cat was given reinforcement in the form of fish.

This encouraged the cat to continue its effort to learn to open the door. The secondary laws given by him support these findings. These laws are highly relevant to the field of education. The teachers can make use of these laws in order to make their teaching more effective.

6.11 DOCTRINES OF LEARNING

Some general doctrines of learning can be stated, on the basis of the research done in the field of psychology and education. These can be stated as under:

- a. Every human being is capable of learning as each one of us has a capacity and ability to learn. People do differ in learning capacities and the pace of learning, but there is nobody who cannot learn at all.
- b. Trainees learn when they see that training is meaningful to them.
- c. Learning improves significantly if the trainers have planned it properly. They must start with defining the learning objectives and then all the details of its each aspect such pedagogy, facility planning etc.
- d. Learning has different levels and may involve awareness, change in behaviour and attitudes. It may also involve mental processes or just physical strength. Each level of training would require different time, methods and resources.
- e. Learning is an active process and not passive. Hence, all learning must ensure that the trainees have a proper participation in the entire process.

6.12 SOCIAL LEARNING

Social learning is the process of learning through social interaction between peers. The most common illustration of social learning in the workplace is the chance meeting by

the water cooler. Two or more people run into each other, share ideas, and walk away a little more knowledgeable in the process; this is social learning. Social learning can take place in informal one-on-one encounters, among teams in the course of real-time problem-solving, communities of practice, through social software, expertise directories, and more. The key is that the company fosters a culture of continual learning, in which employees are empowered and encouraged to share what they know with each other and to seek out colleagues' expertise to increase performance across the organization. In order to retain more new material, it's extremely helpful to enable the learner to actively engage in the process. Human beings learn best by asking questions, discussing issues, sharing ideas, and teaching what we know. When we are engaged — repeating information and ideas while interacting with others to explore an area of learning — it stimulates deeper critical thinking. No matter what a person's dominant learning style is — auditory, visual, or tactile — active participation is the most effective way to solidify new knowledge for the vast majority of people. This is the potential power of social learning done well.

6.13 Benefits of Social Learning Technology

Social learning enhances traditional training methods by bridging the gap between formal and informal workplace education. Social learning software solutions bridge this gap by offering:

- a. The ability to upload user-generated content, including sharing of best practices and collateral by peers
- b. Opportunities for self-directed learning, which foster(s) engagement through autonomy, mastery, and purpose
- c. A platform to develop learning communities: groups that collaborate on their shared learning experience
- d. Mobile learning opportunities, available anytime from anywhere for the modern, on-the-go workforce
- e. Metrics beyond a “grade,” including content access reports, gamification and leaderboard-type measurements of engagement.

6.14 THE CHALLENGE OF IMPLEMENTING SOCIAL LEARNING

According to the results of a social learning study conducted by the Brandon Hall Group, “The challenge [of implementing social learning] is that few organizations have a complete understanding of what social technologies mean for their learning function. In fact, attitudes toward social learning technologies range from seeing them as time-wasting fads, to looking at them as something you simply buy from a vendor, to understanding that they help enable a cultural shift in learning.” The study also revealed, though, that organizations with the latter attitude — that social technologies represent a cultural shift in learning — are also most likely to be the highest-performing companies among those surveyed (with high performance being defined as companies that increased revenues and improved a majority of their key performance indicators over the previous year). This supports the conclusion that social learning works for organizations that embrace it throughout their culture.

David Hegarty, writing for HC Online, asserts: “successful social learning requires more than choosing a platform and hoping people won’t mind the extra login. Business outcomes like improved sales, productivity, engagement, and time to competence can be directly linked to successful social learning initiatives.” He then offers tips to help organizations get started:

- a. Set yourself up for success with an easy UX and seed it with great content
- b. Lead from the top with direct executive involvement and support
- c. Understand the pain points of your audience and communicate how they will benefit from participation
- d. Let the social platform become the “single source of truth” — the knowledge core of the entire organization.

It should be noted that the most effective tools for social learning require the organization to give up a little bit of control. Learner-generated content, ratings, comments, and discussions tend to scare organizations, but they are the most powerful ways to allow learners to teach each other.

6.15 CONCEPT OF ATTITUDE

Attitude is an evaluation of an object or a person in a specific way. It is the formation of certain permanent impressions. It is a psychological phenomenon and forms a basis for human behaviour. A human being behaves in a particular way based on impressions formulated by him. These impressions are predispositions. Certain definitions of attitude are:

“Attitude is a persistent tendency to feel and behave in a particular way toward some object.” **Joseph Reitz**

According to **Allport**, “Attitude is a mental state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a specific influence upon a person’s response to people, objects and situation with which it is related.”

According to **Krech** and **Crutchfield**, “Attitude is an enduring organisation of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of individuals world.”

Katz and **Scotland** defined attitudes as, “a tendency or predisposition to evaluate an object or symbol of that object in a certain way.”

Employees working in organisations develop certain attitudes and express their feelings about the organisation. An individual’s enthusiasm, satisfaction, energy, motivation, apathy, antagonism and dissatisfaction are expressions of his attitudes. Individual feelings regarding wages, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, responsibility, job security, prestige etc., reflect in one’s attitudes. They influence a person’s work and communication, vis-à-vis productivity of the organisation. Above all, attitudes influence behaviour. Therefore, managers need to understand attitudes.

6.16 NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS

The characteristics of attitudes are given below:

- (i) Attitude is a psychological concept.

- (ii) Attitudes do not exist at the time of birth. They are learnt through experience.
- (iii) It is a permanent impression and remains unchanged unless there is a force to change it.
- (iv) Attitude exists in every person. Because every person possesses attitudes on innumerable things or objects or persons.
- (v) Attitudes have a cause and effect relationship.
- (vi) It is both a physical and behavioural reaction to an external stimulus.
- (vii) Attitudes have emotional and motivational aspects.
- (viii) Attitudes are almost permanent. A strong force is required to change an existing attitude.
- (ix) Attitudes are opinions differ on a conceptual basis. Opinion is and expression of personal judgement after an evaluation of circumstances and evidence gathered by the sensory organs.
- (x) Attitudes and beliefs also differ. A belief is an understanding evaluated through internal feelings. It is one's expectations about the nature and characteristics of an object or situation.
- (xi) Attitudes and values are different concepts. Values are ideals related to the conduct of one's own behaviour. Not all values relate to a specific object or situation.

6.17 ATTITUDE FORMATION

Formation of an attitude is the psychological process of developing impressions and using them in the process of judgement. We are not born with attitudes but form them due to worldly experiences. Attitudes development requires an understanding of its structure. Several aspects comprise the totality of attitude. The various elements of attitude structure are:

- (a) **Affective Component:** The affective component of human brain is the part that leads to an emotional expression towards an object. It is developed by a conditional response by an association with stimuli that lead to either a reward or punishment. Therefore, expressions of good or bad, likes or dislikes, pleasure or displeasure, beauty or ugliness are part of attitudes. Similarly, tendencies of love, hate, warmth, friendship, affinity etc. are expressions of attitudes.
- (b) **Cognitive component:** Cognitive component is the formation gathered and stored in the human brain. Experience and perception are responsible for its development. This leads to development of an opinion or belief. A person uses beliefs based on his cognition to show certain behavioural reactions, and thus, formulates a certain attitude. For instance, an employee as being 'uninterested in the work'. This may influence all his future evaluations, unless contradictory information about the sincerity of the employee disproves his earlier belief.
- (c) **Behavioural component:** The behavioural component shows an action or reaction towards an object or person. The intensity of the action shows the strength of attitude. For example, a supervisor having a negative attitude about a worker always finds fault with the worker. Similarly, a finance manager, who feels that a particular accountant cannot prepare a trial balance correctly always looks to find fault, even if the trial balance is correct.
- (d) **Valence:** Valence is the degree of strength or weakness of attitude. Indifference is a low valence in one's attitude towards the situation.
- (e) **Multiplicity:** A variety of factors influence attitudes of an individual. Therefore, in the study of formation of attitudes, a manager should understand more than one factor.

- (f) **Need orientation:** Needs and desires of individuals influence attitudes. Greater needs have a stronger influence on the formation of attitudes.
- (g) **Stimuli:** Stimuli are the central concept of attitudes. A stimulus is any item of information received by the sensory organs and interpreted by the brain. Change in attitudes is a function of the strength or weakness of the stimuli. Attitudes formed due to strong stimuli are less open to change.

The above discussions on formation of attitude show that attitudes are not formed due to a single experience in any situation. A continuous reinforcement of the same experience develops beliefs and consequently attitudes are developed. Attitudes, once developed, are less vulnerable to change unless a strong stimulus changes the earlier belief.

6.18 FACTORS AFFECTING FORMATION OF ATTITUDES

Attitude structure is responsible for formation of human attitudes. A number of factors influence formation of attitudes. Factors influencing the formation of attitudes are described below:

- (a) **Experience:** Continued interaction with a person or object leads to the development of an experience in an individual. A person retains information about whether an experience is rewarding or punishing, and uses this information in all future interactions with the person or object. For example, a hard nut is given to a child, and he fails to crack it in the first attempt. This may not lead him to believe that all nuts are hard and cannot be cracked, but if he experiences the same thing again and again, he formulates an attitude that certain nuts are hard to crack. Rewarding experience leads to the development of positive attitude, whereas a punishing experience leads to a negative attitude. In organisations, employees develop impressions about salary, perquisites, working conditions, performance, superiors' behaviour, group interaction etc. Continued experience with these factors leads to the formation of attitudes. For example, if the working conditions are safe and superior's behaviour is encouraging a person develops a positive attitude towards work.

- (b) **Association:** Association is correlating two objects or situations. A close relationship or association with two objects or persons leads to the development of opinions. A reinforced opinion leads to the formation of an attitude. For instance, a teacher finds that a few students in a group are sincere, punctual and interested in studies. When he evaluates the group, he remembers those students and evaluates the entire group of students as positive. Therefore, the teacher formulates a positive attitude of the group.
- (c) **Interaction:** Interaction is the sharing of opinions and expression of views. Primarily, individuals develop opinions from their experience and observation of family members. The characteristics of family members, such as parents, brothers and sisters exert an influence on formation of right or wrong attitudes. For example, children belonging to hardworking and sincere parents are likely to develop a positive attitude towards work. Similarly, group interaction, characteristics, norms, styles, communication, etc., influence a member's attitudes. Group members form and develop opinions that conform to the characteristics, norms and values of the group. Therefore, work groups, reference groups and friendship groups influence attitude formation. However, all these groups do not exert the same degree of influence on attitude formation. A work group having strong positive values towards increasing productivity is likely to influence all its members to develop a positive attitude towards work.
- (d) **Society:** Society is a large group of individuals, it defines and individual's actions according to the expectations of the society. It helps in transmitting culture from one generation to the other, and stipulates restrictions about unacceptable behaviour. A society develops its own culture, religion, language, and value systems. An individual's affiliation to social groups, culture, language, and religion is responsible for formation of attitudes.

For example, the Japanese have a positive attitude towards innovation and productive work culture, Americans have a positive attitude towards

capitalism, the Chinese have a positive attitude towards communism, and the Indians have a positive attitude towards socialism and democracy.

- (e) **Personality factors:** Personality leads to the formation of attitudes, which in turn determine the personality of individuals. Hence, both are inter-related. Personality factors like authoritarianism and democracy, pride, prejudice, conservatism, liberalization, optimism, pessimism etc. Lead to formation of attitudes. For example, authoritarian personality has a more positive attitude towards work and a negative attitude towards peoples' welfare.

The above discussions shows that permanent impressions and beliefs held by individuals are responsible for formation of attitudes. Therefore, they are less susceptible to change. Attitudes do not exist at the time of birth; they are learnt from environmental interaction. Therefore, developing a strong argument against an attitude can change it.

6.19 TYPES OF ATTITUDE

An individual may have a number of attitudes regarding different aspects of life, but the field of Organisational behaviour (OB) focuses only on the study of job-related attitudes. OB specifically focuses on three attitudes: job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment.

- (a) **Job satisfaction**

In the field of OB, job satisfaction is one of the most important and widely studied attitudes. Job satisfaction refers to an individual's general attitude towards his or her job. It has been described by Edwin A. Locke as the pleasurable or positive emotional state that results when an individual evaluates his job or job experience. Job satisfaction results when an individual perceives that his job provides him with what is important to him. The three important dimensions of job satisfaction are provided below:

- i) Job satisfaction is an emotion response to a job. This response can be inferred but not seen.

- ii) The job satisfaction that an individual derives from his job depends on the extent to which outcomes meet his expectations. For example, if an employee feels that he is getting more salary and more autonomy in his company than his friends in other organizations, he will have a high level of job satisfaction and a favorable attitudes towards his superiors, peers and the work itself. If he feels that his salary and decision-making power is at par with that of his friends, he will experience only moderate job satisfaction; and if he feels that he is getting much less pay and autonomy than his friends, he will experience job dissatisfaction and will develop a negative attitude towards his work and superiors.
- iii) Job satisfaction reflects other attitudes of employees.

According to **P.C. Smith, L.M. Kendal and C.L Hulin**, there are six job dimensions that represent them most important characteristics of a job and elicit favorable of unfavorable responses from employees:

- **The work itself:** Jobs that include interesting tasks and provide opportunities to the employee to learn and to shoulders responsibilities bring more satisfaction to the employees than jobs that do not provide these.
- **Pay:** An employee will have a positive attitude towards his job if the compensation he receives for the work he does is comparable to that of others in similar jobs in the organization.
- **Promotion opportunities:** An employee's level of job satisfaction will be higher in a job that provides him an opportunity to move up in the organizational hierarchy than in a job does not.
- **Supervision:** An employee whose supervisor offers him technical help and behavioral support in times of need will experience more satisfaction in his job than employee whose supervisor does not offer any such support.

- **Coworkers:** An employee will experience a higher level of job satisfaction when his fellow workers are cooperative and bale to offer him technical assistance.
- **Working Conditions:** Good working conditions have a positive impact on job satisfaction.

Outcomes of job satisfaction

For years, management researchers and practitioners have tried to find out the impact of employee job satisfaction on organizational effectiveness. They wanted to know whether job dissatisfaction would lead to decline in employee output and, consequently, organizational performance. They analyzed the outcomes of job satisfaction by studying the relationship between job satisfaction and various other organizational aspects such as productivity, turnover, absenteeism, etc. These relationships are discussed below:

(i) Satisfaction and productivity

Though many people assume that there is a positive relationship between satisfaction and performance, research results have proved that there is no strong relation between satisfaction and productivity. They are other mediating variables like rewards, that lead to an increase in productivity. Recent research findings suggest that though satisfaction may not bring about considerable improvement I individual performance, it does result in an overall improvement in organizational performance.

(ii) Satisfaction and turnover

Research has indicated that only a moderate relationship exists between satisfaction and turnover. High job satisfaction will not eliminate employee turnover but will only help reduce the rate of turnover. While job dissatisfaction will encourage employees to switch organizations at the slightest opportunity for better prospects in other organizations, the satisfied employees will consider several aspects before leaving the organization.

Job tenure (the number of years an employee has worked in a job in an organization) is another factor that has an impact on turnover. The higher the job tenure of an employee in an organization, the lower the chances of his leaving the organization.

An individual's commitment to the organization also affects the relationship between satisfaction and turnover. Some people are so accustomed to a certain job, colleagues and work environment that they cannot think of working elsewhere. Therefore, they continue to work in the same organization, without being concerned about their level of satisfaction.

A country's economy and the employment scenario also influence turnover. If the economy is booming and there are adequate employment opportunities available, even satisfied employees may leave their organizations and seek better prospects elsewhere. Though turnover, to some extent, benefits organizations by bringing in new talent, a high turnover rate is undesirable because the organization loses in terms of productive time and training costs.

(iii) Satisfaction and absenteeism

Research studies have shown that job satisfaction and absenteeism have an inverse relationship. A high level of job satisfaction leads to low absenteeism and a low level of job satisfaction results in high absenteeism. However, other variables, such as the extent to which people consider their jobs important, also have an impact on absenteeism. A research conducted on state government employees in the US revealed that the employees who felt that their jobs were important. The research also revealed that job satisfaction may not necessarily result in low absenteeism, but low job satisfaction will lead to high absenteeism.

(iv) Other effects of job satisfaction

Research has shown that high job satisfaction has an impact on an employee's life inside the organization as well as outside the organization. Employees who are highly satisfied with their jobs have low stress levels (and thus have better mental and physical health), have less on-the-job accidents, and have fewer grievances.

They also show enthusiasm in learning job-related tasks. Satisfied employees have high morale and help fellow employees, customers and other people in society by undertaking social activities.

Thus, we can say that job satisfaction is of value to the overall health and effectiveness of an organization.

(b) Job involvement

Job involvement is a new concept in the field of OB. It refers to the extent to which a person identifies himself psychologically with his job, actively participates in it, and considers that his performance in the job contributes to his self-worth. Employees who are highly involved with their jobs strongly identify themselves with the kind of work they do and strive to deliver quality work. Research has shown that high levels of job involvement lead to lower absenteeism and employee turnover levels.

(c) Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment refers to an employee's satisfaction with a particular organization and its goals. An employee who has a high level of organizational commitment is a strong supporter of the values and goals of the organization, has a strong inclination to continue being a member of the organization, and wants to strive hard to achieve the goals of the organization. The organizational commitment of an employee is affected by a number of personal and organizational variables. Personal variables include the employee's age, his tenure in the organization, and his attitude towards his job. Organizational variables include the job design and the leadership style of the superior. Sometimes, even non-organizational factors may influence an employee's commitment, such as the state of the job market and other career options available to the employee.

John P. Meyer and **Natalite J. Allen** developed a three-component model to understand the multidimensional nature of organizational commitment. The three components (or dimensions) of organizational commitment are:

- i) **Affective commitment:** This is concerned with the employee's emotional attachment and involvement with the organization.
- ii) **Continuance commitment:** This is influenced by the costs that could accrue to the employee if he leaves the organization.
- iii) **Normative commitment:** This refers to the extent to which an employee feels obligated to continue in the organization.

6.20 THEORIES OF ATTITUDE FORMATION

Attitude formation and change are not one time activities. It takes a long time for attitudes to form and change. A number of theories have been advanced to explain the process of attitude formation. Three classes of theories exist to explain the process. They are cognitive consistency theories, the functional theory, and the social judgement theory. Cognitive consistency theories have been further classified into balance theory, congruity theory, affective-cognitive consistency theory and cognitive dissonance theory. Of all these theories, cognitive dissonance theory is the most popular. The framework of these theories is given below:

(a) Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Festinger propounded the theory of cognitive dissonance. The theory explained the relationship between attitudes and behaviour. The theory states that individuals try to reconcile between divergent attitudes and balance their attitude to rationalize their behaviour. The following are the propositions of the theory:

- (i) Cognition is information received, processed, and stored in the human mind.
- (ii) Consonance of cognition exists when individuals are able to establish a relationship between life events based on logic or experience. Consonance leads to formation of attitudes. Individual behaviour is normal in the case of consonance.

- (iii) Processing of unrelated information between current events and already existing information leads to the irrelevance of cognition. Irrelevant cognition leads to formation of unrelated attitudes. Therefore, a person displays a reserved pattern of behaviour.
- (iv) Dissonance arises when the relationship of events is opposite to that of the existing experience.
- (v) The degree of dissonance varies in its magnitude from one situation to another.

Managerial Strategies of Attitude Formation

1. **Discount the importance:** Dissonance arises when individuals relate a piece of information with the information possessed by the human brain. The more the value attached to it, the more severe is the discomfort he experiences. Thus, overlooking information that causes discomfort reduces dissonance. For example, dissonance arises when a manager expects higher productivity from an employee whose productivity is poor. The more he attaches importance to the productivity of the employee, the more he will worry, causing dissonance. By overlooking productivity, the manager may be able to reduce his dissonance.
2. **Enhance consonance:** We know that dissonance arises due to mismatch of information with the existing cognitive structure of the human mind. This is due to lack of adequate information relating to the event. Therefore, compatibility increases if more information is given to the existing cognitive structure of individuals, leading to consonance. Consider the example of a student experiencing discomfort while reading this text for the first time. The reason is lack of information about the subject in the mind; he feels that the subject is difficult. However, as he reads more literature on the subject of organisational behaviour, he is likely to feel more comfortable with the subject, and find it easy.
3. **Attempt change:** Another strategy to reduce dissonance is attempting to change the cognitive structure of the brain. The cognitive structure having incompatible

information is replaced with new information or certain inconsistent information is dropped. This reduces dissonance. Taking the earlier example a manager can reduce his dissonance about the unproductive employee by reducing the production targets. If the manager evaluates the employee from the point of view of lower production targets, the employee may also be productive. This reduces his dissonance about the employees.

Application of Cognitive Dissonance Theory

The cognitive dissonance theory suggested by Festinger has a specific application in organisational behaviour. The following discussion relates to this:

- (i) **Disconfirmed expectancy:** The theory states that inconsistency of information leads to increased anxiety or discomfort in individuals. Disconfirmed expectancy is a situation in which expectations are not realised. In such a situation people try to develop attitudes to substantiate disconfirmed expectancy. In the process, more mistakes are committed in their evaluations. For example, an employee who does not get the promotion he is expecting is likely to develop a negative attitude towards the promotion system and policy. He is likely to argue that he was denied the promotion due to favouritism of the superior, despite the fact that he has no evidence for this. He will not accept that his performance is not as good as the performance of the person who was promoted.
- (ii) **Post decision dissonance:** Decision-making is a continuous job for any manager. Decisions aim at attaining certain objectives. Moreover, decisions are reflected in future actions. Since the future is risk-oriented, the results of the decisions may not conform to the objectives every time. If the decisions do not yield the intended benefits, dissonance develops in the decision-makers. In order to project the fact that the decision is sound one tries to support only positive aspects of the decision and develop a negative attitude towards the other alternative courses of action. For example a finance manager made a decision to invest in shares. After an analysis of the various alternatives, he finally decided to buy certain shares, expecting that there would be rise the price of the shares. However, the share price did not

increase as per his expectations, and furthermore, the price of the shares of other companies increased. This naturally leads to dissonance. In this case, in order to protect his interests he is likely to argue that the increase in the share price of the other companies is only a temporary phenomenon. In the long run, the share price of the company chosen by him will increase beyond expectations. In this way, he tries to substantiate his decision and satisfy himself, thereby reducing his dissonance.

(b) Functional Theory

Katz and Kelman pioneered the functional theory. The theory considered the relationship between attitudes and effort, and motivational structure. It suggested that attitudes are formed and changed in accordance with the motivational propensity of individuals. Kelman has identified three processes in the formation of attitudes, namely compliance, identification, and internalisation.

- **Compliance:** A person tries to acquire an attitude in order to comply with a certain person or thing. People form attitudes that are consistent to a group in order to be recognized in the group. For instance, a worker who is willing to join a group of high achievers is likely to acquire the attitudes of the group. Otherwise, he will not be admitted or recognized in the group.
- **Identification:** Formation of attitudes also takes place for the purpose of identification with an agent of change. If an individual feels adopting new attitude enables him to establish a positive self-defining relationship, he is likely to develop such attitude. For instance, an employee may try to adopt the attitudes of his superior, in order to identify with them.
- **Internalisation:** Internalisation of an attitude occurs when certain attitudes are congruent to the internal value system of an individual. Thus, people of different cultures are likely to formulate different attitudes. For example, Americans believe in being independent from an early age. This attitude may not be prevalent in other cultures. An employee, who believes in

punctuality, will develop a favourable attitude towards those who arrive at the office on time and a negative attitude towards latecomers.

The functional theory is of great relevance in understanding formation and change of attitudes. Managers attempting to change the attitude of their employees should understand the motivational structure of the employee.

(c) Social Judgement Theory

Sherif and Hoveland formulated the social judgement theory of formation and change of attitude. The theory explained two dimensions of attitudes: (i) Existing attitudes are likely to produce distortions and (ii) judgements made in this respect mediate the change in attitudes. The theory explains that individuals develop attitudes based on social judgements. The propositions of the theory are given below.

- (i) Every person develops certain initial attitudes by interaction with the family.
- (ii) Individuals use initial attitudes to judge the stimuli received from social interactions.
- (iii) Initial attitudes become the basis and serve as a point of reference to evaluate the opinion of others.
- (iv) Formation and strengthening of attitudes takes place when stimuli received from society are similar to the initial attitude. Otherwise, an individual rejects the social stimuli.

The social judgement theory states that formation of attitudes follows a continuum, which comprises latitudes. The latitudes are acceptance, rejection and non-commitment. Consonance of opinions from an individual's standpoint falls in the region of acceptance. Opinions, that are most objectionable, fall in the rejection latitude. Opinions that may be either acceptable or unacceptable fall in the region of non-commitment. The social judgement theory is especially relevant to organisational behaviour. Managers try to understand formation and change of attitudes based on the group interaction. Groups in an organisation

can be regarded as the society in which employees spend most of their time. Thus, understanding the ways and means of social judgement enables a manager to design strategies of attitude change.

6.21 FUNCTIONS OF ATTITUDE

The study of OB involves a proper understanding of the functions of attitudes. Attitudes reflect an individual's work behavior and performance. For example, if an attitude survey reports that workers are dissatisfied with the management's decision against giving them a bonus and that the productivity of employees has begun to gradually decline, the management may conclude that the negative attitude of the employees has led to the decline in productivity. According to **D. Katz**, attitudes serve four important functions. These are discussed below:

(a) The adjustment function

People modify their attitudes to adjust to their work environment. When superiors treat employees fairly and compensate them with equal pay for equal work, the employees tend to develop a positive attitude towards the organization and their superiors. But if management does not treat them well and fails to give them equitable remuneration for their services, they will develop a negative attitude towards the organization. Such attitudes help employees adapt to their environment and form the basis for their future behaviors.

(b) The ego-defensive function

Attitudes not only enable employees to adapt to their environment but also help them defend their self-images (the image of themselves). Take the case of a senior executive who is not a very effective manager and sometimes makes poor decisions. When his subordinate points out his mistakes, he may not take in in the right spirit. Instead of admitting his shortcomings and making suitable amends, the senior executive may become defensive and try to protect his ego. He may accuse the young

executive of giving suggestions without having the required experience. The junior executive too may try to defend his ego and justify his actions by criticizing his boss for not performing his job well. In the process, both the executives develop a negative attitude towards each other, often with detrimental consequences for the organization.

(c) **The value-expressive function**

People may express their values through their attitudes. For example, if a manager wants an employee to work harder, he may tell the employee that the company has a tradition of hard work and that every employee in the company is expected to respect that tradition and work accordingly.

(d) **The knowledge function**

Attitudes provide a standard of reference which allows people to understand and explain their environment. For example, a union leader may have developed a negative attitude towards management due to the fact that some time in the past management had tried to manipulate workers by making false promises. Due to that experience, the union leader may regard anything said by the management as a means to manipulate the workers. Irrespective of the reality at a given point in time, the leader will try to interpret any action or promise of management on the basis of standards of reference (manipulation and false promises) set by himself.

6.22 CHANGE IN ATTITUDE

Though attitudes are permanent impressions, organisations are required to change them to suit the organisation. Change in attitude may be congruent or incongruent. Congruent change means changing a slightly favourable attitude to a strongly favourable attitude. Incongruent change means changing a negative attitude to positive attitude or vice-versa. For example, if a worker has a somewhat positive attitude towards work, it is possible to develop a strong positive in him. This is a congruent change. On the other hand, if a worker's negative attitude towards his work is changed to a positive attitude, it is an incongruent change.

Changing a person's attitude is not a simple task, at the same time however, it is not impossible. It is difficult because a host of factors influence it. Changing a person's attitude requires consideration of the following factors:

- (i) Characteristics of attitude.
- (ii) Personality characteristics.
- (iii) Traits of the agent, which brings about the change.
- (iv) Communication techniques.
- (v) Group affiliation.
- (vi) Situational factors

Various techniques used for changing attitudes are:

- (a) **Persuasion:** Persuasion involves continuously telling the person to change the attitude.
- (b) **Additional communication:** This is providing more communication about the attitude and its positive and negative effects.
- (c) **Behavioural discrepancy:** This is engaging in different behaviour towards a person whose attitude requires changing.
- (d) **Disapproval of incongruent attitudes:** Disapproval is shown towards attitudes that are not consistent with those of the organisation, so that person will not practice the same, in future.
- (e) **Group pressure:** This involves applying pressures on the individual through members of the group.
- (f) **Discriminating leadership styles:** The superior practices a different leadership style to discriminate between persons having different attitudes.
- (g) **Positive or negative motivation:** This involves providing incentives to positive attitudes and threats and punishments to negative attitudes.

In organisations, the management may use one or more than one technique to change the attitude of a person, depending upon what is most appropriate.

6.23 SUMMARY

Learning begins when a man takes birth on this earth and remains with him throughout his life. In profession, continuous updation of skills and relearning the newer challenges remains the key to competitiveness. Learning manifests itself by the changed behaviour of the trainees. A lot of research has been done on learning and a number of theories have been proposed to explain the same. Various theories of learning can be classified into two main categories connectionist theories and cognitist theories. The connectionist theories believe primarily in the stimulus response approach. These theories involve the operation of laws of association, such as assimilation, frequency, contiguity, intensity, duration, context, acquaintance, composition, individual differences and cause and effect. *Cognitist theories* believe that all learning leads towards a goal i.e. all human behaviour has a purpose. These theories believe in latent or collateral learning i.e. the formulation of enduring attitudes, likes and dislikes, in addition to learning in order to acquire a particular skill. Learning does not take place at a constant rate. It varies according to a number of factors, such as the difficulty of task and the ability of an individual to learn. The cumulative change of a specific criterion during a given period can be shown in the form of the learning curves. Three distinct stages can be drawn in a learning curve – the rapid initial learning, tapering of learning and fluctuating learning. Management development, accruing as a consequence of effective learning can be divided into three categories – informal managerial processes, integrated managerial processes and formal management development processes. Learning occurs even without planning and also persists amidst careful planning. A properly planned and designed training process can create the potential for a virtuous learning circle. The general principles of learning are that the trainee must be motivated to learn, the information must be meaningful, and learning must be reinforced. The material distribution of learning must be well organized and there must exist proper feedback on learning. The organizations are under tremendous pressure to perform better, which is not possible without properly trained human resources. A learning organization shall invariably comprise of the learning individuals within the organization. So, the theoretical

basis for learning must be put into practice to derive long-term benefits out of the same. Continuous learning is the answer to the changing times of today. Learning is a continuous process, which influences behaviour to a great extent. Learning is said to occur when there is a permanent change in behaviour. It is not a one-time activity, but a process. Cues give direction to a drive, which produces a response. If a response is reinforced, occurs. Otherwise, no learning takes place. An individual is likely to forget the response and search for new cues. When learning occurs, the learnt characteristics are retained in a person's memory and will be used in future behaviour.

Attitudes are permanent impressions, which are formulated based on experience. All of us develop attitudes on a variety of objects, situations and persons. Attitude formation is a psychological process of developing impressions and using them in the process of judgement. Certain important elements in attitude formation are: Affective component, cognitive component, behavioural component, valence, multiplicity, need orientation and stimuli. Attitudes are not based on a single experience, but are influenced by a number of factors, such as experience, association, interaction, society and personality. Theories of attitude formation explain the process and methodology of attitude formation. They are divided into three classes, cognitive consistency theories, functional theory and social judgement theory. Cognitive consistency theories are further classified into the balance theory, congruity theory, affective-cognitive consistency theory and cognitive dissonance theory. Festinger propounded the theory of cognitive dissonance. The theory puts forward the viewpoint that individuals rationalize their behaviour by reconciling divergent attitudes. Managers use three important strategies. They are ignorance, enhancement, and change management. The organisational implications of the cognitive dissonance theory are seen in overcoming disconfirmed expectancy and post decisional dissonance. Katz and Kelman pioneered the functional theory. The theory suggests that an individual formulates an attitude or changes his attitude for compliance, identification or internalisation. Sheriff and Hoveland formulated the social judgement theory of attitude formation and change. It stated that individuals develop attitudes based on social judgements. Attitudes developed by employees are of great relevance to managers since employee's attitudes influence organisational effectiveness. Thus, managers should make an effort to change attitudes to direct an

employees' energy in the proper direction. This is not an easy job. Strategies that deal with a change in attitudes differ with respect to the organisation, managers and situations involved. Some of the prominent strategies are persuasion, using additional communication, showing behavioural discrepancy, disapproval of incongruent attitudes, applying group pressure, using discriminating leadership styles and inducing positive and negative motivation.

6.24 KEY WORDS

- **Bio-feedback training:** Analysing electronic signal feedback to understand the internal rhythms of the body.
- **Electrical stimulation of the brain:** Analysing the stimulation of brain cells by implanting electrodes in the brain.
- **Genetic engineering:** Analysing the influence of genes on personality characteristics.

Heredity: Inherited attributes acquired at the time of conception and transmitted to the next generation.

- **Locus of control:** The belief possessed by an individual that the outcome of an action is influenced by certain factors.
- **Machiavellianism:** The degree of individual effort to gain control over organisational tasks.
- **Split brain psychology:** Compartmentalising the structure of the brain into left and right hemispheres that have different functions.
- **Halo Effect:** Using the information about a single personality trait to understand an individual.
- **Selectivity:** The process of selecting stimuli based on one's interests.
- **Sensation:** It is bodily response elicited by the response of sensory organs..

- **Cue:** A cue is an object or information also called a stimulus that draws the attention of individual.
- **Declared strategy:** The strategy in which the principles of learning organisations are adopted as part of the company ethos and which are openly manifested in all company initiatives.
- **Reinforcement:** Reinforcement is bringing strength of association between a cue and response.
- **Connectionist theories:** Connectionist theories are the class of learning theories, which believe primarily in the stimulus response approach. These theories involve the operation of laws of association, such as assimilation, frequency, contiguity, intensity, duration, context, acquaintance, composition, individual differences and cause and effect.
- **Cognitivist theories:** Cognitivist theories comprise of those theories which believe that all learning leads towards a goal i.e. all human behaviour has a purpose. These theories believe in latent or collateral learning i.e. the formulation of enduring attitudes, likes and dislikes, in addition to learning in order to acquire a particular skill.
- **Affective component:** An emotional expression towards an object, a conditioned response by association of stimuli with a reward or punishment.
- **Association:** Correlating two objects, persons or situations.
- **Attitudes:** Permanent impressions formed by individuals based on their experience.
- **Behavioural discrepancy:** Using different behaviour towards a person whose attitude requires changes.
- **Cognition:** An item of information gathered, processed and stored in the human brain.

- **Disconfirmed expectancy:** A situation represented by non realization of expectations.
- **Internalisation:** Establishing congruence of internal value system and attitudes.
- **Persuasion:** Continuous effort of telling a person to change his impression.
- **Stimuli:** An item of information received by the sensory organs and interpreted by the brain.

6.25 SELFASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Define learning. Why is it important for the individuals as well as the organizations ?

2. Briefly discuss various theories of learning.

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3. Explain various laws of learning.

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4. How can managers get employees to more readily accept working with colleagues who are different from themselves?

5. Are happy workers productive workers ?

6. What is the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism & turnover?
Which is the stronger relationship?

6. What contingency factors can improve the statistical relationship between attitudes
and behaviour?

6.26 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Differentiate between learning and social learning. Discuss the role of a trainer in each of these situations.

2. What are various principles of learning?

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-
3. Identify and discuss major job-related attitudes in organisations. How do these add up to effective job behaviours at the workplace?

4. Define attitude. How do attitudes affect behaviour at work?

5. The process of cognitive dissonance helps an individual to overcome certain inconsistencies in his decision-making process. Discuss the process by which it results in attitude change.

6.27 BOOKS RECOMMENDED

1. Training for Organizational Transformation, Part-2 (2000), Roy P. Lynton & Udai Pareek, Sage Publication, N.D.
2. Udai Pareek (1997) Training Instruments for HRD, Tata McGraw Hill, New Delhi.
3. Management Development and Training Handbook, (1975), Ed. by B. Tayler & G.L. Lippit, McGraw Hill.

BA MANAGEMENT SEMESTER-II

Course Code : BM-201

Lesson No. 7

Semester - II

Unit-III

Group Behaviour - Concept of Group Dynamics, Features of Groups

Structure

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Objectives
- 7.3 Group Behaviour
- 7.4 Concept of Group Dynamics
- 7.5 Factors affecting Group Dynamics
- 7.6 Meaning of Groups
- 7.7 Reasons for Groups
- 7.8 Functions of a Group
- 7.9 Features of a Group
- 7.10 Formation of Groups
- 7.11 Functional and dysfunctional consequences of groups in an organization
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- 7.16 Books Recommended

7.1 INTRODUCTION

People are social beings, and they form, join, and work together in groups to satisfy their needs. Groups generally help people to satisfy their need for affiliation, affection, and emotional support and help them to achieve other goals like recognition, performance, and training. An organization comprises of many groups, and all its activities are carried out through these groups. For many tasks, groups accomplish much more in less time than if the same tasks were carried out by individuals separately. Employers can also grow more quality conscious through group interaction as they learn about other people's experiences, expectations, and problems. When group members do not work like teams and ultimately have a dissatisfactory relationship with each other, it is because the members lack the necessary attitude, knowledge, and skills to work together. Therefore, it becomes imperative to understand how these groups are formed and developed and how they can be more productive and contribute to organizations.

7.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through this lesson, you should be able:

- to acquaint yourself with the nature of groups
- to identify the consequences of group formation.
- understand group behaviour
- explain and illustrate the reasons for group formation

7.3 GROUP BEHAVIOUR

Groups are composed of individuals. Hence, the group behaviour means behaviour of its members. In practice, each member of the group affects the behaviour of other members and, in turn, is also affected by them. The nature and patterns of reinforcement the members receive through their interaction with one another is also determined by the group itself. This is because the behaviour of individual members in a group becomes different than their behaviour outside the group situation. Therefore, while studying group behaviour, the factors that should be understood are group norms, group cohesion, group role, group conflict and group decision-making. Group behaviour is the attitude, feeling and thought of a collection of people that can be observed or noticed. It is guided by some rules and regulations which may or may not be so with the individual. Management must understand the group behaviour because it affects productivity, day-to-day administration, communication etc. Management cannot free itself from the influence of group. A supervisor is the link between management and group.

He communicates the decisions of top management to the employees at lower level and the feeling of the staff at lower level reaches top management through supervisor. He is at the key position. He must therefore understand group behaviour and make use of the group for achievement of organisational goals.

He makes use of their energy for attaining those tasks which were lying unattended so far. Supervisor can easily obtain the cooperation of the group leader in task accomplishment that can yield results. He can develop good relationship with group by providing good working environment. Group behaviour can be task oriented and human relations oriented.

Through group various tasks can be accomplished and better human relations can be developed. Moreno has developed a socio-metric analysis to study work group behaviour. Under this method self reports from group members are obtained indicating likes and dislikes of working with other members of group. A socio-gram is prepared on the basis of information. This analysis helps in comparing results with formal requirement. Group behaviour can be effectively utilized for implementing change

7.4 CONCEPT OF GROUP DYNAMICS

Group dynamics is the study of groups and the changes that occur in the groups in order to understand the behaviour of members of the group. The concept of a group has come from the Hawthorne movement. A group is an assembly of people for a common purpose. A very large group is known as an organisation. Thus, associations having a limited number of people can be considered as group. For example, an employee working in an organisation can be also considered as a group. However, the group is known as an organisation as it is large and permanent. After office hours he will either join his family or spend sometime associating with people outside the organisation, e.g., friends, a club, a religious association etc. All these are considered as groups. If he has any grievances regarding his work, he may want to share them with friends in the organisation who have the same problems. All of them may form a group to represent the matter to the higher level management. This is obviously a group formed with a short-lived purpose of presenting the demands to the management. Once the representation is made and the management deals with their problems, the group is likely to be disbanded. This is an example of a group in an organisation. Suppose now, that the demands were presented to the management by the leader of the group, who was the dynamic force behind the group, but who eventually left the organisation. After he left the demands of the other members were not met. If there is no other member to take the place of the one who left, they may simply reconcile themselves to their fate this means there is change in the composition of the group, which led to change in the behaviour of the other members. This is called 'dynamics'. In this example the change in understanding the behaviour of the group members can be attributed to the change in the composition of the group. Thus group dynamics is concerned with studying change in the size, composition, membership, leadership, communication, and norms of a group.

The word 'dynamics' is derived from the Greek word 'force'. Elton Mayo and Kurt Lewin have carried out extensive experimentation on group processes in organisations. An important contribution of group dynamics is the effect of 'synergy'. The group contribution is always greater than the sum of the individual's contribution. This is expressed

as one plus one is equal to three. This may be illogical in mathematical terms. But it is logical in the group effort.

There are two conceptualizations of group dynamics. One uses the organization and conduction of the group. This is known as the normative point of view. The other one gives importance to the techniques of the group process. This is known as the dynamics set of techniques. Some definitions of group dynamics, which make the understanding of the concept easier, are presented below:

According to **Keith Davis**, group dynamics is ‘the social process by which people interact face to face in small groups. It is the study of forces operating within a group’.

Kelly Joe defined group dynamics as ‘the study of group formation, structure and process of groups and their influence on members and other groups and the organization as a whole’.

Another meaningful definition of group dynamics is ‘the study of interaction of the members of a group and assessing the impact of changes in the group on the behavior of members and organizational effectiveness’.

The characteristics of group dynamics are as follows :

1. Group dynamics studies the formation of a group and the changes that take place in group size, structure and process.
2. It is the study of the interaction between group members in order to understand the changes in their behavior.
3. In the process of understanding the changes in the group, the environment of the group is studied.
4. It examines the effect of changes in the group and the behavior of members on the effectiveness of the organization.
5. Group dynamics have a synergic effect on the performance of the group.
6. It is the study relating to small groups.

7. It is concerned with time orientation.

Group dynamics determines the effectiveness of managers.

7.5 FACTORS INFLUENCING GROUP DYNAMICS

Group dynamics are influenced by a host of factors, which may or may not be within managerial control or actions. It is necessary to understand that the factors are desirable. The following factors influence the process of group dynamics in any organization:

- a. **Nature and types of groups in organizations:** The reasons for joining a group influence its dynamic process. There are a number of reasons that motivate members to join various groups in an organisation. Depending on their needs, they behave in a particular manner. Various types of groups are found in an organisation. They are classified based on the formality of structure, degree of interaction, purpose of formation, nature of membership etc. The type of group also has an impact on the process of group dynamics. A member of a finance committee is likely to be dominating as he feels that resources for allocation are at his command. A member of the shop disciplinary committee is likely to view everything cautiously, whereas a member of the board of directors is likely to behave in an authoritarian manner, as he holds decision-making power. The dynamics of groups and member behavior in an informal group is different. An informal group formed to welcome a new manager and bid farewell to the outgoing manager exists only for a short period and for a particular purpose. Here, the members will praise the outgoing and incoming manager, despite the fact that the outgoing manager may have a number of shortfalls.
- b. **Process of formation and development stages of groups:** formation of a group in an organisation is not always spontaneous. Most groups are formed in the following stages: Forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning. At each stage, the group displays certain unique characteristics, which influence the dynamics of group interaction and behaviour of members.

- c. **Nature of membership, behavioural implications and group dynamics:** Group dynamics is influenced by the nature of membership and the resultant behavioural implications.

Some factors that influence group dynamics are given below:

- **Similarity of membership:** As the famous sayings goes 'birds of a feather flock together'. Members coming from similar geographical places, caste, gender, education, and religion are likely to develop a greater interaction. This influences the changes in the group. They are more likely to continue their membership of the group. Thus, changes in membership are less and the group becomes stronger and less volatile.
- **Degree of coordination:** The degree of coordination influences the dynamics of the group. If membership develop a greater coordination, they are likely to sacrifice their personal purpose for the sake of other members in the group. This makes the group unite so that change in membership is less likely to occur, leading to less dynamics in the group.
- **Competition:** Competition in the group has two dimensions. Intra group competition results in the frequent outflow of members in the group, so change in membership is more likely to occur. This requires the groups to formulate structure and norms. Leadership also changes with the admission of new members, leading to dynamics of group interaction. On the other hand, intra group competition leads to strengthening of the group. This is because of protection of identity of the group. Hence, members become more cohesive and group dynamics are less likely to be observed.
- **Aggression:** Aggression is a personality characteristic. Groups consisting of more aggressive members have greater disagreements. This creates a lot of inconvenience to other members, so there is a likelihood of members leaving the group, resulting in greater dynamics in the group due to changes in the membership of group. Hence, members become more cohesive and group dynamics are less likely to be observed.

- **Sharing of goals:** Sharing of goals is a function of the identity of goals of the group members. Close individual and group goals will allow members to share group goals, otherwise, greater disagreement will exist regarding the goals, this leads to frequent changes in membership, and more dynamics. On the other hand if the members find the group goals to be almost the same as their individual interests, the group becomes stronger and tries to protect the members. This makes the group to be more consistent.

7.6 MEANING OF GROUPS

A great amount of our time is spent in group interactions. In our lifetime, we join a number of groups. The membership to some groups is mandatory whereas others are undertaken voluntarily. Work groups become the major channel for achieving organizational goals. Groups also satisfy personal needs for friendship, self-esteem, and identity. A group can be defined as a collection of two or more people who meet regularly and influence one another over a period of time, perceive themselves as a distinct entity distinguishable from others, share common values, and strive for common objectives. When members of a group subscribe to common values, beliefs and objectives and when there is a high level of agreement between them on these matters and how best to achieve the objectives of the group, a state of cohesiveness is said to exist. Cohesive groups emphasize the need for close cooperation in order to complete different tasks in an effective way and to create conditions in which the personal needs of members are satisfied.

7.7 REASONS FOR GROUPS

Man is a social animal and he lives in groups, he moves in groups. So, group is inherent to human beings. Following are the few reasons why group is essential:

- a. Management of modern organisations is making concerted efforts to introduce industrial democracy at workplace. They are using task force, project teams, work committees where workers get due representation. They participate very often in decision-making. This takes place in groups.

- b. The tasks in modern industries are becoming more complex, tedious and monotonous. To change this condition and make the workplace more lively, work committees and work groups and teams are formed to monitor the work and change.
- c. To make participative management more effective and relieve executives of petty responsibilities employees are given these responsibilities to carry on successfully and effectively. Groups of employees are also given joint responsibilities to carry on the work.
- d. Groups of all kinds and types are used by inviting their cooperation in all matters related to production as well as human relations to make the organisation effective.
- e. There are several works that an individual cannot perform. To complete such tasks, group efforts are required for its completion. e.g., building of a ship, making of a movie, construction of a fly-over, a complex etc. All these require coordinated and unified efforts of many individuals, i.e groups. A group can do the work which cannot be performed by an individual or beyond his capabilities.
- f. A group can make better judgment as compared to an individual.
- g. While accomplishing the task, group can use creative instinct and innovative ideas than a single individual.
- h. When group is working, all the benefits of division of labour occur.
- i. Individual in a group interact with each other and discuss work performances and suggestions to make it better and excellent.
- j. Group efforts substantially affect individual, his attitude and his behaviour.
- k. Group has the ability to satisfy the needs of its members, in a group an individual member feels and he can directly get technical and work-related assistance. They also get special support when they are emotionally depressed.

7.8 FUNCTIONS OF A GROUP

Groups tend to help individuals and organizations in a number of ways. Broadly, groups serve two kinds of functions in an organization: task and maintenance.

a) **Task Functions**

Groups carry out certain task functions to achieve organizational goals. These are:

- **Handling complex tasks:** When the task is too complex for an individual to perform alone, perhaps because it requires competence and expertise from different areas, it requires the help of a number of individuals working together.
- **Liasion or coordinating function:** Groups also serve to act as coordinating mechanism among the members of their own group as well as with groups outside.
- **Implementation of complex decisions:** Implementation of complex decisions requires the understanding and contribution of a large number of employees of the organization. A group acts as a catalyst to implement such decisions.
- **Generating new and creative ideas:** The interaction between group members results in the generation of a large number of new and creative ideas.
- **Vehicle for training new employees:** In a group context, it becomes easier for the new member to get socialized and understanding the norms of the group and the organization. As jobs in organizations have become complex and interdependent, the role of groups cannot be underestimated.

b) **Maintenance Functions**

These functions are performed to take care of the personal needs and expectations of the individual members. They include:

- **Fulfilling the need for social interaction:** Individuals have an innate need for care, friendship, affiliation, and support. Groups help them fulfill these needs.
- **Providing a sense of identity and self-esteem:** If the group that one belongs to in an organization has a high status, the individual members derive a sense of identity and self-esteem from their membership.
- **Solving personal problems:** Group provide emotional support and help individuals confront personal problems and crisis.
- **Reducing anxiety and uncertainty:** Groups help people to reduce their anxiety and uncertainty by allowing individuals to share and discuss their concerns with other members.

7.9 FEATURES OF GROUP/NATURE OF GROUPS

Creating an organizational structure can result in such characteristics as specified relationships among subordinates, superiors and peers; leaders assigned to positions; standards of performance; a status rank order according to the positions that individuals are filling; and group politics. Work groups also have characteristics similar to those of other organisations, including leaders, standards of conduct, reward and sanction mechanisms, and political maneuvering. These and other characteristics of groups and work groups are discussed below.

a) **The Group Leader**

As a group attempts to complete some objective and the individual members begin to know one another, the members begin to fill one or more of the many group roles. One of the most important roles is that of the group leader. The leader emerges from within an informal group and is accepted by the group members. In the formal group, however, the leader is appointed.

Leaders in formal groups are followed and obeyed because employees perceive them as possessing the power and influence to reward them or punish them if they

do not comply with requests. The formal leaders possess the power to regulate the formal towards of the work group members.

The informal leader emerges from within the group and serves a number of functions. First, any group of individuals without a plan or some coordination becomes an ineffective unit. Its members are not directed toward the accomplishment of goals, and this can lead to a breakdown in group effectiveness. The leader initiates action and provides direction. If there are differences of opinion on a group-related matter, the leader attempts to settle the differences and to move the group toward accomplishing its goals.

Second, some individual must communicate the group's beliefs about policies, the job, the organisation, the supervision, and other related matters to non-members. The non-members could include members of other groups, supervisory personnel, and the union. Infact, the group leader communicates the values of the group.

The characteristics of informal group leaders can be summarized as follows:

1. The leadership role is filled by an individual who possesses the attributes that members perceive as being critical for satisfying their needs.
2. The leader embodies the values of the group and is able to perceive those values, organize them into an intelligible philosophy, and verbalise them to non-members.
3. The leader is able to receive and interpret communication relevant to the group and to effectively communicate important information to group members.

In most groups, leaders perform two specific roles. A leader who performs the task role typically concentrates on accomplishing the desired goals, such as providing a number of units within quality and cost standards or delivering a product to a customer by 5 P.M. or setting up a grievance meeting time and place with management. The task role requires the leader to accomplish something specific of importance to the membership.

Leaders of groups also perform a supportive or maintenance role, which involves personally helping members, listening to their problems, and encouraging group cohesiveness. While the task role is job-oriented, the supportive role is people-oriented. Both orientations are important for accomplishing group performance and satisfaction.

In some groups, one person performs both roles. In other groups, two individuals perform the roles.

b) Group Status

Status is the rank, respect, or social position that an individual has in a group. Managers have relative status that depends upon their positions in the hierarchy; that is, the top managers of the firm have more status than middle managers, and the middle managers have more status than lower-level managers. The top-level positions have more authority, responsibility, power, and influence-and thus are accorded more status.

A similar status system develops in groups. For many different reasons, members are accorded status by their groups. Individuals in leadership roles possess status because of their roles. Consequently, they are ranked highly in the group-status hierarchy.

Other factors influence the status systems of groups. Many groups consider the seniority is often thought of as being “organizationally intelligent”, which means that he/she knows how to adapt to the demands of supervisors, subordinates, or peers. This ability to adjust is an important status factor with group members.

The skill of an individual in performing a job is another factor related to status. An individual with expertise in the technical aspects of the job is given a high status ranking in some groups. This type of status does not mean that the individual actually utilizes the skill to perform more effectively, but simply that the group members admire this skill.

c) **Group Norms and Compliance**

A group norm is an implicit or explicit agreement among the group members as to how they should behave. The more a person complies with norms, the more the person accepts the group's standards of behaviour.

Work groups can utilize norms to bring about acceptable job performance. The following are examples of production-related norms:

1. Disagree with management in its effort to change the wage structure;
2. Present a united front to resist the directives of the new college graduate assigned to the group's work area;
3. Don't produce above the group leader's level of production;
4. Help members of the group to achieve an acceptable production level if they are having difficulty and if you have time; and
5. Don't allow the union steward to convince you to vote for his favorite union presidential candidate in the upcoming election.

Three specific social processes bring about compliance with group norms, namely, group pressure, group review and enforcement and personalization of the norms:

- **Group Pressure**

The pressure to adhere to a specific group norm can bring conformity to the behaviour of the group's membership. Conformity occurs when a person complies with a group's wishes because of the pressure it applies or fear of future group pressure. Complying to group pressure does not mean the person agrees with the group's wishes.

- **Group Review and Enforcement**

If group members, either veterans or newcomers, are not complying with generally accepted norms, a number of different approaches may be employed. One soft approach is a discussion between respected leaders and the non-conformists. If

discussion does not prove effective, more rigorous corrective action is used, such as private and public scolding by the members. The ultimate enforcement is to ostracise the deviating members.

- **Personalisation of Norms**

Behavioural patterns are influenced significantly by values. Values, in turn, are influenced by the events occurring around individuals; values are learned and become personalized. For example, the norm of a work group may be to treat college graduates and persons shod is not got to college equally. This norm may be accepted by a group member as morally and ethically correct. Prior to group affiliation, the member may have displayed little interest in whether art individual attended college. However, based on a feeling of fairness, the member personalizes this group-learned norm, and it becomes a standard of her behaviour.

The group norms can either be positive or negative as far as a manager is concerned. However, both types of norms typically are encountered when compliance is the issue of concern

- d) **Group Cohesiveness**

Cohesiveness refers to the extent that group members are attracted to each other and to the group values. It is the pressure on the individual member to remain active in the group and to resist leaving it. All characteristics of groups are influenced in some degree by group cohesiveness.

For example, the greater the attraction within the group, the more likely its members will adhere closely to a group norm such as a production level.

7.10 FORMATION OF GROUPS

By going to work for an organisation, individuals are actually joining a group. Once individuals become members of the organisation, they are placed in, or volunteer for, various group memberships. They also join or create informal groups, because of common interests and characteristics. These and other reasons for group formation suggest

that common location and attitudes strongly influence people to join formal groups and join or establish informal groups.

a) Location

When people are in close proximity, they tend to interact and communicate. Some degree of interaction and communication is necessary for group formation, particularly informal groups.

In organisations, a typical practice is to position workers with similar occupations together. For example, in the construction of a home, the bricklayers perform their jobs side by side. The same situation exists in offices where clerks or secretaries are located next to one another.

b) Economic Reasons

In some cases, work groups form because individuals believe that they can gain economic benefits on their jobs if they band together. For example, individuals working at different stations on an assembly line may be paid on a group-incentive basis. Whatever the particular group produces determines the wages of each member. Since all the workers want to increase their wages, they will interact and communicate with one another. By working as a group instead of as individuals, they may actually obtain higher economic benefits.

Another example of how the economic motive affects the formation of informal work groups is a non-union organisation formed by workers to bring pressure on management for more economic benefits. The group members have a common interest i.e., increased economic benefits, which leads to group affiliation.

c) Socio-psychological Reasons

Workers in organisations are also motivated to form work groups so that needs other than economic can be more satisfied. The safety, social, esteem, and self-actualisation needs signed out by Maslow can be satisfied to some degree by work groups.

There are a number of theories regarding formation of groups, which provide reasons for formation of groups in organisations. Some of the reasons for formation of groups are given below:

- (i) **Goal realisation:** Group assist members in the realization of goals. Groups pool resources and provide support for members. They provide knowledge, strength, experience, and power for the realization of goals. Groups also help members in problem solving.
- (ii) **Authority and Power:** Groups provide an opportunity to use authority and power. An individual's strength is enhanced in a group, as one can put forth demands and force the management to accept them. Hence, groups are regarded as power centres in organisations. Groups use authority and power against management oppression.
- (iii) **Satisfaction of social and security needs:** A group is a source for understanding, companionship, interaction and creating social relationships. Groups create an environment in which members are free to discuss their problems and find solutions. Freindship and warm relationships are promoted. Group fulfill an individual's inherent desire for socializing, affiliation and relationships with others, and acceptance by others.
- (iv) **Satisfaction of ego, self-esteem, and self-actualisation needs:** Members are happy and their ego is boosted when other members of the group recognize their capacities, skills, intelligence and personality. Apart from this, groups allow members to become 'what they are capable of becoming.' Thus, individuals satisfy their self-acutalisation needs. Therefore, groups satisfy the higher order needs of self-ego, esteem and actualization. **Abraham Maslow** identified these concepts as part of his hierarchy of needs.
- (v) **Identity:** One of the most essential desires of an individual is recognition and identity as human being. A group recognizes the individuals as members. It also helps individuals to identify themselves with the group. This identity gives them security and esteem.

- (vi) **Esprit de corps:** As the saying goes ‘United we stand and divided we fall.’ Groups help individuals to unite in order to solve many organizational problems. They help in protecting individual interests in the work place. Even **Henry Fayol** used this concept in his 14 principles of management.
- (vii) **Safety value:** Groups act as a safety value to release daily tensions, worries and stress. For instance, if an employee has problems with the superior, he can share his experience with other members of the group, and release any tension he may be feeling.

Groups satisfy a variety of other needs. Thus, these needs can also promote formation of groups. They are:

- a) Groups assist members in meeting objectives.
- b) They work as a source of information.
- c) They facilitate increasing economic benefits.
- d) Groups provide relief from psychological fatigue.
- e) They help in forming the right perceptions and attitudes.
- f) Groups provide an opportunity for influence and creativity of members.
- g) They help in perpetuation of cultural values.
- h) Groups facilitate learning.
- i) Groups provide individuals with an opportunity for exchange of ideas, thoughts, experiences and knowledge.

7.11 FUNCTIONAL AND DYSFUNCTIONAL CONSEQUENCES OF GROUPS IN AN ORGANIZATION

Groups benefit an organization in a variety of ways. Organizations encourage group formation as groups offer the following advantages:

- a) **Help the socialization process:** Socialisation is the process of educating and counseling new recruits about the rules, regulations, organizational values, behavior and all other aspects of the organization. Groups educate new recruits by teaching them the work norms, standards of behavior, values, organizational culture, etc., to enable them to be aware of their role and responsibilities. They help adapt behavior to suit demands.
- b) **Training on the job:** Groups teach the new incumbents the ways and means of coping with the job. This facilitates 'on the job training'.
- c) **Assist in decision-making:** Groups help in accumulating greater knowledge, by using varied approaches to a problem, analyzing more information and better judgment. This leads to effective, qualitative and acceptable decisions.

From the above it is clear that existence of groups is inevitable and necessary. Groups serve a number of functions, both to individual members and the organization. Hence, effective managers learn to use groups positively for their survival. However, groups have a number of dysfunctional consequences, as explained below:

- a) **Interdependence:** Groups compel members to conform to norms. Serious consequences may result if any member deviates from the norms. Therefore, individual members lose their independence, resulting in greater interdependence and loss of creativity and innovative spirit.
- b) **Inefficiency:** A group can support complacent members and managers. However, more the group wants them to improve their performance; members may become inefficient and lazy under the umbrella of a group.
- c) **Obstruction to organizational goals:** Powerful groups in organizations can set and enforce norms against those of the organization. They may behave in this way to solve certain problems of the group. However, more powerful groups may threaten the organisation by working against its goals for the selfish interest of a few members.

- d) **Wastage of time:** As managers have little control over a group, the members often engage in gossip and unproductive discussions. This not only hinders their own work, but also affects others in the organisation.

Managers can effectively manage these dysfunctional aspects.

7.12 SUMMARY

Concept of group came in existence along with division of work. The group is collection of two or more individuals working for a common goal and are inter dependent. To achieve organizational objective the group has to accomplish its (group) objective so that the 'whole' is achieved. The same can be achieved by co-ordinating group activities. It is difficult for a manager to understand each individual because of different behavioural patterns of the members. Concept of Group dynamics was first introduced by Kurt Lewin in 1930s. There are two types of groups. These are formal group of which command group, task group and committee form the part. The second type of group is informal group. This contains interest group, clique and psychological group. There are various theories of group behaviour.

Group dynamics refer to the change in group membership and interaction of groups members. It is the study of the dynamics of groups in organisations. The study of group dynamics is important because it influences the behaviour of employees in organisations. **Kurt Lewin** is known as the father of the group dynamics movement. A numbers of factors influence group dynamics in organisations, namely, the nature and types of groups in organisations, the process of formulation and development stages of groups, and the nature of membership and behavioural implications and group dynamics. A group can be defined as a collection of two or more people who meet regularly and influence one another over a period, perceive themselves as a distinct entity distinguishable from others, share common values, and strive for common objectives. In most organizations, several different types of groups are present. The major classification is in the form of formal groups and informal groups. Formal groups have been further classified into task groups and command groups. Informal groups have been divided into friendship groups and interest groups. Groups tend to help individuals and organizations in a number of ways. Broadly, groups

serve two kinds of functions in an organization, task and maintenance functions. Group creates social facilitation for members to perform tasks. Group tasks determine the dynamics of group interaction. The nature of group tasks that have a bearing on group dynamics are information sharing, interdependence, routine, standardised, complex and tasks with greater degree of uncertainty.

7.13 KEYWORDS

- **Cohorts:** Group members who hold common attributes.
- **Group dynamics:** The study of groups and the changes that occur therein.
- **Group Synergy:** The contribution of the group is always greater than the sum of individual contributions.

7.14 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. You have just taken charge as a new manager of an existing work group. What would you do or how would you operate in the group to understand its dynamics and assess its effectiveness.

2. Why people join group. Explain.

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3. Explain the concept of group.

7.15 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Group dynamics are influenced by a host of factors, which may or may not be within managerial control or actions. Do you agree? Explain with reasons in support of your answer.

2. Group dynamics have a synergic effect on the performance of the group. Explain.

3. Think about one of the groups formed for any of your class projects and describe how, and the extent to which, the task and maintenance roles were performed.

4. What would you do in your capacity as the group leader to ease the entry of a new member to the group?

7.16 BOOKS RECOMMENDED

1. Nirmal Singh, 2003, Organizational Behaviour – Concepts, Theory and Practices, Deep and Deep Publications Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.
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BA MANAGEMENT SEMESTER-II

Course Code : BM-201

Lesson No. 8

Semester - II

Unit-III

Types of Group Behaviour : Formal and Informal Group Behaviour, Stages of Group Development

Structure

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Objectives
- 8.3 Types of Groups
- 8.4 Open and Closed Groups- Comparison
- 8.5 Formal and Informal Groups- Comparison
- 8.6 Models/Stages of Group Development
- 8.7 Groups versus the Individual
- 8.8 Summary
- 8.9 Keywords
- 8.10 Self-Assessment Questions
- 8.11 Lesson End Exercise
- 8.12 Books Recommended

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Individuals form groups. They live in groups. They move in groups. They work in groups. Groups are important. They influence work and work behaviour. They cannot be ignored. They exert significant influence on the organisation. They are inseparable from organisation. They are useful for the organisation. They form foundation of human resources. The study of group behaviour is important. Individual and group behaviour differs from each other. Group behaviour affects productivity. The importance of group behaviour has been realized from time to time. Elton Mayo and his associates way back in 1920 conducted the famous Hawthorne experiments and came to know that the group behaviour have major impact on productivity.

Human resources comprise individuals and individuals move in groups. Every manager must possess the knowledge of group behaviour along with individual behaviour. He must understand group psychology. He should understand individual behaviour in the context of group behaviour. Individual behaviour is influenced by the group behaviour. An individual's work, job satisfaction and effective performance is influenced by the group in which he moves. At lower level of the organisation it is the small groups of employees work as a team. They have the responsibility to finish a task assigned to them within a stipulated period of time. If they come across a problem they tackle it by themselves. They get guidance from senior fellow workers in solving the problem and accomplishing it. It is needless to say that groups are important in employee's life. They spend increasing proportion of time with the group at workplace.

M.E. Shaw defined a group "as two or more people who interact and influence one another." Viewers in a theatre, passengers in a train are not a group unless they interact for long and exert some influence on each other. Such people's gatherings are referred to as collection.

They interact at a very low level nor they get influenced with each other but enjoy being in collection. The collection of people may get-converted into a group temporarily if they are caught up in a dangerous situation like fire, robbery etc. They will come over a problem fighting as a group unitedly.

8.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through this lesson, you should be able to:

- classify the various types of group;
- discuss the concept and stages of group development;
- identify the distinction between various types of groups.

8.3 TYPES OF GROUP BEHAVIOUR/ GROUPS

Groups can be classified in many different ways on various basis. Following are the various types of groups:

1. Formal group

Formal group is a part of organisation structure to accomplish organizational tasks. A work group in a plant is the example of formal group they are bound by hierarchical authority in the organisation. They have to follow rules, regulation and policy of the organisation. These groups are required by the system. The organisation provides a system of rules and regulation for attaining organizational objectives. According to A.L. Stencombe, “a formal group is said to be any social arrangement in which the activities of some people are planned by others to achieve the common purpose”. Formal groups help in achieving the goal without any difficulty. They facilitate coordination of activities and help in forming logical relationship among people and positions. They create group unity.

Leonard R. Sayles has sub-divided formal group into command group and task group.

a) Command group

Command group consists of subordinates who are directly responsible to a supervisor. Command group are structured by the organisation. The subordinate working in enforcement department of a town planning authority are reporting to and are directly responsible to the enforcement officer.

This group is responsible for removal of encroachment on public land. There is a specific department established for the purpose and is busy throughout with its activities.

b) Task group

Task group is formed to complete a project. This type of group is also called task force. The job of the group is to complete the task within the allotted time period. If one task is completed, they are allotted new task to work with. Projects teams, quality circles and audit teams are the examples of task group.

2. Informal group

Informal groups exist within the formal organisations and arise because of individual's social needs and desire to develop and maintain relations with people. Working at a plant or office leads to formation of informal groups. They work together and this leads to their interaction. Through interaction groups are formed. These groups are spontaneous and emotional. **Keith Davis** has defined informal groups as, "the network of persons and social relations which is not established or required in formal organisations." These are the groups formed by the employees themselves at the workplace while working together. The foundation has not taken any active interest in their formation. According to **M.Dalton**, "informal groups are cliques." Cliques are a group of people of different organisation levels coming together with a common interest. Cliques are horizontal, vertical and random. Horizontal cliques comprises of people from same rank and work place. Vertical cliques consist of people of different organisational levels. Random cliques are made up of employees from both horizontal and vertical lines coming together with a common interest.

Informal groups are very effective and powerful. Some managers view them harmful and disruptive to the interest of the organisation. They suspect their integrity and consider as a virtual threat. Some managers seek their help in getting the task completed quickly. They do not consider them as threat. The strength of these

informal groups can be utilised for accomplishment of organisational objectives. Informal groups are of following types:

a) **Interest group**

A group of employees coming together for attaining a common purpose. Employees coming together for payment of bonus, increase in salary, medical benefits and other facilities are an example of interest groups.

b) **Membership group**

A group of persons belonging to same profession knowing each other e.g. teachers of the same faculty in the University.

c) **Friendship group**

A group outside the plant or office, having similar views, tastes, opinion, belonging to same age group. They form clubs and associations based on the friendship.

d) **Reference group**

It is a primary group where people shape their ideas, beliefs, values etc. They want support from the groups. Family is an important reference group.

3. **Leonard Sayles' Classification of Groups**

Apart from formal and informal groups, a number of other groups are found in organisations. Leonard Sayles' classification of groups is described below:

a) **Apathetic Groups**

Apathetic groups are developed at the operational level of an organisation. It is a group of employees possessing lower level skills and receiving low monetary rewards. People belonging to these groups lack unity and power. They are discontented with their position.

b) Erratic Groups

An erratic group is formed by the employees possessing relatively higher skills, who work together in closely related jobs. Hence, members of these groups display a relatively high degree of unity among themselves. As such, behaviour of the members with the management is often found to be erratic or unpredictable.

c) Strategic Groups

Employees possessing high levels of skills are formed into strategic groups. They have a high degree of unity. The jobs of strategic group members are highly interdependent and occupy a vital place in the functioning of an organisation.

d) Conservative Groups

A conservative group consists of top management. For example, the Board of Directors. They are highly skilled, self confident and independent and hold vital jobs such as policymaking, decision-making etc. Such groups are formed to bring about changes in the environment. They take vital decisions for the organization's growth and development.

4. Other classification:

Some other groups found in an organisation are described below:

a) Open and Closed Groups

An open group is a dynamic group formed at a particular time to achieve specific objectives, whereas, a closed group consists of employees who are working on a more permanent basis. Both open and closed groups exist in organisations. Managers need to evaluate them effectively, based on the goals pursued by them, to enhance organizational performance.

b) **Primary Group and Secondary Group**

A primary group is a small group developed by face-to-face interaction and cooperation of members. Members develop a close interaction, hence they satisfy the social and affiliation needs of individuals.

5. **On the basis of purpose:**

Again, according to purposes groups can be classified into following:

a) **Vocational groups**

Association of the same vocation, e.g. class I officers association, teachers' association etc.

b) **Instructional groups**

The people who have enrolled themselves for the same course, e.g. students doing M.Tech in the same subject.

c) **Government association**

Association formed for the governing, e.g. municipal council, management board.

d) **Religious group**

People belonging to same religion coming together and forming a group.

e) **Recreational group**

Group formed with a purpose of recreation, e.g. football club, cricket club etc.

8.4 OPEN & CLOSED GROUPS - COMPARISON

The distinctions between open and closed groups are presented in below Table:

Group Characteristics	Open Group	Closed Group
Dynamic group membership	Membership, authority, power and status is subject to constant change.	Stability of membership, constant power and status relationships.
Extended activities	Activities are dynamic, creative and challenging. This makes the group innovative	Stability and narrow frame of activities in a closed group result in hesitation to take up challenges
Time perspective	Ever changing membership in an open group permits the group to take an interest in current perspectives to satisfy their objectives. The welfare of the group is overlooked in the long run.	Stability enables the group to have long-term plans, which leads to development of the group in the future.
Equilibrium	Open groups are frequently disrupted due to heterogeneous membership. This cause imbalance resulting in poor group performance.	Closed groups are less erratic and more stable. They reach a state of equilibrium as quickly as possible. This results in favourable group performance due to fast adaption to changes.

8.5 FORMAL AND INFORMAL GROUPS – COMPARISON

The distinctions between formal and informal groups are presented in below Table:

Distinctions	Formal Group	Informal Group
1. Nature	It is deliberately created and consciously planned.	It is natural and arises spontaneously.
2. Authority	The authority, responsibility and accountability are clearly defined.	The members give authority. It is not clearly defined.
3. Rules	Rules are defined by the structure. They are clearly defined and strictly observed.	Rules in informal groups are related to expected behaviour of members. They are called norms.
4. Description	Formal groups are shown in the organizational charts.	Informal groups are not depicted in the chart.
5. Permanency	It is relatively permanent and stable.	It is temporary and wrapped up after the purpose is achieved.
6. Goals	Goals of a formal group are well defined by the formal organisation.	Goals of informal groups are defined by the members' desires and needs.
7. Size	They are usually larger than informal groups.	Normally smaller than formal groups.
8. Leadership	The leadership is formal and appointed by the organisation. The leader's role is clearly defined.	The leadership is situational. The members of the group support the leaders.
9. Communication	Communication in these groups is formal and follows the chain of command.	Command is unstructured and is called a grapevine.
10. Motivation	The rewards are monetary. They are provided by the formal organisation.	The rewards are non-monetary. Praise, recognition and appraisal are the rewards in informal groups.

8.6 MODELS/STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Development of a group is not always spontaneous. Groups are formed out of the members to come together and share common goals. Groups are developed due to interaction among members. It follows a model or process.

Groups are formed and developed through several stages. Once formed, working relationships develop within groups, some groups grow and mature, and others become stagnant. Different models of group development have been suggested. A few of these are discussed below:

a) **Tuckman's Model of Group Development**

A permanent group in its evolution has to pass through five distinct stages. Each of these stages is identified with dominant task-related and maintenance issues. These phases are:

1. **Forming**: The first stage in group formation is the inclusion of members in a group for a definite objective. The primary consideration during this stage is to focus on the task in hand and the utilization of resources to complete it. Members are just trying to know each other, to develop rapport. Most people are very cautious at this stage and each one is looking for guidance about how to go ahead. The search for the power-centre or leader also may begin at this stage.
2. **Storming**: As members receive clarity about the techniques of doing the job, there may be disagreements about the process involved, the way resources are being used, and their own lack of skills and abilities to do the job. Among the members themselves, there may be personality clashes, ego hassles, friction in the interpersonal relationship, inability to accept the leader's power, thereby creating some degree of dissonance among the group members. Members try to assert their own personal needs and requirements instead of accepting group influence.

3. **Norming:** As the differences begin to resolve, members develop mutual understanding and clarity with respect to the task in hand. There is an open invitation to exchange feelings and ideas which results in the acceptance of each other's opinions. Cohesion also develops at the social level. Members develop their own set of formal and informal norms (through consensus) and try to abide by these norms. There is an emphasis on harmony and mutual support. They start identifying with their group and make a conscious effort to avoid or handle conflict-producing situations.
4. **Performing:** As members develop norms for work and interpersonal relationship, solutions to the problems begin to emerge and constructive attempts are made to complete the job. Members relate with each other while performing the tasks with flexibility. Since interpersonal differences have been handled well, the energy of the group gets channelized in a positive direction, leading to effective and efficient performance.
5. **Adjourning:** This stage is more apparent in temporary groups, where the members have to abandon their membership in the group once the tasks have been completed. This stage creates a lot of mixed feelings in terms of excitement for being able to complete the task effectively and melancholy for terminating the existence of membership in the group.

Table showing distinct characteristics among various stages of group development

Distinctions	Forming	Storming	Norming	Performing	Adjourning
Nature	Assembly of member	Awareness of existence	Strengthen the structure	Performance and coordination	Disbanding
Structure	Vague purpose and structure	Development of formal structure	Strengthening of structure	Functional and facilitated structure	Wrapping up
Member behaviour	Belongingness and sacrifice	Intra group conflict	Commonly agreed behaviour	Respect values	Motivated and energetic
Goals	Emergence of common goals	Clarity of goals and norms	Realisation of goals	Aim at final results	Completion of goals
Member interaction	Common interest based interaction	Coordination and cooperation	Cohesive and protection of identity	Conflict resolution	Evaluative

b) **Woodcock Model of Group Development**

A slightly different four-stage model has been given by Woodcock (1979). The stages in Woodcock's model are as follows:

1. **Stage of lack of clarity:** This is a stage characterized by unnecessary level of authoritarian management and bureaucratic control. The objectives of the group are not very clear, and there is very low level of involvement of members in the activities of the group. There is very little amount of listening, feelings are not considered, and there are attempts to cover up the weakness.
2. **Stage of experimentation:** During this stage, the group plans to experiment and go ahead with risky ventures and considers wider options. People are allowed to express their personal feelings, with more concern and listening.
3. **Stage of establishment of rules:** In continuing with the second stage, the members become more methodical with agreed-upon procedures. Ground rules are established which are applicable to everyone.
4. **Stage of development:** The principles of stages 2 and 3 are continued. There is now in-built flexibility in the system and creative use of the energy of members. There is appropriate leadership, and the group is sensitive to the needs and requirements of the members. Principles are religiously followed, and this leads to the development of group activities.

c) **Punctuated Equilibrium Model**

Another approach to group development has been given by Romanelli and Tushman. This model is characterized by the following stages:

1. **Stage of activity:** At this stage, there is a flurry of activity with the beginning of deliberations. There is an attempt to change old practices and introduce new ones.

2. **Stage of inertia:** The first stage is followed by a substantial period of inertia as the group is trying to put into action the plans that were made in the earlier stage.
3. **Stage of termination:** The last stage of development is aimed at finishing the tasks assigned, and this stage is again full of activities but in a defined direction.

This model combines the stages of forming and norming of Tuckman's model. Then there is a stage of low performance followed by storming leading to high performance. The group formation finally ends at adjournment.

8.7 GROUPS VERSUS THE INDIVIDUAL

Decision-making groups may be widely used in organizations, but are group decisions preferable to those made by an individual alone? The answer depends on a number of factors. Let's begin by looking at the strengths and weaknesses of group decision making.

- a. **Strengths of Group Decision Making** Groups generate *more complete information and knowledge*. By aggregating the resources of several individuals, groups bring more input as well as heterogeneity into the decision process. They offer *increased diversity of views*. This opens up the opportunity to consider more approaches and alternatives. Finally, groups lead to increased *acceptance of a solution*. Group members who participated in making a decision are more likely to enthusiastically support and encourage others to accept it.
- b. **Weaknesses of Group Decision Making** Group decisions are time consuming because groups typically take more time to reach a solution. There are *conformity pressures*. The desire by group members to be accepted and considered an asset to the group can squash any overt disagreement. Group discussion can be *dominated by one or a few members*. If they're low- and medium-ability members, the group's overall

effectiveness will suffer. Finally, group decisions suffer from *ambiguous responsibility*. In an individual decision, it's clear who is accountable for the final outcome. In a group decision, the responsibility of any single member is diluted.

- c. **Effectiveness and Efficiency** Whether groups are more effective than individuals depends on how you define effectiveness. Group decisions are generally more *accurate* than the decisions of the average individual in a group, but less accurate than the judgments of the most accurate. 69 In terms of *speed*, individuals are superior. If *creativity* is important, groups tend to be more effective. And if effectiveness means the degree of *acceptance* the final solution achieves, the nod again goes to the group.

But we cannot consider effectiveness without also assessing efficiency. With few exceptions, group decision making consumes more work hours than an individual tackling the same problem alone. The exceptions tend to be the instances in which, to achieve comparable quantities of diverse input, the single decision maker must spend a great deal of time reviewing files and talking to other people. In deciding whether to use groups, then, managers must assess whether increases in effectiveness are more than enough to offset the reductions in efficiency.

8.8 SUMMARY

A group can be defined as a collection of two or more people who meet regularly and influence one another over a period, perceive themselves as a distinct entity distinguishable from others, share common values, and strive for common objectives. In most organizations, several different types of groups are present. The major classification is in the form of formal groups and informal groups. Formal groups have been further classified into task groups and command groups. Informal groups have been divided into friendship groups and interest groups. Groups tend to help individuals and organizations in a number of ways. Broadly, groups serve two kinds of functions in an organization, task and maintenance functions. Group creates social facilitation for members to perform tasks.

Group tasks determine the dynamics of group interaction. The nature of group tasks that have a bearing on group dynamics are information sharing, interdependence, routine, standardised, complex and tasks with greater degree of uncertainty.

Groups are formed and developed through several stages. Some groups grow and mature, and others become stagnant. Different models of group development have been suggested. Some of the examples include the Tuckman's model of group development consisting of five stages: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. Another model is the Woodcock model of group development, which includes the stage of lack of clarity, the stage of experimentation, the stage of establishment of rules, and the stage of development. The third model is the Punctuated Equilibrium model comprising of the stage of activity, the stage of inertia and the stage of termination.

After the group has passed through the development process, it is assumed that the appropriate behaviours for individual members have been established and these result in creating a definite structure for the group with certain important processes that also characterize the "dynamics" within groups. Some of these processes are group norms, group roles, and group cohesiveness. Group norms are established over time for behaviours that have a significant impact on a group, like facilitating its survival, increasing predictability of member behaviours, ensuring member satisfaction, expressing values important to the group's identity, and preventing embarrassing interpersonal problems. Norms have been classified in a number of ways. The first classification is in terms of formal norms and informal norms. Group roles are defined as a set of recurring behaviour that is expected from a member by others in a group. Some roles performed by a group member are functional as they guide and propel the group towards achieving their objectives. Some roles, which are derived out of personal needs of individuals, are dysfunctional in nature and block the group from achieving its efficiency and effectiveness.

8.9 KEY WORDS

- **Cohorts:** Group members who hold common attributes.
- **Group dynamics:** The study of groups and the changes that occur therein.
- **Group Synergy:** The contribution of the group is always greater than the sum of individual contributions.
- **Command group:** It is permanent group in the organization dictated by the structure of the organization.
- **Contact:** A good manager attempts to create contact among the team members.
- **Enacted role:** This is a representation of how a person actually behaves in a given situation.
- **Formal group:** A formal group is established by the management and is expected to perform well-defined tasks to achieve organizational objectives.
- **Friendship group:** Friendship groups are based on common characteristics such as age, common values, and college affiliations, etc.
- **Informal group:** Informal groups grow out of the need for friendship, affiliation, companionship, and communication between people.
- **Maintenance functions:** These functions are performed to take care of the personal needs and expectations of the individual members.
- **Super-ordinate goals:** This relates to the use of super-ordinate goals which are the goals larger than the self.
- **Task group:** A temporary formal group established to solve specific issues.

- **Informal norms:** Informal norms develop as a result of members' own behaviours and experiences, which help or hinder their performance and satisfaction.
- **Norms:** Norms are defined as a set of expectations about the appropriate individual and group behaviour commonly agreed on by members.
- **Ingroup favoritism :** Perspective in which we see members of our ingroup as better than other people, and people not in our group as all the same.

8.10 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Identify and distinguish between the various stages of development process of Tuckman's Model of Group Development.

2. It is said that very few groups reach the fourth stage of development, i.e., the performing stage. How would you explain this?

3. Write notes on the following:

- a) Formal and Informal groups
- b) Command groups
- c) Reference groups
- d) Task group

8.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

1 Describe the norms in any of your class project groups in which you have been a member explaining how they have been identified.

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- 2 Workers in organisations are also motivated to form work groups so that needs other than economic can be more satisfied. What are these non-economic needs? Explain.
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