

ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

COURSE OUTLINE

Module 1

The meaning of OB, why study organizational behavior, Organizational behavior models, Benefits of studying OB, Inter- disciplinary subject.

Module 2

Personality, Shaping of personality, Determinants of personality, Types of personalities,

Personality and work, Self-concept, self-esteem and self-efficiency, Perception, perceptual process, managing the perceptual process;

Learning process, Reward systems and behavioral management, Theoretical process of learning, Principles of learning, Reward and punishment, Organizational reward system

Attitude formation, Functions, Change of attitude, Types of attitudes, Values

Module 3

Management of motivation: Motivation in work settings, Managerial issues and challenges. Theories, Maslow's need theory, McGregor theory XY, Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene theory, Vroom's Valence and Instrumentality Team building and group dynamics, Working teams and team effectiveness, Intra team dynamics, Influence of the group on individual, Group decision making, Inter group relations, Collaboration and conflict, Conflict management Dynamics of managerial leadership, What is leadership, Transition in leadership theories, Leadership theories, Power and politics, Leadership and managerial change.

Module 4

Conflict, Intra, interpersonal, intergroup conflicts and their resolution, Transactional analysis, Johari window

Module 5

Culture, Types of culture in the organization, Culture, Discipline, Organizational effectiveness

Module 6

Change and organizational development, meaning of change, Stages of change, why do people resist change, overcoming resistance to change, Meaning of OD and methods of OD

Essential Readings

1. Fred Luthans, —Organizational Behavior, 12th Edition, McGraw Hill International Edition

2. Stephen P. Robbins, —Organizational Behavior, 12th Edition, Prentice Hall
3. Aswathappa K, —Organizational Behavior (Text, Cases and Games), Himalaya

Publications

References

1. Gregory Moorhead & Ricky W. Griffin, —Organizational Behavior, Managing people and organizations, 3rd edition, Jaico
2. Jerald Greenberg, —Behavior in Organizations, Tenth edition, Prentice Hall
3. Robert Krietner & Angelo Kinicki, —Organizational Behavior, Eighth edition, Tata McGraw Hill.
4. John M Ivancevich, Robert Konopaske, Michael T Matteson, —Organizational Behavior and Management, 7th edition, Tata McGraw Hill.
5. PG Aquinas, —Organizational Behavior: concepts, realities, application and challenges, First edition, Excel.
6. Jason A. Colquitt, Jeffery A. LePine & Michael J Wesson, —Organizational Behavior, McGraw Hill.
7. Udai Pareek, —Organizational Behavior, Oxford University Press

Organisational behaviour - Module wise - Important Questions

Module 1	Models of OB
Module 2	Theories of – Personality, Learning / Attitude Formation
Module 3	Theories of – Motivation, Leadership Stages in the development/Formation of team/ group
Module 4	Types of Conflicts /Transactional Analysis / Johari Window
Module 5	Types of Culture / Approaches of Culture
Module 6	Process of Change / Organisational Development

MODULE 1

Meaning of OB:

Organizational behavior describes how people interact with one another inside of an organization, such as a business. These interactions subsequently influence how the organization itself behaves and how well it performs.

Definition of OB:

In words of K Aswathappa, “OB is the study of human behaviour in Organisational setting, of the interface between human behaviour and Organisation and of the Organisation itself.”

According to L. M. Prasad, “Organisational behaviour can be defined as the study and application of knowledge about human behaviour related to other elements of an Organisation such as structure, technology and social systems.”

Study of Organisational behaviour helps in studying:

- i. Why people behave in a particular way?
- ii. Why one person is more effective than the other?
- iii. Why one group is more effective than the other?
- iv. Why one person is more effective in one Organisation as compared to the other organizations?

Nature of OB:

The nature it has acquired is identified as follows:

1. A Separate Field of Study and Not a Discipline Only:

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.

2. 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.

3. An Applied Science:

O.B. involves both applied research and its application in organizational analysis. Hence, O.B. can be called both science as well as art.

4. A Normative Science:

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.

5. 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.

6 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.

Scope and importance of OB can be visible in following points:

- **Controlling and Directing Behaviour:** After understanding the mechanism of human behaviour, managers are required to control and direct the behaviour so that it conforms to the standards required for achieving the organisational objectives.
- **Use of Power and Sanction:** The behaviours can be controlled and directed by the use of power and sanction, which are formally defined by the Organisation.
- **Leadership:** Organisational behaviour brings new insights and understanding to the practice and theory of leadership.
- **Communication:** Communication helps people to come in contact with each other. To achieve organisational objectives, the communication must be effective.
- **Organisational Climate:** Organisational climate refers to the total organisational situations affecting human behaviour.
- **Organisational Adaptation:** Organizations, as dynamic entities are characterized by pervasive changes.

Fundamental concepts of organisational behaviour

There are two basic concepts of organisational behaviour, such as

1. The nature of people
2. The nature of organization

1) Nature of the People

i) Individual Differences: Management can motivate the employees of an organization in a better way by understanding that all individuals are different from each other and hence treating every person differently. The Law of individual differences also teaches us that each individual is different and unique.

ii) Perception: Every person has his own viewpoint regarding different objects and people, therefore they see different things in a different manner i.e., people may have different viewpoints for the same object. These viewpoints about the objects in an environment can be made clear by correct perception.

iii) Motivation to Employees: If an employee is needed in an organization he feels belonging towards the organization and it motivates him to perform well in the organization. Sometimes, motivation is also necessary to pursue excellence or to improve the quality of work.

iv) Whole Person: While hiring an employee the manager also hires various things that are associated with an employee like his nature, likes, dislikes, perception, behavior, preferences, background, hobbies, etc. But his personal life cannot be isolated from his professional life. Hence, a manager should try to make the workplace comfortable for him like a home so that the employee could feel good like he is working at his home with ease.

V) Caused Behaviour: The management can motivate employees in two different ways. Firstly, by showing them how their actions can raise their need fulfillment. Secondly, by threatening them that their undesirable action can negatively affect fulfillment of their needs.

vi) The desire for Involvement: An employee who is purposefully involved in the working of an organization feels good about himself. Management should provide such opportunities to employees as it results in mutual growth of both the employees and the organization.

vii) Human Dignity: Everyone wants to get respect, dignity and needs to be recognized in their workplace. employees should also be treated with respect in their workplace like managers.

2) Nature of Organisations

i) Organisation is a Social System: Social system means an orderly arrangement of components that are interrelated to each other and every part has its fixed role to play. Similarly, an organization's employees, workers, managers have their definite roles and they all are connected to each other therefore they all are connected directly or indirectly to each other. An organization coordinates the activities of its employees to achieve its goals.

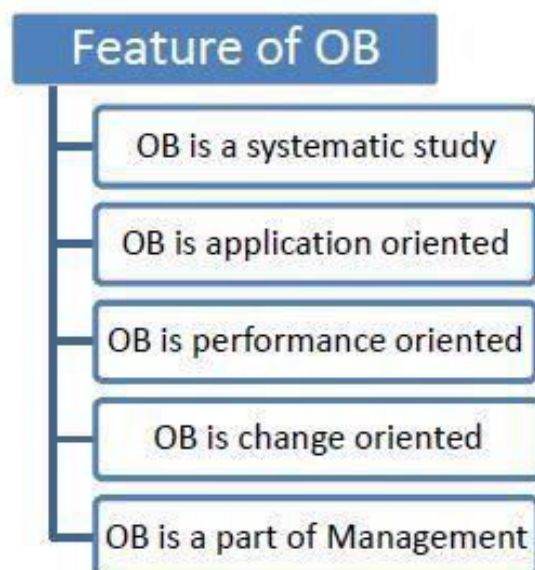
ii) Mutuality of Interest: The relationship between an employee and organization are complementary to each other. The organization goals can only be achieved through both the efforts of an employee and the management, these results in the mutual growth of both the employee and the organization.

iii) Ethics: Organizations must create such an ethical environment for the employees and the people who are directly or indirectly connected to the organization. This may improve the goodwill and trust towards the organization.

Determinants of OB:

There are three major factors that affect OB. The working environment being the base for all three factors, they are also known as the determinants of OB. The three determinants are –

- People



- Structure
- Technology

People

An organization consists of people with different traits, personality, skills, qualities, interests, background, beliefs, values and intelligence.

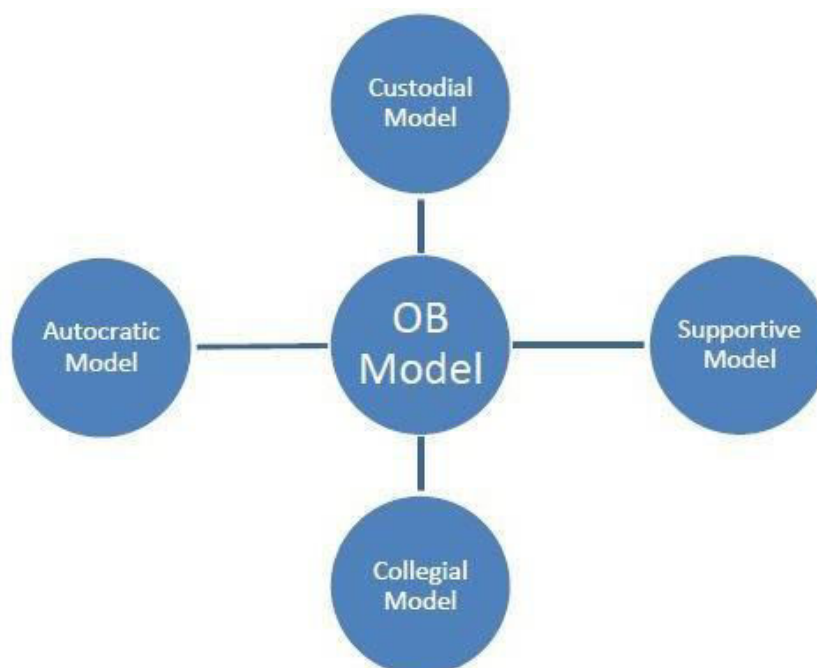
Organizational Structure

Structure is the layout design of an organization. It is the construction and arrangement of relationships, strategies according to the organizational goal.

Technology

Technology can be defined as the implementation of scientific knowledge for practical usage.

MODELS OF ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR



The five models of organisational behaviour are the:

1. Autocratic model,
2. Custodial model,
3. Supportive model,
4. Collegial model and
5. System model.

1. Autocratic model

Autocratic model is the model that depends upon strength, power and formal authority. In an autocratic organisation, the people (management/owners) who manage the tasks in an organisation have formal authority for controlling the employees who work under them. These lower-level employees have little control over the work function. Their ideas and innovations are not generally welcomed, as the key decisions are made at the top management level. The guiding principle behind this model is that management/owners have enormous business expertise, and the average employee has relatively low levels of skill and needs to be fully directed and guided. This type of autocratic management system was common in factories in the industrial revolution era. One of the more significant problems associated with the autocratic model is that the management team is required to micromanage the staff – where they have to watch all the details and make every single decision. Clearly, in a more modern-day organisation, where highly paid specialists are employed, an autocratic system becomes impractical and highly inefficient. The autocratic model is also a detractor to job satisfaction and employee morale. This is because employees do not feel valued and part of the overall team. This leads to a low-level of work performance. While the autocratic model might be appropriate for some very automated factory situations, it has become outdated for most modern-day organizations.

2. Custodial model the custodial model is based around the concept of providing economic security for employees – through wages and other benefits – that will create employee loyalty and motivation. In some countries, many professional companies provide health benefits, corporate cars, financial packaging of salary, and so on – these are incentives designed to attract and retain quality staff. The underlying theory for the organisation is that they will have a greater skilled workforce, more motivated employees, and have a competitive advantage through employee knowledge and expertise. One of the downsides with the custodial model is that it also attracts and retains low performance staff as well. Or perhaps even deliver a lower level of motivation from

some staff who feel that they are “trapped” in an organisation because the benefits are too good to leave.

3. Supportive model Unlike the two earlier approaches, the supportive model is focused around aspiring leadership. It is not based upon control and authority (the autocratic model) or upon incentives (the custodial model), but instead tries to motivate staff through the manager-employee relationship and how employees are treated on a day-to-day basis. Quite opposite to the autocratic model, this approach states that employees are self-motivated and have value and insight to contribute to the organisation, beyond just their day-to-day role. The intent of this model is to motivate employees through a positive workplace where their ideas are encouraged and often adapted. Therefore, the employees have some form of “buy-in” to the organisation and its direction.

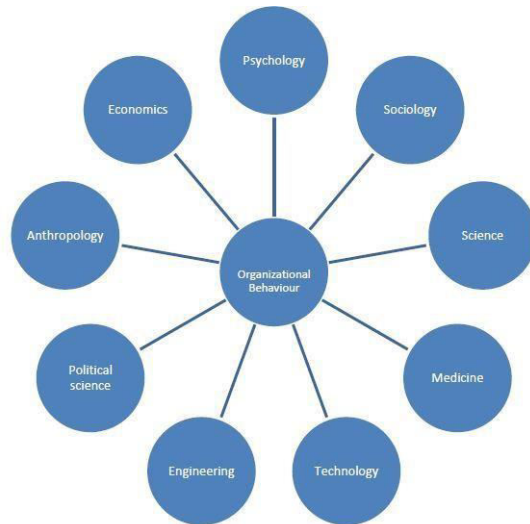
4. Collegial model the collegial model is based around teamwork – everybody working as colleagues (hence the name of the model). The overall environment and corporate culture need to be aligned to this model, where everybody is actively participating – is not about status and job titles – everybody is encouraged to work together to build a better organisation. The role of the manager is to foster this teamwork and create positive and energetic workplaces. In much regard, the manager can be considered to be the “coach” of the team. And as coach, the goal is to make the team perform well overall, rather than focus on their own performance, or the performance of key individuals. The collegial model is quite effective in organisations that need to find new approaches – marketing teams, research and development, technology/software – indeed anywhere the competitive landscape is constantly changing and ideas and innovation are key competitive success factors.

5. System model the final organisational model is referred to as the system model. This is the most contemporary model of the five models discussed in this article. In the system model, the organisation looks at the overall structure and team environment, and considers that individuals have different goals, talents and potential. The intent of the system model is to try and balance the goals of the individual with the goals of the organisation. Individuals obviously want good remuneration, job security, but also want to work in a positive work environment where the organisation adds value to the community and/or its customers. The system of model should be an overall partnership of managers and employees with a common goal, and where everybody feels that they have a stake in the organisation.

OB –as an interdisciplinary approach

Let's see how these disciplines are related to organizational behaviour,

A. Psychology: Psychology is the study of human behavior which tries to identify the characteristics of individuals and provides an understanding why an individual behaves in a particular way.



B. Sociology: Sociology is the study of social behavior, relationships among social groups and societies, and the maintenance of social order.

C. Social psychology: Social psychology is the study of human behaviour in the context of social situations.

D. Anthropology: Anthropology is the science of mankind and the study of human behaviour as a whole.

E. Economic: Any organization to survive and sustain must be aware of the economic viability of their effort.

F. Political Science: Although frequently overlooked, the contributions of political scientists are significant to the understand arrangement in organizations. Thus, organisational behaviour can be understood at:

- Interpersonal Level
- Group Level
- Inter-group Level

Emerging Challenges in the Field of OB

1. Workforce Diversity:

Organizations are becoming increasingly cosmopolitan. Organization specialist must learn to live with diverse behaviors. Managers must learn to respect diversity.

2. Changed Employee Expectation:

Traditional allurements such as job security, attractive remuneration housing does not attract, retain and motivate today's workforce. Employees demand empowerment and expect equality of status with the management.

3. Globalization:

Growing internationalization of business has its impact on people management.

1. Internationalization makes managers to increase their competencies.

2. Globalization increases the number of managers and professions.

4. Improving Productivity and Quality:

As organizations are exposed to competition, managers are seriously thinking of improving quality and productivity.

5. Changing Demographics of Workforce:

Major challenges from changing demographics of workforce relate to dual-career couples.

Couples where both partners are actively pursuing professional careers.

MODULE II

PERSONALITY

Introduction

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

According to **Salvatore Maddi**, "Personality is a stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the psychological behaviour (thoughts,

feelings and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment”.

In the words of **R.T. Hogan**, “Personality refers to the relatively stable pattern of behaviours and consistent internal states that explains a person’s behavioural tendencies”.

Determinants of Personality

- Heredity
- Environment
- Situation
- Culture

Heredity

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

Environment

The environment is everything that influences the person with the exception of our genes. There are numerous potential environmental factors that shape the personality. These factors include the place we live and the general population around us. Our encounters in our everyday life, and in addition the general population whom we connect with example, our family, companions, individuals in the school, in the congregation and the network impact our personality at a larger level.

Situation

Human personality is also influenced by situational factors. According to Milgram “Situation exerts an important pressure on the individual. It exercises constraints and may provide push. In certain circumstances it is not so much the kind of person a man is, as the kind of situation in which he is placed, that determines his actions.” Milgram certainly does not completely rule out

the importance of the developmental aspects of personality but in addition demonstrated that the situation may potentially have a very big impact on the behavioural expression of personality.

Culture

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

Major Personality attributes influencing OB

1. Type A/B Behaviour
2. Authoritarianism
3. Bureaucratic
4. Machiavellianism
5. Locus of control
6. Goal orientation

Type A Behavior

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

Type B Behavior

- Never experience the ill effects of a feeling of time desperation with its going with anxiety;
- Feels no compelling reason to show or talk about either their accomplishments or achievements;

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

Authoritarianism

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

Bureaucratic

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

Machiavellianism

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

Locus of Control

- Extent to which individuals believe
- they control their own lives (internals)
- external factors control their lives(external)

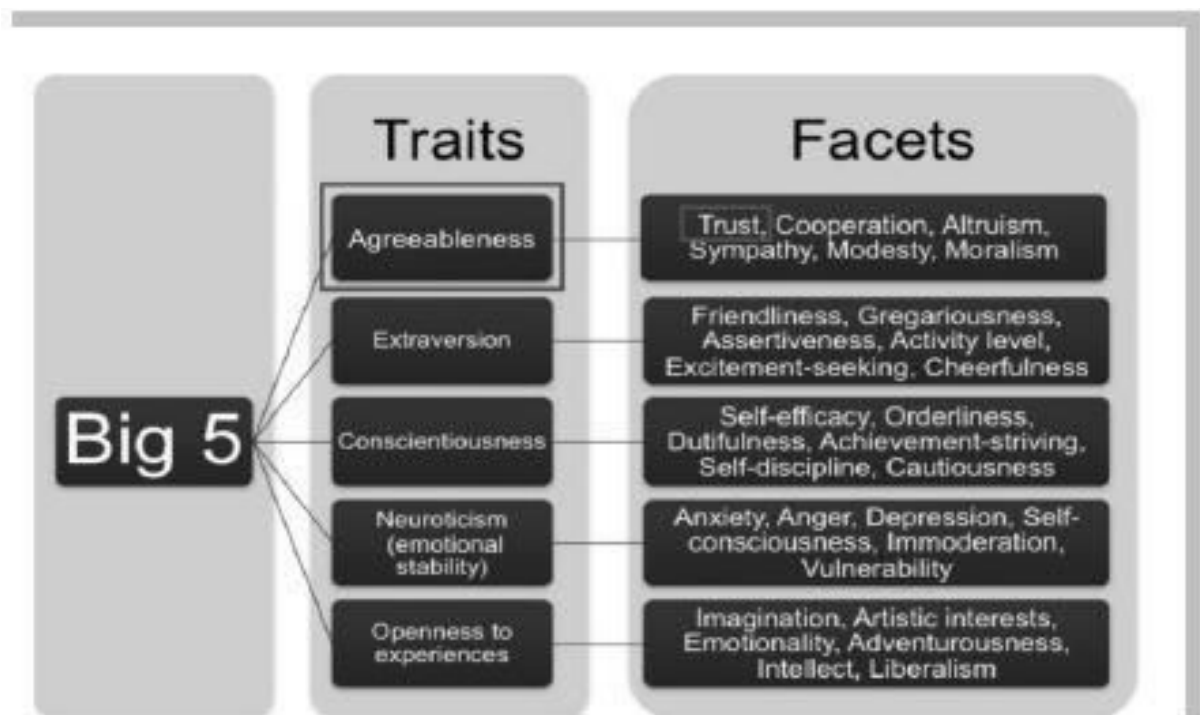
Approaches to Personality (Theories)

The approaches to personality are listed below. They are

- 1. Trait Theories**
- 2. Type Theories (Type A and B)**
- 3. Behaviourist theories.**
- 4. Cognitive theories.**

1. Trait Theory

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



2. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

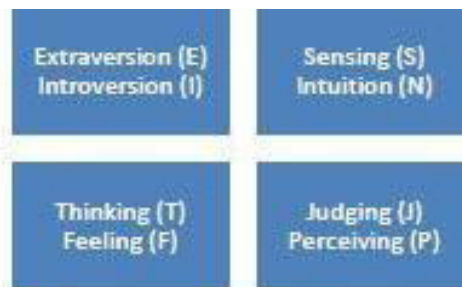
The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is very extensively used and recognized instrument to measure individual's personality and it has been documented widely. The cornerstone of MBTI is the works of Carl Jung, who studied how the individuals' judgement and relationship to the outside world are influenced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

- 1) Preference of individuals for focusing attention (Extroversion versus Introversion),
- 2) Preferences of individuals for acquiring information (Sensing versus Intuition),
- 3) Preferences of individuals for making decisions (Thinking versus Feeling) and
- 4) Preferences of individuals for orientation to the environment.

The Big Five Personality Inventory

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

1. Extroversion
2. Agreeableness
3. Conscientiousness
4. Emotional stability and
5. Openness to experience



On the basis of these four scales, the following 16 four letters code were generated

The sixteen personality traits according MBTI

ISTJ - The Inspector	INFJ - The Advocate	ESTP - The Persuader	ENFP - The Champion
ISTP - The Crafter	INFP - The Mediator	ESTJ - The Director	ENFJ - The Giver
ISFJ - The Protector	INTJ - The Architect	ESFP - The Performer	ENTP - The Debater
ISFP - The Artist	INTP - The Thinker	ESFJ - The Caregiver	ENTJ - The Commander

Extroversion

It is a personality dimension that explains the one who is assertive, gregarious and sociable. Extroverts prefer to talk, create attention and assert themselves. On the other hand, introverts lack the active level energy and exuberance of the extroverts. Extroverts prefer to be with a company and introverts prefer to be alone.

Agreeableness

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

Conscientiousness

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

Emotional Stability

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

Openness to Experience

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

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

- ✚ Ego: restrains instinctual energy in order to maintain the safety of the individual and to help the person to be a member of society.
- ✚ Superego: the rights and wrongs of society and consists of the conscience and the ego ideal.

Freud's Theory: "The ID"

The id uses the most primitive of thinking process.

- Basic biological urges (e.g., hunger, self-protection).
- The id operates on the Pleasure Principle.
- Seeks pleasure and avoids pain: "I want what I want NOW!"
- The id operates completely at an unconscious level.
- No direct contact with reality.

Freud's Theory: "The Ego"

The ego consists of a conscious faculty for perceiving and dealing intelligently with reality.

- The ego acts as a mediator between the id and the superego.
- The ego is partly conscious.
- Deals with the demands of reality.
- Makes rational decisions.
- The ego serves the ID:
- The rational part of personality that maintains contact with reality.
- Governed by 'Reality Principle'
- "What consequences are there to my behavior?"
- The ego is the Executive of the personality
- The ego controls higher mental processes.
- Reasoning, problem solving.
- The ego uses these higher mental processes to help satisfy the urges of the ID.

Freud's Theory: "The Superego"

- Superego: the moral
- Internalized rules of parents and society.
- Superego consists of two parts:

- Conscience: “notions of right/wrong.”
- Ego Ideal: “how we ideally like to be.”
- Superego: constrains us from gratifying every impulse (e.g., murder) because they
- are immoral, and not because we might get caught.
- Superego: partly conscious, partly unconscious.

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

3. Behaviourist Theory

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

Self-Efficacy

Bandura used the term self-efficacy to refer to a person’s belief that he or she can successfully carry “courses of action required to deal with prospective situations containing many ambiguous, unpredictable, and often stressful elements”. Among the sources of self-efficacy are: Performance accomplishments: Past experiences of success and failure in attempts to accomplish goals are the most important regulators of self-efficacy;

Vicarious experience: When individuals witness others’ successes and failures, they are provided with information which they can use as a basis for comparison for their own personal competence in similar sit Verbal persuasion: Being told by others that one can or cannot competently perform a particular behaviour can lead to increases or decreases in self-efficacy;

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

4. Cognitive Theories

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

Stages of Cognitive Development

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

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

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

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

LEARNING:

Meaning And Definition of Learning in Organizational Behavior

Learning is the process of attaining new or modified knowledge and skills. Change in existing behavior because of new knowledge, skill or training is known as learning. The change should be permanent means there should be significant change in behavior before and after acquiring some knowledge or skill and the change must be because of certain kind of experience or training.

Definitions:

In the words of Gestalt's, "the basis of learning is to gain knowledge after observing the whole structure. Responding towards the entire situation is learning."

Kurt Lewin said that, "The learning as the direct cognitive organization of a situation. Motivation has a significant role & place in learning." Woodworth said that, "The process of acquiring new knowledge and new responses is the process of learning."

to G.D. Boaz (1984) "Learning is the process by which the individuals acquires various habits, knowledge, and attitudes that are necessary to meet the demands of life, in general."

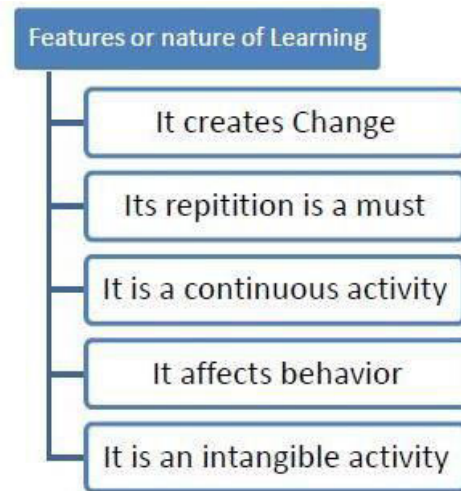
According to Cronbach, "Learning is shown by a change in behavior as a result of experience." Pavlov has said, "Learning is habit formation resulting from conditioning."

Zalkind says, "Every aspect of human behavior is responsive to learning experience, including knowledge, Language, skills, attitude, values and one's personality traits."

According to N. L. Munn, "Learning is described as a process of having one's behavior modified more or less permanently, by what he does and the consequences of his action, or by what he observes."

to Hilgard, "Learning is a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of prior experience." On the basis of above-mentioned definitions, the following features of learning can be concluded:

Learning has taken a place if an individual behaves, reacts, and responds taken from others as a result of experiences change in behavior or formerly behave. It is the advancement of understanding that enables the learner to function better in their environment, improve and adapt behaviors, create and maintain healthy relationships, and achieve personal success.



PROCESS OF LEARNING IN OB “Learning is a process of acquiring knowledge, skills, behavior and attitude.” Learning includes following four stages.



1. Stimulus

Everyone needs a source of motivation to perform something and Stimulus is a motivating source or an incentive. Learners should have a good perception of stimuli, as the learner should be supported in the learning process. When there are no triggers there is no thought. Stimulus can take the form of 'knowledge expansion,' 'abilities and skills,' 'job quality improvement,' 'productivity and profitability,' 'effectiveness,' 'career development,' and 'financial and non-financial incentives.'

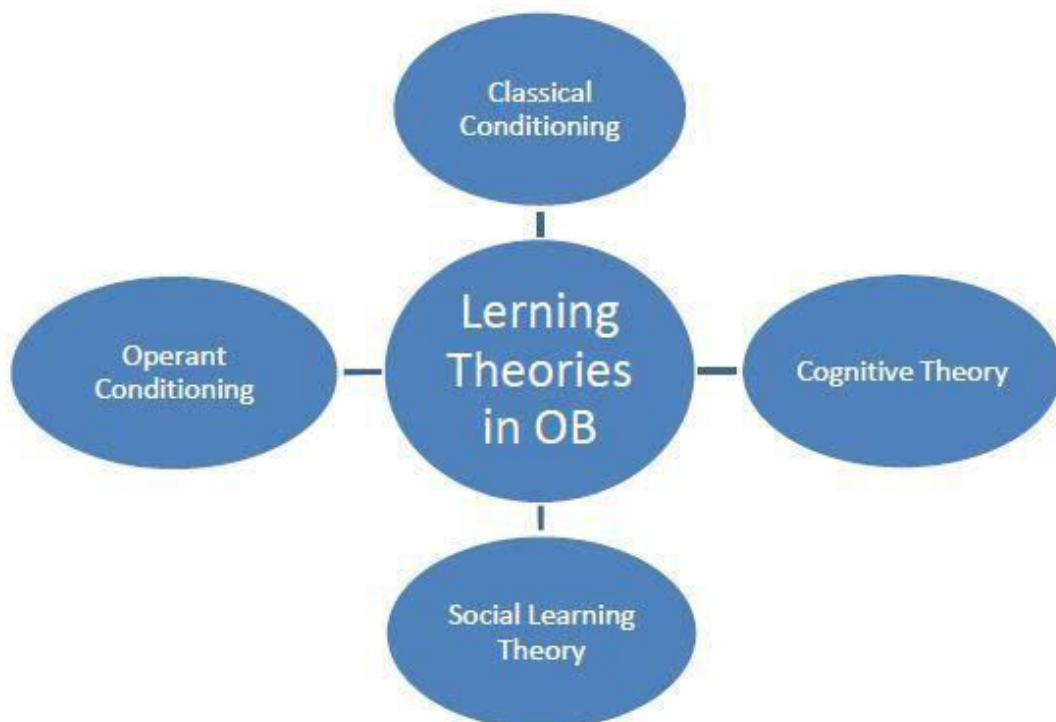
2. Response In theory, reaction is the result of the learner to the stimulus. When the result is reached, response is the first step in the process of learning. Learner will respond positively, because only then does the learning process take place and can he / she respond positively to certain negative reactions only if the learner is persuaded of positive behavioral changes.

3. Motivation Motivation is the key catalyst to motivate individuals to learn, because learning cannot take place without motivation. It's the enthusiasm for learning that boosts curiosity and attitude. No one can learn without willingness and this willingness comes from motivation because we all know that whatever thinking and understanding capacity one has without motivation, nobody can learn.

4. Rewards In learning process, rewards are incentives which learner gets. In learning process, there should be a clear incentive scheme, and it should be straightforward and predictive. Employees should be well aware in advance when studying at various rates of what they can get as return or bonuses. Rewards can come in both financial and non-financial form. For examples, praise is the incentive and salary increment etc.

LEARNING THEORIES IN ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Theories of learning are Classical Conditioning, Operant Conditioning, Cognitive Theory, and Social Learning Theory. Learning is the individual growth of the person as a result of cooperative interaction with others.

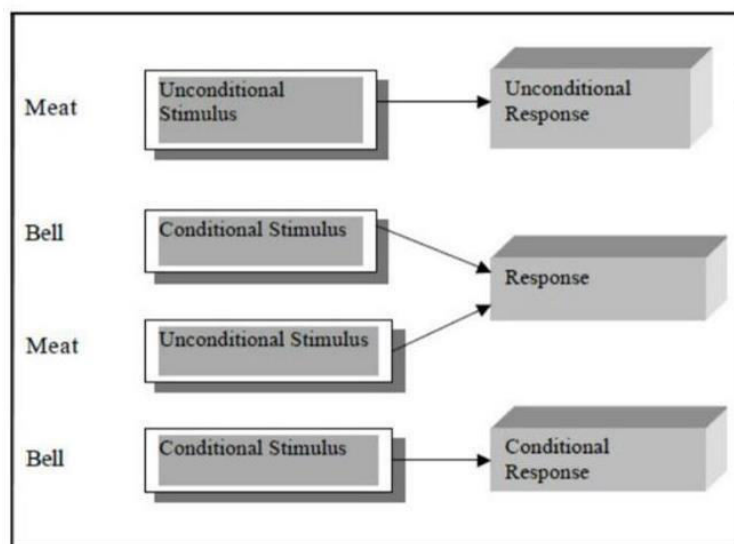


1. Classical Conditioning
2. Operant Conditioning
3. Cognitive Theory.
4. Social Learning Theory.

1. Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is a type of conditioning in which an individual responds to some stimulus that would not ordinarily produce such as response. It is the process of learning to associate a particular thing in our environment with a prediction of what will happen next. Classical conditioning, the association of such an event with another desired event resulting in behavior, is one of the easiest to understand processes of learning.

When we think of the classical conditioning, the first name that comes to our mind is Ivan Pavlov, the Russian psychologist. The normal stimulus for a flow of saliva is the taste of food. But often the mouth waters at the mere sight of luscious peach, on hearing it described or even thinking about it. Thus, one situation is substituted for another to elicit behavior. This is called conditioning. In the case of classical conditioning, a simple surgical procedure allowed Pavlov to measure accurately the amount of saliva secreted by a dog.



When Pavlov presented one dog with a piece of meat, the dog exhibited a noticeable increase in salivation. When Pavlov withheld the presentation of meat and merely rang a bell, the dog did not salivate. Then Pavlov proceeded to link the meat and the ringing of the bell. After repeatedly

hearing the bell before getting the food, the dog began to salivate as soon as the bell rang. After a while, the dog would salivate merely at the sound of the bell, even if no food was offered.

In classical conditioning, learning involves a conditioned stimulus and an unconditioned stimulus. Here, the meat was unconditioned stimulus; it invariably caused the dog to react in a specific way. The reaction that took place whenever the unconditioned stimulus occurred was called the unconditioned response. Here, the bell was a conditioned stimulus. When the bell was paired with the meat, it eventually produced a response when presented alone. This is a conditioned response.

2. Operant conditioning

The second type of conditioning is called operant conditioning. Here, we learn that a particular behavior is usually followed by a reward or punishment. What Pavlov did for classical conditioning, the Harvard psychologist B.F. Skinner did for operant conditioning. Operant conditioning argues that one's behavior will depend on different situations. People will repeatedly behave in a specific way from where they will get benefits. On the other hand, they will try to avoid a behavior from where they will get nothing. Skinner argued that creating pleasing consequences to specific forms of behavior would increase the frequency of that behavior. In one famous experiment displaying operant learning, the psychologist B.F. Skinner trained rats to press a lever to get food. In this experiment, a hungry rat placed in a box containing a lever attached to some concealed food.

At first, the rat ran around the box randomly. In this process, it happened to press the lever, and the food dropped into the box. The dropping of food-reinforced the response of pressing the lever. After repeating the process of pressing the lever followed by dropping off food many times, the rat learned to press the lever for food. People will most likely engage in desired behaviors if they are positively reinforced for doing so. Rewards are most effective if they immediately follow the desired response. Also, behavior that is not rewarded, or is punished, is less likely to be repeated.

For example, suppose you are an employee of 'X' Bank limited. Your Branch Manager has announced in a meeting that you will get a bonus if you can bring a \$100,000,000 deposit for the bank. You worked hard and found that you have done this successfully. But when the time comes, you find that you are given no bonus for your hard work which increases the bank's deposit by \$100,000,000. In the next year, if your manager again says you about the hard work. Maybe you

will be stopped because last year you did not receive anything for it. Many activities that we will engage in during everyday life can be classified as an operant.

2. Cognitive Theory

Cognition refers to an individual's thoughts, knowledge of interpretations, understandings, or ideas about himself, and his environment. This is a process of learning through active and constructive thought processes, such as a practice or using our memory. One example might be that you were taught how to tell time by looking at a clock. Someone taught you the meaning of the big hand and little hand, and you might have had to practice telling the time when you were first learning it. This process of learning was entirely inside your mind and didn't involve any physical motions or behaviors. It was all cognitive, meaning an internal thought process.

The theory has been used to explain mental processes as they are influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors, which eventually bring about learning in an individual. Cognitive learning theory implies that the different processes concerning learning can be explained by analyzing the mental processes first. It imagines that with effective cognitive processes, learning is easier and new information can be stored in the memory for a long time. On the other hand, ineffective cognitive processes result in learning difficulties that can be seen anytime during the lifetime of an individual.

3. Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory also called observational learning, stresses the ability of an individual to learn by observing what happens to other people and just by being told about something. One can learn things by observing models, parents, teachers, peers, motion pictures, TV artists, bosses, and others. Many patterns of behavior are learned by watching the behaviors of others and observing its consequences for them. In this theory, it is said that the influence of models is the central issue. 4 processes have been found to determine the influence that a model will have on an individual. These processes are:

1. Attention process

People learn from a model only when they recognize and pay attention to its critical features. If the learner is not attentive, they would not be able to learn anything. We tend to be most influenced by attractive models, repeatedly available, which we think is important, or we see as similar to us.

2. Retention process

A model's influence depends on how well the individuals remember the models' actions after the model is no longer readily available.

3. Motor reproduction process

After a person has seen a new behavior by observing the model, the watching must be converted to doing. It involves recall the model's behaviours and performing own actions and matching them with those of the model. This process then demonstrates that the individual can perform the modelled activities.

4. Reinforcement process

Individuals are motivated to exhibit the modelled behavior if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behavior that is positively reinforced is given more attention, learned better and performed more often. At last, we can say that social learning theory is a function of consequences. It also acknowledges the existence of observational learning and the importance of perception in learning.

In this case, a person who wants to learn should identify the target behavior and select the appropriate model and modelling medium. Then he/she should create a favourable learning environment and observe the model. Here the learners will try to remember and use practically the observed behavior if there is a positive reinforcement is related to this behavior.

ATTITUDE

Meaning And Definition

Attitude is important variable in human behavior which helps in a person's personality traits i.e. optimistic or pessimistic, negative or positive etc.

According to Michael Hogg, "An attitude is a negative or positive evaluation of an object which influences human's behavior towards that object".

Martin Fishbein defined attitude as "An attitude is a learned predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner towards people, an object, an idea or a situation".

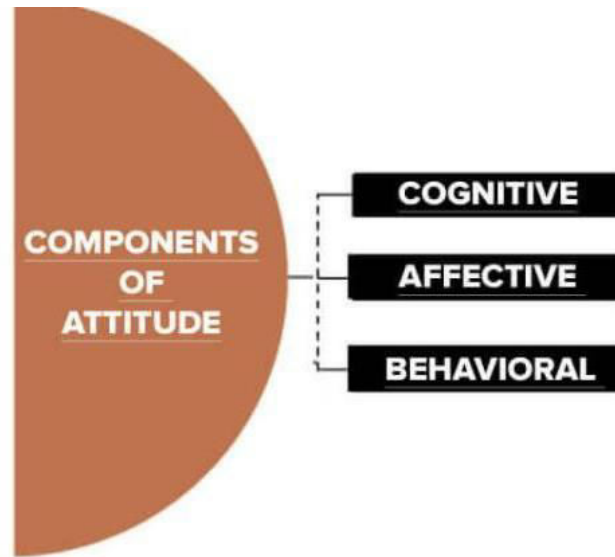
According to Stephen P Robbins, "Attitude are evaluative statements, either favorable or unfavorable concerning objects, people or events."

Schermerhorn says, "Attitudes is the predisposition to respond in a positive or negative way to someone or something in one's environment."

According to Newcomb, "Attitude is a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to given objective."

Joseph Reitz says, "The word attitude describes a persistent tendency to feel and behave in a particular way towards some objects."

Often, we come across different person, situations and things in our life and we form a certain kind of view point for those persons, things or situation. That point of view may be positive or negative. "Attitude is basically an examination of a person, thing or situation in terms of liking or disliking, positive or negative and pro and anti". Attitude mould a person's behavior towards an object or a person in a negative or positive way.



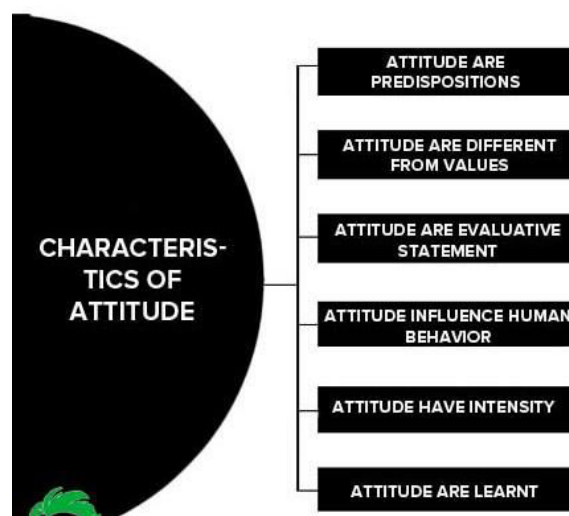
Famous psychologists, Rosenber, Eagley and Holand provided three components of Attitude:

1. **Cognitive component:** This component is a combination of ideas, information, facts and knowledge about a person or an object.
2. **Affective component:** In this component, it is the feelings or emotions towards an object or a person which leads to liking or disliking, favouring or disfavouring.
3. **Behavioral component:** In this component, it is the behavior towards the object or a person.

Characteristics of Attitude

Characteristics of attitude are discussed below:

1. Attitude are predispositions
2. Attitude are different from values
3. Attitude are evaluative statement
4. Attitude influence human behavior
5. Attitude have intensity
6. Attitude are learnt



1. Attitudes are learnt: Attitude is learnt through experiences or social interaction or encounter of an event. It is not an inborn phenomenon.

2. Attitudes are predispositions: It is already formed opinion or predetermined on the basis of prior experience or information.

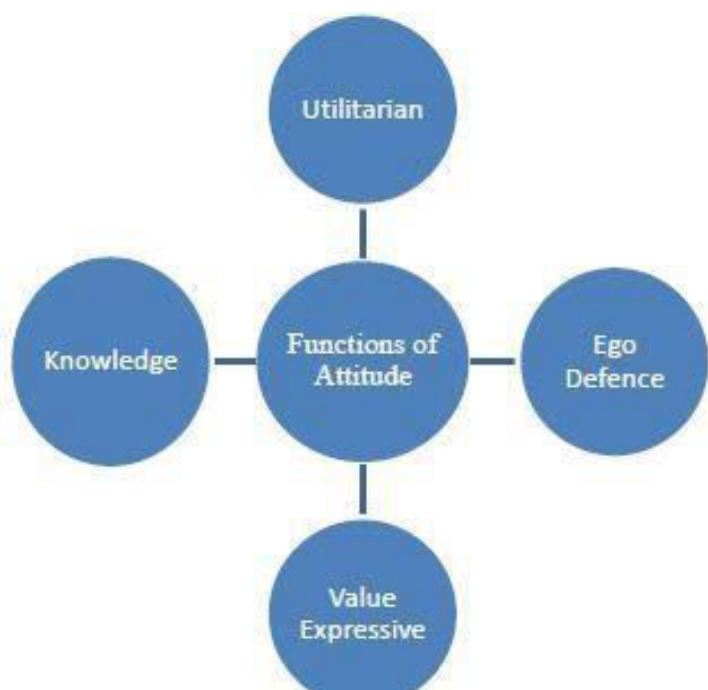
3. Attitude has an object: It has an object (object can be an idea, a person or situation) which is favoured or disfavoured or analyzed as positive or negative.

4. Attitude has an emotional component: Attitude is having an emotional aspect in the form of like or dislike, or positive or negative.

5. Attitudes influence human behavior: Attitude has all the power to mould the behavior of a person in a positive or negative form.

6. Attitude is relatively stable phenomena: Attitude is basically a stable phenomenon which persists for a period of time. It does not change so frequently.

FUNCTIONS OF ATTITUDE: “Attitude allows us to respond to the individual or object in a meaningful way or manner.” It is necessary to hold a certain kind of attitude because of the below mentioned functions:



1. Utilitarian

An attitude has a utility to develop certain kind of behavior which helps a person to draw conclusions. It is the attitude which helps one in obtaining reward or avoiding punishment. “A worker finds that when he expresses a negative attitude towards his boss, his co-workers pay attention to and sympathies with him, but when he expresses a positive attitude, he is ignored or chastened. The negative attitude is instrumental in obtaining rewards (acceptance) and avoiding punishment (reflection)”.

2. Ego-defence

Individuals usually create these conducts to protect their own self-images. For example, a person may feel discouraged in their organization by the employment or development of female employees and may develop biases towards new employees as well. He may develop an attitude such as rookies being less skilled or less experienced and may mistreat such workers, this is known as an attitude of ego protection which is usually developed and used to cope with a sense of guilt or risk. That sort of mindset will remain unchanged until it eliminates this feeling.

3. Value Expressive

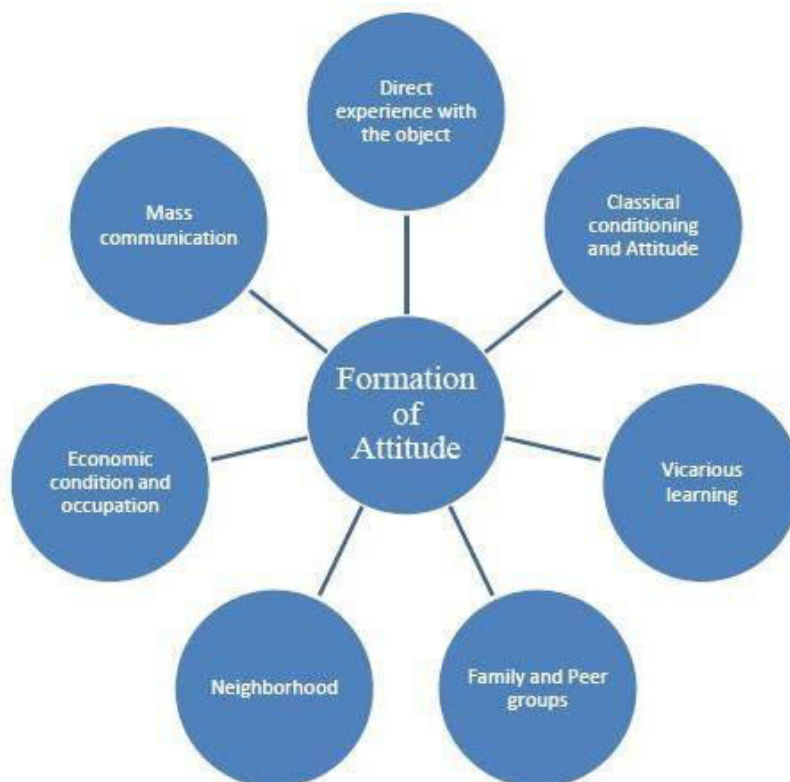
The attitude of one is the reflection of his system of values and the value of expressive attitudes depends on our concept of oneself. One who values freedom is the individual who expresses very positive attitudes towards the organization's decentralization of authority and provides a cordial work environment.

4. Knowledge

Knowledge pertaining to a particular object leads to a positive attitude towards that object and absence of knowledge leads to negative attitude towards that object. In the absence of knowledge sometimes we form stereotype attitude too.

FORMATION OF ATTITUDE

Individuals usually learn attitudes from various sources, it should be noted that attitudes are formed but not inherited from them. Among the most significant attitude-gaining sources are:



1. Direct experience with the object

One can form attitude towards an object with the help of his direct exposure or direct experience of that object. Employees, for example , generally form their attitude to jobs based on their

previous experiences. Attitudes can develop from an object experience which is personally rewarding or punishable. And the attitude created by experience can hardly be modified.

2. Classical conditioning and attitude

One can also develop attitude with the help of classical condition. If an event occurs again and again, it develops a different kind of learning and that will leads towards a particular kind of attitude.

3. Operant conditioning and Attitude acquisition

One can also develop an attitude with the help of operant conditioning. According to Skinner (1938), “operant conditioning is a method of learning that occurs through rewards and punishments for behavior. Through operant conditioning, an individual makes an association between a particular behavior and consequence”. According to this theory learning a behavior is usually followed by a reward or punishment. Operant conditioning depicts that the behavior of an individual is depend on the kind of different situations. Generally people used to act in a certain way when they get rewards and sometimes people used to discourage actions from when they're not getting something. Such conduct may create a particular sort of attitude.

3. Vicarious learning

One can also learn certain things by observing the behavior of other people which automatically develop a certain kind of attitude. And this learning is known as vicarious learning in which a person learns by observing behavior of others. For example watching TV, movies etc.

4. Family and Peer groups

A person may also learn the attitudes by imitating his or her parents or other family members. Even from his party of peers too. If parents have a positive attitude toward a particular phenomenon, the child will admire his parents, and it is evident that he will adopt a similar attitude, even without being told. Similarly, behaviors in universities, schools, are learned from peer groups.

5. Neighbourhood

Sometimes neighbours also play a significant role in developing a particular kind of attitude. Each and every neighbour has something different value system or culture aspects which will automatically provide a kind of impact on our personality.

6. Economic condition and occupation

The economic condition and work-related roles of one often lead a great deal to the creation of a certain kind of behavior, and this will shape an attitude automatically. Our socio-economic history has a very important part to play in our current and future attitudes.

7. Mass communication

Mass media like television, radio, newspaper, and magazines can also add a lot to somebody's personality. Media coverage is designed to build a public attitude.

CHANGING OF ATTITUDE

Employee behaviors that operate within an organization may be modified because it is in the best interest of the organization. Yet change is complicated, because there are some hurdles in it.

Hurdles to change

Usually, people resist change of attitude because of balance and consistency theory of attitude. Accordingly, a person wants their attitudes towards people and things to be in line with one another's rewarding internally to eliminate differences. The second barrier When a person is bound by certain commitment or protocol then his attitude is really hard to change like every organization has some different kind of value system, protocol etc. The third barrier Sometimes a person sees no strong cause or sufficient amount of information then that person finds it difficult to change his attitude.

WAYS OF CHANGING ATTITUDE

There are certain ways for changing attitudes which are as follows:

1. Providing new information When a person is well informed with all latest and accurate information about a particular object then that person changes himself accordingly. New information always helps change attitudes. Once employees become conscious of the fact that the management think about the welfare of the workers, they modify their attitude and turn pro-management.

2. Use of Fear Sometimes fear can prove to be a powerful weapon for changing attitude. The change will no doubt depend on the degree of fear. Yet often people tend to become stubborn in their actions when they are being challenged too far and people can fail to adjust.

3. Influence of friends or peers Changes of attitude can also be influenced by friends or peers. Here credibility of the peers or friends matters a lot. Peers or friends having high credibility put more influence on change.

4. The co-opting approach Co-opting also can be an efficient means of changing habits. When people are unhappy with a particular situation, and involve them in changing things. Co-opting can be the most effective form of changing attitude.

5. Others It is also found that a person is more likely to alter an attitude kept in private than one that he has publicly mentioned.

REWARD SYSTEMS AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Reward systems is an important part of the organizational context for organizational behavior.

Luthans discussed why he has included this chapter in the OB book. In the social cognitive theory, the basis or foundation for the textbook, the environment variable forms a triad with the person and the organization. In the organization, the structural design and culture are already covered as important variables. The reward system is the third major organizational variable. Bandura has noted that human behavior cannot be fully understood without considering the regulatory effect influence of rewards.

One way to the importance of organizational rewards as simply as possible is to remember: "YOU GET WHAT YOUR REWARD!"

The rewards are discussed under pay, recognition and benefits topics.

Money as a Reward

Mitchell and Mickel has noted that money is a prime factor in the foundation of commerce, that is, people organize and start business to make money. Then do employees need money to continue working in an organization or not? We are not talking of participation in charity or social welfare organizations. For majority of people, the primary organization that they work for is an organization that provides them money for their living. Only after their primary need is satisfied

through certain hours of working, that they choose other organization which do not provide them money, but provide satisfaction to them in other ways.

Money is also associated with four of the important symbolic attributes for which humans strive: achievement and recognition, status and respect, freedom and control, and power.

Despite the visible tendency of many organizational behavior theorists to downgrade the importance of pay as an organizational reward, there is ample evidence that money can be positively reinforcing for most people, and, if the pay system is designed properly to fit the strategies, can have a positive impact on individual, team, and organizational performance. Money remains a very important motivator.

In order for money to be effective in the organizational reward system, the system must be as objective and fair as possible and be administered contingently on the employee's exhibiting critical performance behaviours. This has been made particularly clear by Kerr, who notes that an effective pay system for rewarding people has to address three considerations. First, the organization must ask itself what outcomes it is seeking. Examples include higher profits, increased sales, and greater market share. Second, the enterprise must be able to measure these results. Third, the organization must tie its rewards to these outcomes.

Traditional Methods of Administering Pay

Traditionally, organization have used two methods of administering pay: base pay and merit pay. These methods were supplemented by some with pay-for-performance plans and 'new pay' programs.

Base pay is paid for various categories or ranks of jobs and it is based on market conditions and the pay policy of the company. Merit pay is tied to some predetermined criteria that judges meritoriousness of people. The annual salary increases are based on merit pay systems only. In a way, merit pay is supposed to be a form of "pay for performance." However, there are problems in linking merit pay that is given throughout the career to performance in a single period. Therefore, many organizations have created specific pay-for-performance plans.

Pay for Performance

There are two types basic types of "pay-for-performance" plans: individual plans and group incentive plans. Individual incentive plans have been around for many years. There were studied

by many and F.W. Taylor who also studied them in the form of piece rate systems developed time study and standard output-based incentive systems. They became part of scientific management system of shop management or process management advocated by him.

Signing bonus is indicated by Luthans as a performance pay method. But it seems to be more a merit pay method than a performance pay method. Stock option plan is also an individual incentive pay.

Potential limitations of individual incentives: Individual incentives are practical only for jobs for which performance can be specified objectively and can be measured easily.

Group Incentives

Team working is being emphasized nowadays by many companies and group incentives are being used to motivate teams for higher performance. One of the most common forms of group pay is gain sharing plan. In these plans, cost savings due to productivity improvements is shared with the group.

Another common group incentive plan is profit sharing. In a typical plan, some portion of the profit is paid into a profit-sharing pool, and this then distributed to all employees immediately or after retirement.

Employee Stock Ownership Plan (ESOP) is another group incentive plan.

New Pay Techniques

The following approaches were indicated as new techniques by Luthans

1. Commissions beyond sales to customers.
2. Rewarding leadership effectiveness
3. Rewarding new goals.
4. Pay for knowledge workers in teams.
5. Skill pay
6. Competency pay
7. Broad banding.

Luthans stated in his conclusion that new pay techniques have a role and organizations have to utilize them to be effective in the areas of customer satisfaction, leadership, satisfied employees,

quality, teamwork, knowledge sharing, skill development, new competencies (e.g., technical, cross-cultural, and social), and employee growth without promotions.

Recognition as an Organizational Reward

Genuine social recognition can be given at any time by any body in the organization. Unlike many financial forms of reward, there is no limit to the number of people who can receive recognition reward and also how many times it is given.

Research shows that there are many types of recognition that can lead to enhanced performance and loyalty. Helping employees in the discharge of their family responsibilities (recognition of their family responsibilities) increases employee loyalty. Research also shows that employees would like their companies to focus on being fair to employees, caring about them, and exhibiting trust in them.

Some Steps that help in increasing the effectiveness of recognition reward systems and practices

1. Use all available communication channels to make all employees aware of the system or scheme.
2. Educate managers in using recognition reward as a part of the total compensation package.
3. Make recognition part of the performance management process.
4. Have site-specific recognition programs that are covered in company newsletters and websites.
5. Publicize the best practices and achievements of recognized employees so that every one knows some of the things they can do in order to earn recognition.
6. Also make all managers and supervisors know what best managers are doing to use recognition effectively.
7. Continually review the recognition process and procedures to improve them, to introduce new procedures and scrap those which are not delivering results.
8. Solicit ideas from all to know what is working and interesting.

Benefits As Organizational Rewards

Commonly offered benefits are categorized into those that are required by law and those that are offered by companies.

Federal Government-Mandated Benefits: Social security is the most important federal government mandated benefit. Another major benefit is workers' compensation. The Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993 requires all organizations with 50 or more employees to grant any worker who has been employed there for at least one year an unpaid leave of 12 weeks to take care of personal medical issues or serious illness of family members. ERISA (Employee Retirement Income Security Act of 1974) is also a benefit.

Companies are offering health insurance, life insurance, and pension benefits. Companies have vacation benefit, sick leave benefit and leave for some contingencies.

New Types of Benefits

Wellness programs, Life cycle benefits, Flexible-Cafeteria style benefit plans are some of the new developments in benefits provided to employees.

MODULE -III

DEFINITIONS OF MOTIVATION

The word Motivation derives from the Latin word “Movere”. The Latin word “Movere” means “To move”, “To drive” or “To drive forward” etc. **Motivation** can be defined as stimulating, inspiring and inducing the employees to perform to their best capacity. **Motivation** is a psychological term which means it cannot be forced on employees. It comes automatically from inside the employees as it is the willingness to do the work.

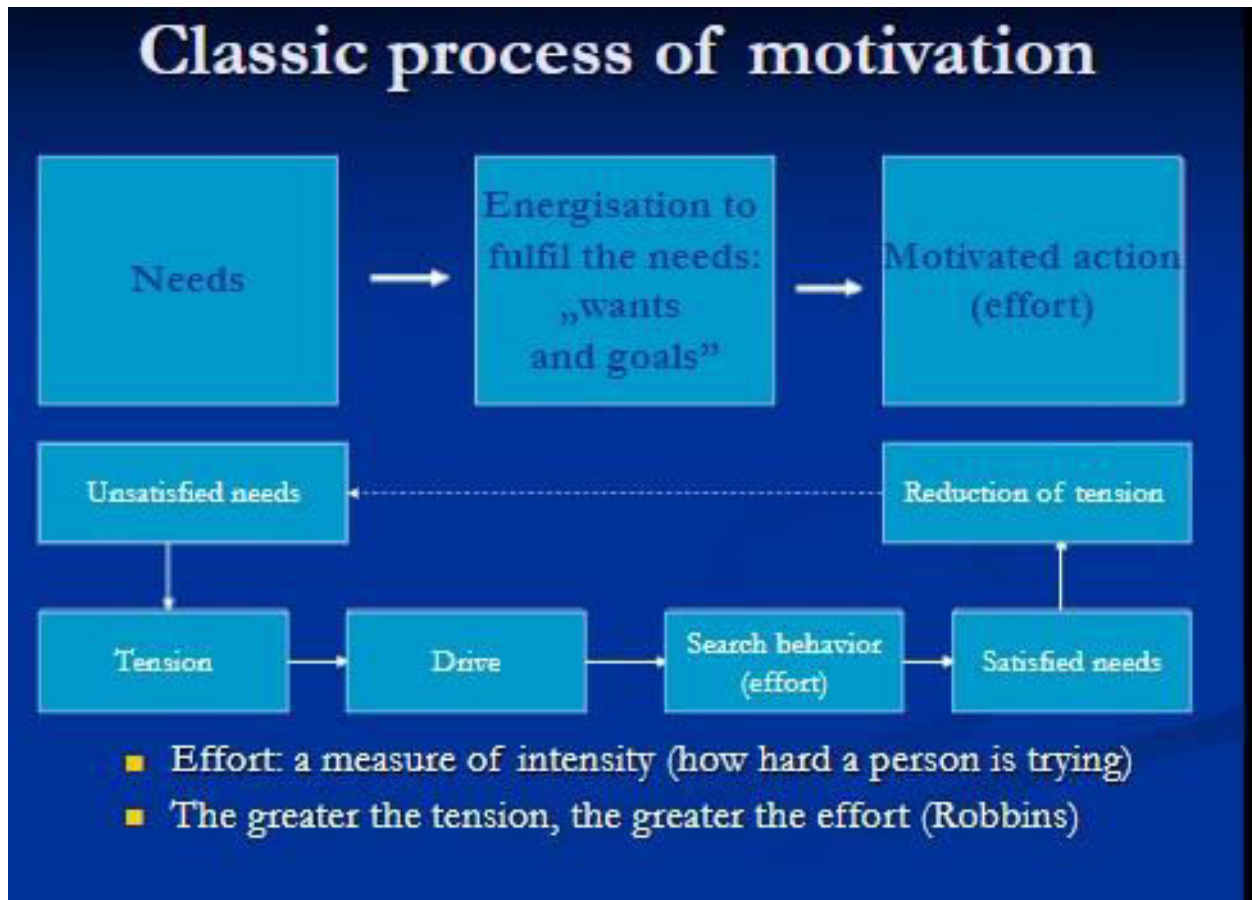
Joe Kelly defined Motivation as “Motivation is a process where by needs instigate behavior directed towards the goals that can satisfy those needs.”

According to W. G. Scot, “Motivation means a process of stimulating people to action to accomplish the desired goals.”

According to Michael J. Jucius, “Motivation is the act of stimulating someone or oneself to get a desired course of action, to push the right button to get a desired results.”

PROCESS OF MOTIVATION

1. **Unsatisfied need.** Motivation process begins when there is an unsatisfied need in a human being.
2. **Tension.** The presence of unsatisfied need gives him tension.
3. **Drive.** This tension creates an urge of drive in the human being as he starts looking for various alternatives to satisfy the drive.
4. **Search Behavior.** After searching for alternatives the human being starts behaving according to chosen option.
5. **Satisfied need.** After behaving in a particular manner for a long time then he evaluates that whether the need is satisfied or not.
6. **Reduction of tension.** After fulfilling the need the human being gets satisfied and his tension gets reduced.



For example, if an employee develops a need to earn more, this need will make him restless and he will start thinking how to satisfy his need. To satisfy his need he may think of working hard in organization and get promotion so he will start working hard. After sometime he will get incentives or increments or promotion which will satisfy his need.

But motivation process does not end by satisfaction of one need. After fulfilling one need another need develops and the same process continues till needs keep emerging in human beings.

Types of Motivation

1. **Achievement Motivation:** It is the drive to pursue and attain goals. An individual with achievement motivation wishes to achieve objectives and advance up on the ladder of success. Here, accomplishment is important for its own sake and not for the rewards that accompany it. It is similar to 'Kaizen' approach of Japanese Management.

2. **Affiliation Motivation:** It is a drive to relate to people on a social basis. Persons with affiliation motivation perform work better when they are complimented for their favorable attitudes and co-operation.
3. **Competence Motivation:** It is the drive to be good at something, allowing the individual to perform high quality work. Competence motivated people seek job mastery, take pride in developing and using their problem-solving skills and strive to be creative when confronted with obstacles. They learn from their experience.
4. **Power Motivation:** It is the drive to influence people and change situations. Power motivated people wish to create an impact on their organization and are willing to take risks to do so.
5. **Attitude Motivation:** Attitude motivation is how people think and feel. It is their self confidence, their belief in themselves, their attitude to life. It is how they feel about the future and how they react to the past.
6. **Incentive Motivation:** It is where a person or a team reaps a reward from an activity. It is “You do this and you get that”, attitude. It is the types of awards and prizes that drive people to work a little harder.
7. **Fear Motivation:** Fear motivation coercion’s a person to act against will. It is instantaneous and gets the job done quickly. It is helpful in the short run.

FEATURES OF MOTIVATION

1. **Motivation is a psychological phenomenon.** Motivation is an internal feeling which means it cannot be forced on employees. The internal feelings such as need, desire, aspirations etc. influence human behavior to behave in a particular manner. For example, desire to have a new house, respect and recognition etc.
2. **Motivation produces goal directed behavior.** Motivation induces people to behave in such a manner so that they can achieve their goal. Motivated person need no supervision or direction. He will always work in desired manner. For example of a person has a motive to get promotion so he will work efficiently to get promotion.
3. **Motivators can be positive as well as negative.** To motivate employees managers use various motivators. Some motivators are positive and some are negative few examples of positive motivators are promotion, increment, bonus, respect, recognition etc. if employee

does not improve his performance with positive motivators then manager uses negative motivators such as warning, issue o memo, demotion, stopping increments etc. sometimes fear of negative motivators also induces person to behave in a desired manner.

4. **Motivation is a complex process.** Motivation is a complex and difficult task. In order to motivate people a manager must understand various types of human need. Human needs are mental feelings which can be measured accurately. If manager measures them accurately then also every person uses different approaches to satisfy his need. Some get satisfied with monetary incentives, some with non-monetary, some with positive and some with negative motivators. So it is not possible to make generalization in motivation.
5. **Motivation is a dynamic and continuous process.** Human beings are ever-changing. Human needs are unlimited and go on changing continuously. Satisfaction of one need gives rise to another so managers have to continuously perform the function of motivation.

IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

1. Motivation helps to change from negative attitude to positive attitude. Without motivation the employees try to perform minimum activities in the organization. But the motivation fills in the desire to perform to their maximum level. All the resources of the organization are of no use unless and until the employees use these resources. The motivated employees make best use of the resources.
2. Motivation improves performance level of employees. The motivation improves the efficiency level of employees which means the employees start performing the job to the best of their ability with minimum wastage of time and resources because motivated employees always go for best utilization of resources. The motivation bridges the gap between the ability to work and willingness always improves efficiency.
3. Help in achieving the organizational goals. The motivated employees always try to achieve the organizational goal and contribute their best efforts for the realization of organizational goal as they know with the achievement of organizational goal only they can achieve their personal goal. All the employees contribute their efforts in one direction of accomplishment of goal.
4. Motivation creates supportive work environment. In motivation the relations between superior and subordinates are always improved. When the employees get their need

satisfied or get the recognition and respect in the organization then they always offer a supportive hand to superiors. There is more co-operation and co-ordination in the organization and all the employees work with the team spirit.

5. Motivation helps the managers to introduce changes. The motivated employees show less resistance in accepting the changes according to changes in the business environment because they know if the changes are not implemented in the organization, not only the organization will lose by this but the employees also will find it difficult to get their needs fulfilled. Motivated employees are always supportive and co-operative in accepting changes in the organization.
6. Reduction in Employee Turnover. The motivation creates confidence in the employees to get their need satisfied in the organization itself. They always select the alternative to remain in the organization and increase their earning rather than leaving the organization and increasing their earnings. With motivation employee turnovers are less because the satisfied employees never leave the job.

Advantages of Motivation

Advantages to Management or Organization:

- Increase in the efficiency and productivity of employees. Motivation ensures a high level performance of employees.
- Better co-operation from employees and cordial labor-management relations.
- Reduction in the rate of labor absenteeism and turnover.
- Reduction in the wastage's and industrial accidents.
- Improvement in the morale of employees.
- Quick achievement of business/corporate objectives and favorable corporate image.

Advantages to Employees or Workers:

- Employees get various monetary and non-monetary facilities/benefits which provide better life and welfare to them.
- Security of employment and other benefits due to cordial relations with the management.

- Job attraction and job satisfaction.
- Higher status and opportunities of participation in management.
- Positive approach and outlook of employees towards company, management and superiors.
- Reduction in the rate of labour turnover which is harmful to employees and management.
- Better scope for improvement in knowledge and skills of employees.

Ways to Improve Motivation of Workers

Motivation is the desire that pushes an individual to work well. It is an influence that causes people to behave in a particular way. Organisations can motivate its production line workers through financial rewards such as an increase in wage rates or profit sharing, and through non — financial rewards such as job enlargement and delegation along with the use of motivational theories such as McGregor's Theory X and Y and Elton Mayo's Hawthorne Effect.

The main reason for low motivation is the dissatisfaction with their wages for production line workers. They receive half as much as the quality control inspectors who do not participate in the production process. These workers receives a low weekly wage and a bonus for meeting output targets. This means that in case of power failures or machinery break down at the factory the workers would not be able to meet targets and wouldn't receive the bonus.

This leaves a feeling of frustration as such problems are beyond the control of the workers and they feel that they have been treated unfairly. Thus firstly he pay of the workers should be increased. After all according to Taylor's Scientific Management worker want the money. Also according to Maslows Need Hierarchy, the most basic needs are the psychological needs of hunger, thirst and shelter which are gotten by the wages. These wages, if not at par should be close to that of the quarterly inspectors because the inspectors do not contribute to the output of a company. Organisation would by this definitely face rising costs of labor but if by higher wages the workers are given an incentive to work hard then the productivity i.e. output per worker would increase.

This may then off set the increase in costs and lead to an increase in production of goods.

Nevertheless, it would be the non-financial rewards that would play an important role in maintaining the high motivation levels that are initiated by the financial rewards. Profit sharing is also a financial reward would help worker feel more part of the business of in years of high profits they are given a percentage of profits. They would then wish to contribute to wards the maintaining of this profitability. Job enlargement (including job enrichment and job rotation), team working, quality circles, target setting, delegation and appreciation and recognition by the organisation (awards) are all methods that organisations can use to motivate employees.

Job enlargement increases the scope of the job so as to provide broader and deeper tasks. This would involve job rotation where the workers could switch jobs after a certain time that allows them to handle a variety of Jobs and job enrichment that organizes work in such a way that employees are able to use their fullest abilities and do work with lesser supervision.

Delegation should also be undertaken which is the passing to subordinates. This would mean telling the workers take certain decisions as to he performing of tasks. Empowerment would go a step further and give them control on how to perform their tasks by employing efficient methods.

Job enlargement, delegation and empowerment are all in accordance with McGregors Theory Y according to which workers like to work and seek responsibility. These methods help workers to feel a greater part of the process and business as they carry but more than one task and are encouraged to become more efficient. Since they are given responsibility, they feel trusted and feel more loyalty to the firm. As they carry out tasks related to the entire process they derive greater satisfaction of having seen the end result. They increase their skills gain more experience and open more opportunities for their future. The only danger is that some workers may be afraid of performing additional tasks as they are afraid of failure and thus losing jobs.

Then team working and quality circles would also be made. According to this the workers should be divided into groups and given an area on the production time of which they are responsible both for production as well as for quality of products. In this way, the quality inspectors could be removed and the major reason of demotivation among employees would end. The teams would meet regularly to deal with the quality of the products its improvements as well as any problems

in organisation's production line. They would then present their researches and results to the management who could then implement the best result on the production line as well as give rewards to the group that came up with the best idea. Quality circles allow the successful participation of the entire staff in the decision making. The workers feel a greater part of organization and feel a greater sense of achieving the targets that they themselves have helped to decide. Workers have hands on experience and are in the best position to understand the problems, more than any hired quality control officials. Workers are best able to provide solutions to exactly meet the situation and thus greatly improve their own productivity as well as the efficiency of the organisation as a whole.

Since their social and self-esteem needs as according to Maslow's Need Hierarchy Model are met through team working (interaction) and appreciation from the management (rewards) they are highly motivated.

Organisations should make full use of the motivational theories as well as the methods discussed above. It is true that Quality Circles are informal and may lead to certain time wastes in meeting but these can be avoided by rewarding participation after office hours. Also the fear of competition amongst different circles shouldn't stop managers from employing these methods as healthy competition encourages progress and development of innovative ideas that lead to higher motivation, greater productivity and improved profitability.

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

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

- Content Theories
- Process Theories
- Reinforcement Theory

I. CONTENT THEORIES

Content theory comprises of

- Maslow's need Hierarchy Theory
- Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory
- Alderfer's ERG Model Theory
- X and Theory Y

Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

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

1. Physiological needs & security needs : are those required to sustain life, such as: Air, Water, Food, Sleep etc. Once physiological needs are met, one's attention turns to safety and security in order to be free from the threat of physical and emotional harm. Such needs might be fulfilled by:

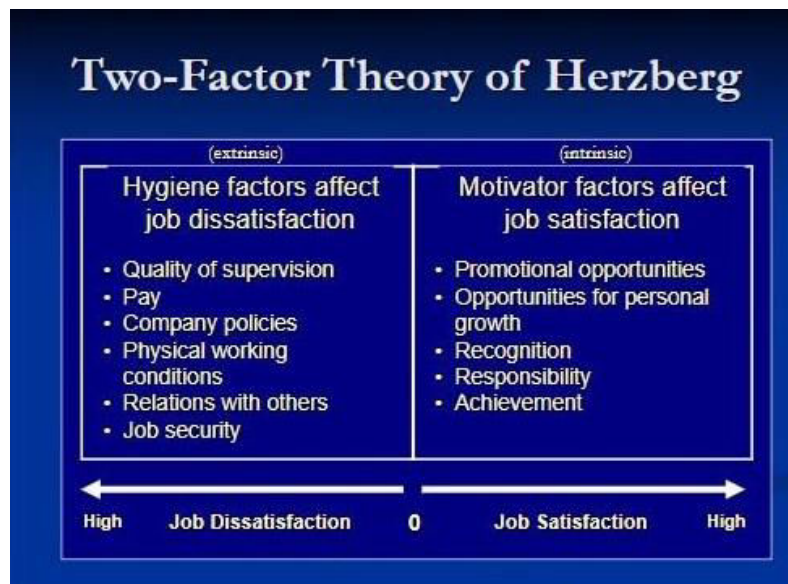
- Living in a safe area
- Medical Facilities
- Job security
- Law and Order

Once a man has met the lower level physiological and safety needs, higher level come into picture. The primary level of higher-level needs are social needs.

4 Social needs are those connected to contact with others and may comprise:

- Friendship
- Belonging to a group
- Giving and receiving love

4. Esteem needs are categorized as internal or external. Internal esteem needs are those linked to self-esteem such as self-respect and achievement. External esteem needs are those such as social status and recognition. Some esteem needs are:
- Self-respect
 - Achievement
 - Attention
 - Recognition
 - Reputation
5. Self-actualization is the peak of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. It is the pursuit of attaining one's full potential as a person. Self-actualized people tend to possess needs such as:
- Peace
 - Truth & Justice
 - Knowledge



Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

This theory is also known as the motivation-hygiene theory or intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. According to Herzberg, Motivation is a two-stage process. The opposite of Satisfaction is No Satisfaction. The opposite of Dissatisfaction is No Dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg, the factors leading to job satisfaction are “separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction”.

- Factors for Dissatisfaction are : Company Policies, Supervision, Relationship with Supervisor and Peers, Work conditions, Salary/Perks, Status, Security etc.
- Factors for Satisfaction are: Growth opportunity, The work itself, Achievement, Responsibility, Recognition, Advancement etc.

Alderfer's ERG Model

This theory discusses about three different types of needs.

- **Existence Needs**

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

- **Relatedness Needs**

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

- **Growth Needs**

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

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Theory X	Theory Y
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Inherent dislike for work and will attempt to avoid it ■ Must be coerced, controlled or threatened with punishment ■ Will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction ■ Place security above all factors and will display little ambition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ View work as being as natural as rest or play ■ Will exercise self-direction and self-control if committed to objectives <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Commitment to objectives is directly related to the rewards associated with their achievement ■ Can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility ■ Can make innovative decisions on their own

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

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

II. PROCESS THEORY

Process Theory comprises of

1. The Equity Theory
2. The Expectancy theory
3. The goal setting theory.

1. The Equity Theory

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

Employee behaviors to create equity:

- Change inputs (slack off)
- Change outcomes (increase output)
- Distort/change perceptions of self
- Distort/change perceptions of others
- Choose a different referent person
- Leave the field (quit the job)

2. The Expectancy theory

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

- Valence.
- Expectancy.
- Instrumentality

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

Expectancy theory

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

3. The Goal setting Theory

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

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

- ✚ Generate a positive context for feedback.
- ✚ Use positive and constructive language.
- ✚ Emphasis on the strategies and behaviours.
- ✚ Modify feedback according to what is been expected by the individuals.
- ✚ Feedback must be a two-way communication process.

III. REINFORCEMENT THEORY

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

1. Positive Reinforcement
2. Negative Reinforcement
3. Punishment
4. Extinction

MOTIVATION APPLICATION AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATION

Motivation by Job Design: The JCM (JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL)

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

- Skill variety – Requirements for different tasks in the job.
- Task identity – Completion of a whole piece of work.
- Task significance – The job's impact on others.
- Autonomy – Level of discretion in decision making.
- Feedback – Amount of direct and clear information on performance.

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

Motivating Potential Score (MPS)

According to MPS, five dimensions combined into a single predictive index of motivation. People who work on jobs with high core dimensions are generally more motivated, satisfied, and productive.

Job dimensions operate through the psychological states in influencing personal and work outcome variables rather than influencing them directly.

How Can Jobs Be Redesigned?

Jobs can be redesigned using the following methods:

Job Rotation: The periodic shifting of a worker from one task to another Job Enlargement:

The horizontal expansion of jobs Job Enrichment: The vertical expansion of jobs.

GROUP DYNAMICS

Introduction

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

Types of Groups

Groups are classified into four types.

1. Command Group
2. Task Group
3. Interest Group
4. Friendship Group

Command Group

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

Task Group

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

Interest Group

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

Friendship Group

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

WORK GROUP BEHAVIOUR

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

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

Organisation Strategy

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

Authority Structure

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

Formal Regulation

Employee behaviours are standardized when the organisation imposes rule procedures, policies, job descriptions and other forms to regulation. Regulation increases the behaviour pattern of the work group. The task can be accomplished on time with the help of regulations because rules make the work group complete the task then and there. The behaviour of the work group members will be consistent and predictable when more formal regulations are imposed by the organisation.

Organisational Resource

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

Human Resources Selection Process

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

Performance Evaluation and Reward System

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

Organisational Culture

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

Physical Work Setting

Finally, physical work setting is also an important external party which has a direct bearing on work group behaviour. The whole physical layout of an employee's work space, the management of equipment etc., are decided by the architects, industrial engineers. These create both barriers and opportunities for work group interaction. Employees can talk or goof off if their work stations are closer and there is no physical barrier.

Stages of Group Development

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

Following are the five stages of Group development :

1. Forming
2. Storming
3. Norming

4. Performing
5. Adjourning

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

➤ Forming

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

➤ Storming

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

➤ Norming

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

➤ Performing

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

➤ Adjourning

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

Groups do not always proceed from one stage to the next. Sometimes several stages go hand by hand, as when groups are storming and performing at the same time. Groups even occasionally

go back to previous stages. Many interpreters of stage model has assumed that the group becomes effective as it passes through first four stages.

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

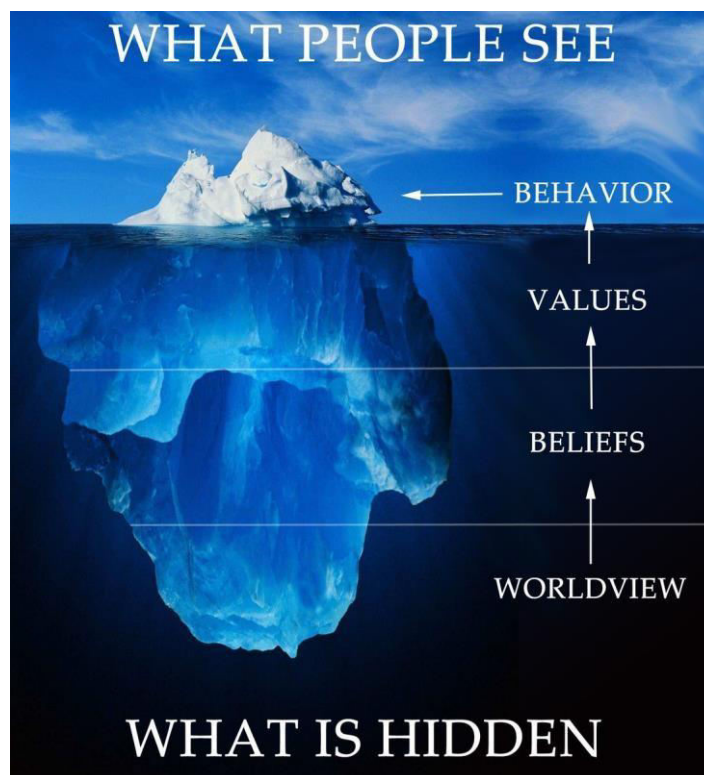
MODULE IV

- A **conflict** is a struggle between people which may be physical, or between **conflicting** ideas.
- **Conflicts** can either be within one person, or they can involve several people or groups.

Types of conflict – person vs person, person vs nature, person vs self, person vs society

Causes of Conflict

- Past history/personality issues
- Different values and guiding principles
- Different perceptions or positions on the issue
- Lack of clarity



HEALTHY CONFLICT

HEALTHY CONFLICT CAN:

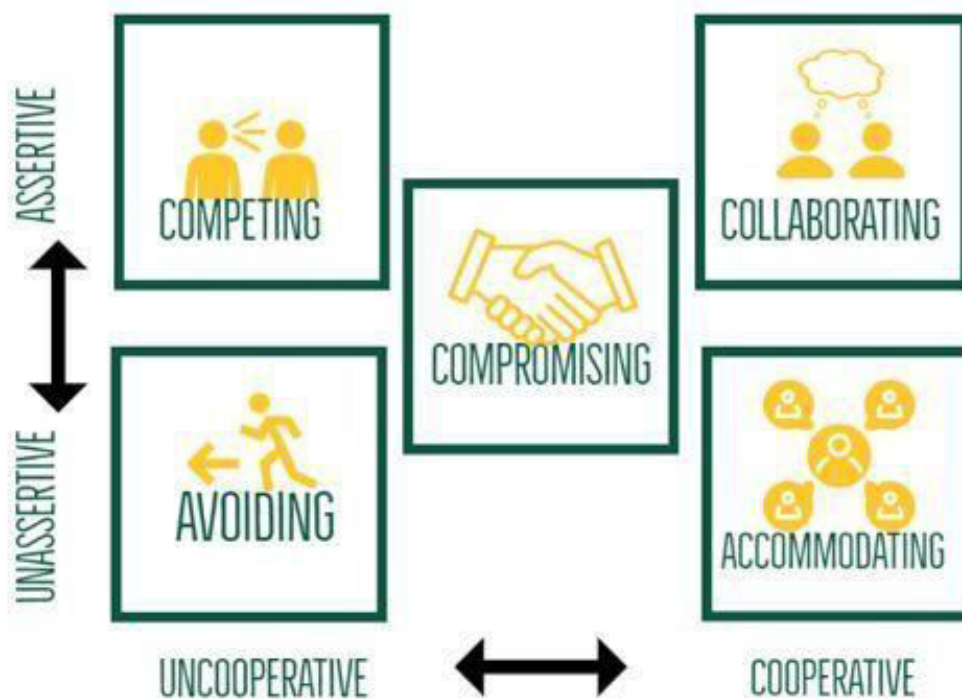
- 1) MAKE GROUPS CONSIDER A WIDE RANGE OF OPTIONS
- 2) BOOST CREATIVE THINKING
- 3) KEEP GROUPS ATTENTIVE TO ALL INTERESTS
- 4) HELP HEAR EVERYONE'S IDEAS
- 5) FOCUS ON THE FACTS AND STAY OBJECTIVE
- 6) USE A LOGICAL APPROACH TO CONSIDER SOLUTIONS

UNHEALTHY CONFLICT

UNHEALTHY CONFLICT CAN:

- 1) ENCOURAGE THOSE WHO THINK THEY ARE "RIGHT" TO FEEL SUPERIOR TO THOSE WHO ARE "WRONG"
- 2) BRING OUT PERSONAL ATTACKS AND BLAME
- 3) GENERATE DISTRUST
- 4) STIFLE COLLABORATION
- 5) MAKE PARTICIPANTS UNSET

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument



THE FIVE DYSFUNCTIONS OF A TEAM

01 DYSFUNCTION #1:	<p>ABSENCE OF TRUST</p> <p>The fear of being vulnerable with team members prevents the building of trust within the team.</p>
02 DYSFUNCTION #2:	<p>FEAR OF CONFLICT</p> <p>The desire to preserve artificial harmony stifles the occurrence of productive, ideological conflict.</p>
03 DYSFUNCTION #3:	<p>LACK OF COMMITMENT</p> <p>The lack of clarity or buy-in prevents team members from making decisions they will stick to.</p>
04 DYSFUNCTION #4:	<p>AVOIDANCE OF ACCOUNTABILITY</p> <p>The need to avoid interpersonal discomfort prevents team members from holding one another accountable for their behaviors and performance.</p>
05 DYSFUNCTION #5:	<p>INATTENTION TO RESULTS</p> <p>The pursuit of individual goals and personal status erodes the focus on collective success.</p>

Thomas-Kilmann Instrument assesses an individual's typical behavior in conflict situations and describes it along 2 dimensions: Assertiveness and Cooperativeness.

1. Competing – the goal is to win.
2. Avoiding – the goal is to delay. If you remember, earlier we saw the stat that 53% of people use this method. When faced with a conflict, they delay the response.
3. Accommodating – the goal is to yield
4. Collaborating – the goal is mutual participation
5. Compromising – the goal is to find middle ground

Competing is effective:

- When quick decisive action is needed
- When unpopular action must be taken on important issues
- When the issue is vital and the right course is clear
- To protect against people who take advantage of noncompetitive behavior

Accommodating is effective:

- When you are wrong, learning is important, or demonstrating reasonableness is critical
- When creating goodwill is paramount
- When harmony is important

Avoiding is effective:

- When the issue is relatively trivial
- When you know you can't be satisfied
- When the costs of conflict outweigh the benefits of resolution
- To allow time to "cool off"
- When others can resolve the issue more effectively

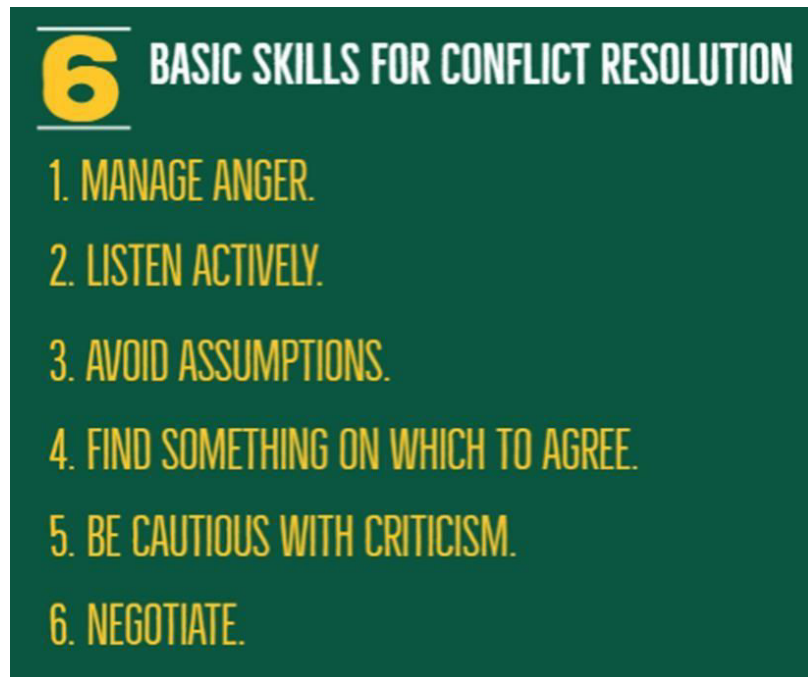
Collaborating is effective:

- When it's important that both sides be integrated
- When you want to learn and fully understand others' views
- To merge different perspectives and insights
- To work through hard feelings that have interfered with interpersonal relationships

Compromising is effective:

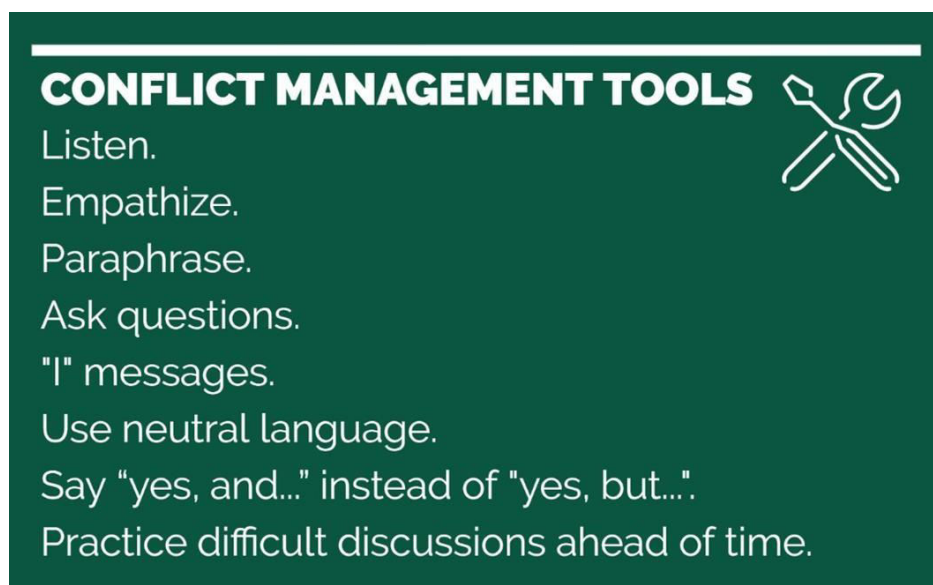
- When goals are less important than avoiding the disruption caused by more assertive conflict resolution styles
- When people have equal power and commitment to mutually exclusive goals
- To quickly reach a solution

- When it's important to reach a win-win for all involved



conflict is actually normal and healthy. Conflict is a vital ingredient to organizational success.

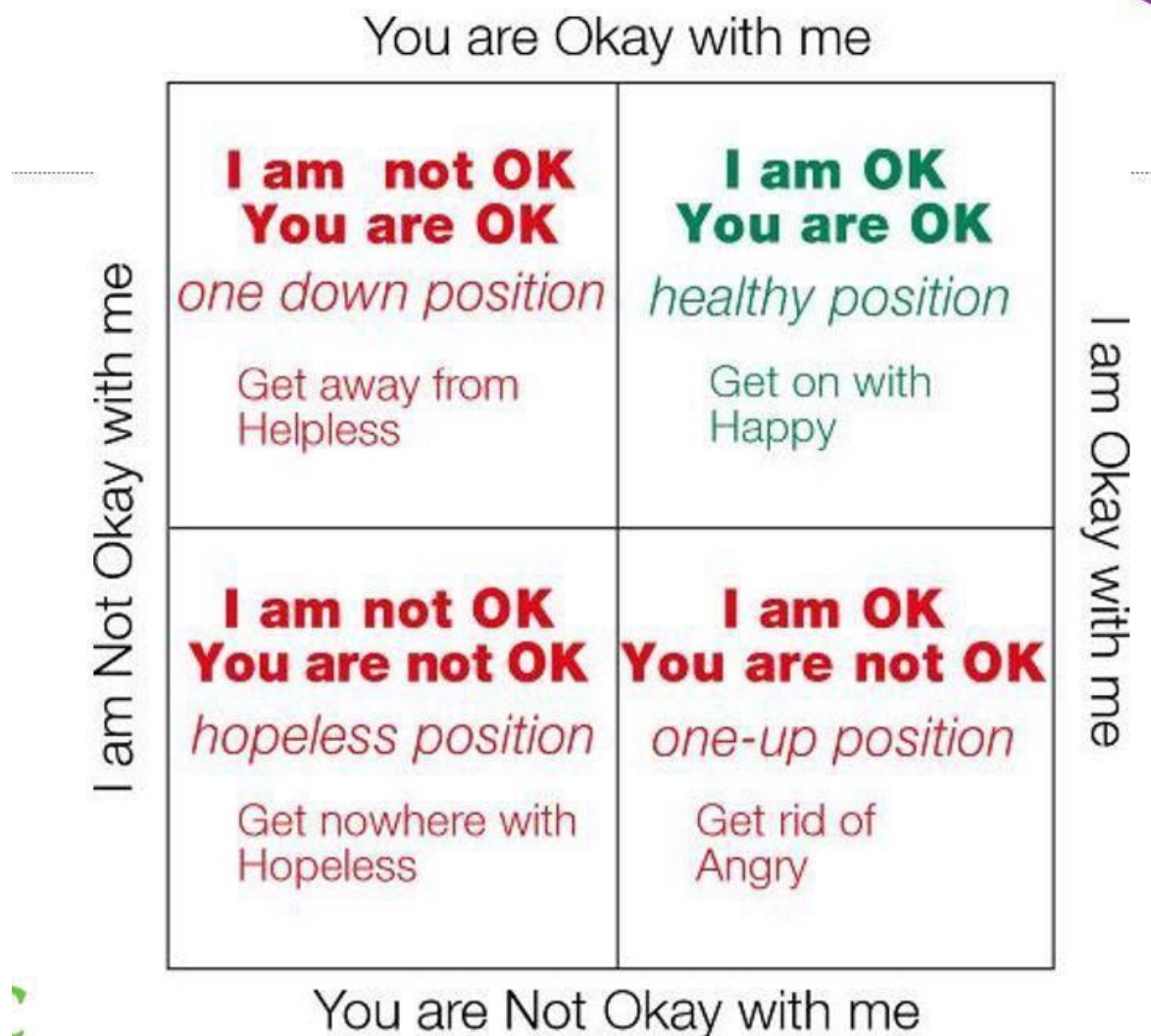
The most effective teams are those in which members feel safe enough to disagree with one another. A culture where dissent is allowed, or even encouraged, can spur innovation, diversity of thought and better decision-making.



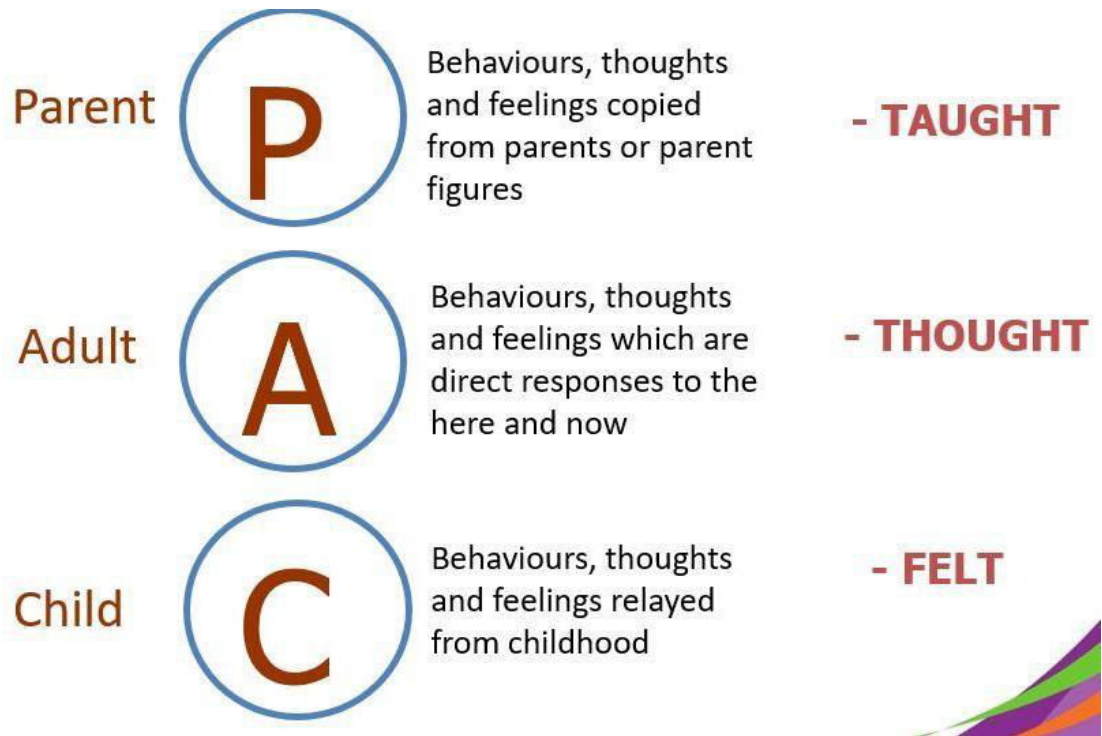
TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

- Dr Eric Berne 1958

System for improving communication and for understanding human behaviour.



- A stroke is a unit of attention
- Two kinds of strokes: I 'stroke' you for what you do. I 'stroke you for being you'.
- Confront privately (people also need constructive criticism. Give positive strokes privately and publicly.
- Ego states = six distinct personality segments. Each has its own set of beliefs and behaviour, and each interacts differently with other people.



Effective ego states (blue)	Ineffective ego states (red)
NP – Nurturing Parent	CP – Critical Parent
A – Adult	CC – Compliant child
NC – Natural child	RC – Rebellious Child

An exchange of strokes between two people is the basic transaction of human communication.

Transaction is the fundamental unit of social intercourse.

Transactions can be:

a./ complementary

b./ crossed

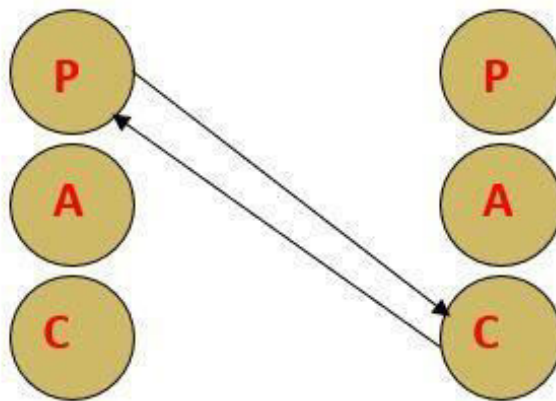
c./ ulterior - games

Transactional analysis - Transactions between people are seen as having 3 levels:

1. Complementary – both people are operating from the same ego state
2. Crossed – the other person reacts from an unexpected ego state
3. Ulterior – two ego states within the same person but one disguises the other

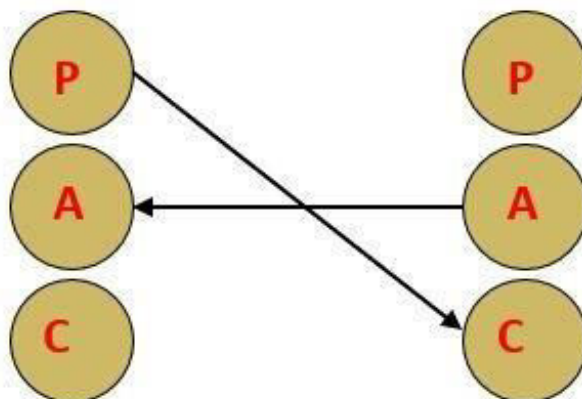
Four basic life scripts:

Complementary Transactions



This is a **complementary** transaction because the employee accepts the child ego state assigned to him by the director and responds in child ego state.

Crossed Transaction



DIRECTOR

EMPLOYEE

"You're three hours late, I want an explanation."

"Oh, didn't you get held up by that accident on the road as well?"

This is a **crossed** transaction because although the manager, **parent** ego state, attempted to address the employee as a **child**, the employee **refuses** this ego state and responds in **adult** ego state to the manager's ego state.

A **crossed** transaction is any transaction where the person being spoken to **refuses** the ego state they are assigned by the first speaker.

I'm OK, you're OK – ideal

I'm OK, you're not OK – get away from me

I'm not OK, you're OK – I'll never get anywhere

I'm not OK, you're not OK – get rid of each other

Attitude toward Oneself	Positive	I'm OK — You're not OK	I'm OK — You're OK
	Negative	I'm not OK — You're not OK	I'm not OK — You're OK
		Negative	Positive

Attitude toward Others



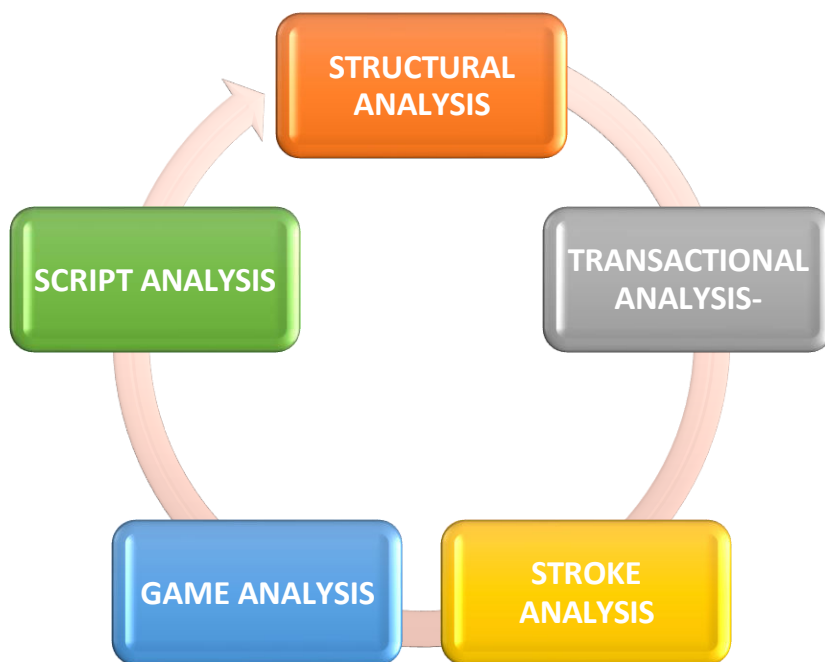
Drivers: from Transactional Analysis



- **TRY HARDY:** Puts a lot of effort into new projects. Well-motivated, enthusiastic, creative. Can look at all sides of a problem. Goes off on a tangent. Doesn't stick to the agenda. Butterfly mind and may drown people with their ideas. Try Hard is ruled by the motto that it is the effort that matters. People with this Driver feel 'OK' when they work very hard, whether they actually accomplish something or not. At least they tried. They have a tendency to make things complicated and to lose themselves in detail instead of seeing the broad outlines. The classic message from school would have been 'needs to Try Harder next time.'
- **PLEASE PEOPLE:** Good team members who encourage harmony in the team. Has empathy and understanding and helps quieter members within the team. Agrees with everyone, even with both sides of a disagreement. Can be reluctant to offer an opinion of their own. A person that is in an active Please People Driver often cares more about other peoples needs than about themselves. The internal message is that you're only 'OK' when you take care of others and that doing so will make others appreciate you. People with this Driver tend to see themselves as responsible for how other people feel.
- **BE PERFECT:** Has a quest for perfection and a reputation for producing accurate reliable work. They check facts, prepare well and pays attention to detail. Can get bogged down with detail. Wants to record everything and uses long words and long sentences. This Driver makes a person seek perfection in one or several ways. Often in terms of maintaining a completely flawless exterior or maybe in trying to achieve perfect speech, perfect arrangements, perfect presentation, etc. The internal message is "You ought to be better". You are not good enough if a mistake happens. Instead, a person with this

Driver will constantly try to improve themselves hoping to one day become accepted. By whom? We do not know!

- **BE STRONG:** Stays clam under pressure. Feels energised in a crisis. Thinks logically when other panic. Can stay emotionally detached. Logical thinker. Talks in monotone. Appears to be like a poker player with no emotion. Attempt to solve problems by being strong and carrying heavy loads both physically and mentally. The internal message that a person with a Be Strong Driver has is that you should not let others think that you are weak.
- **HURRY UP:** Can work fast and achieves a lot in a short space of time. Responds well to short deadlines. Likes having a lot of things to do. Talks very fast, gets impatient, interrupts and finishes other peoples sentences, fidgets and may drum fingers on table. This Driver can lead to rushing things when it is not necessary and sometimes even when it would be better to take



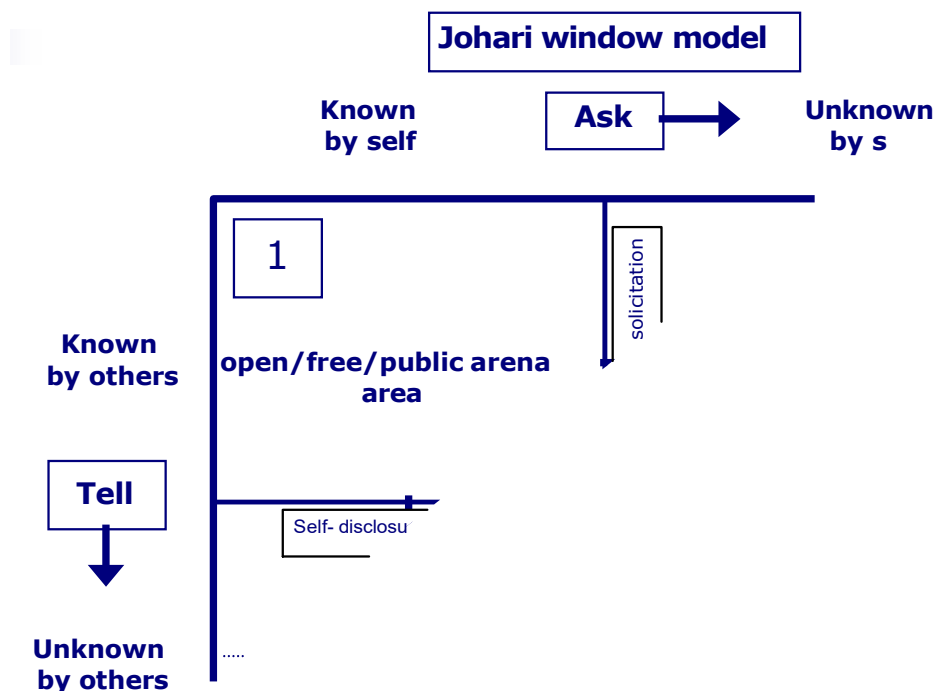
time. The internal message that people with a Hurry Up Driver gives themselves is that they will be late for something. A feeling of not being good enough if not in a hurry.

1. Structural Analysis - How to analyse personalities
2. Transactional Analysis- How people communicate
3. Stroke Analysis - How people recognise each other
4. Game Analysis - Ulterior Transactions

5. Script Analysis - Life Positions

Script analysis – everyone develops a life script by age 5 & these scripts determine how one interacts with others based upon the interpretation of external events

A negative life script occurs when the person receives lots of injunctions by the parents that used the word DON'T



- Interpersonal learning means a change has taken place so the Q1 is larger and one or more of the other quadrants also has grown smaller.
- Working with others is facilitated by a large enough area of free activity. An increased Q1 means more of the resources and skills in the relationships can be applied to a task.
- There is universal curiosity about the Unknown area, but is held in check by custom, social training and diverse fears.
- Sensitivity means appreciating the covert aspect of behaviour, in quadrant 2, 3 and 4, and respecting the desire of others to keep them so.

FOR MORE INFORMATION REFER OB – GOOGLE CLASSROOM PPTS

MODULE V

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE & CLIMATE

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

Characteristics

- Organisational Culture has a number of important characteristics. Some of the foremost points are the following:
- Innovation and Risk taking: The employees are encouraged to give new ideas and take risks.
- Attention to detail: The degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis and attention to detail.
- Outcome orientation: This degree which focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve these outcomes.
- People orientation: The degree to which work decision makers take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organisation.
- Team orientation: The degree to which work activities are organized around teams rather than individuals.
- Aggressiveness: The degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easy going.
- Stability: The degree to which organisational emphasize maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.

Culture is a Descriptive Term

Organisational culture is concerned with how employees perceive the characteristics of an organisation. That is, it is a descriptive term. This is important because it differentiates the concept from that of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction seeks to measure affective responses to work environment. It is concerned with how employees feel about the organisation's expectation, reward policies, and the like. Although the two terms undoubtedly have overlapping characteristics, keep in mind that the terms organisational culture is descriptive while job satisfaction is evaluative.

Accepting that organisational culture has common objectives does not mean however, that there cannot be subcultures within any given culture. Most large organisation have a dominant culture and many numbers of subcultures.

Strong Vs Weak Cultures

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

Culture's Functions

ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

According to Campbell, "Organisational climate can be defined as a set of attributes specific to a particular organisation that may be induced from the way that organisation deals with its members and its environment. For the individual members within the organisation, climate takes the form of a set of attitudes and experiences which describe the organisation in terms of both static characteristics (such as degree of autonomy) and behaviour outcome and outcome- outcome contingencies."

Types of Organisational Climate

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

FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

- In every organization, there exist certain factors that exert deep influence on the climate.
- Schneider and Barlett describe six factors that have an influence over organizational climate such as managerial support, inter-agency conflict, agent dependence and general satisfaction.
- Lawrence James and Allan Jones have identified five factors influencing climate, which include management philosophy, organizational structure and process, which include communication, motivation and leadership, physical environment and values.

- Similarly, Kahn has identified factors such as rules orientation, the nurture of subordinates, strict supervision and promotional achievement orientation.
- Thus, it is very difficult to generalize exactly the factors affecting the climate.
- Organizational climate has a major influence on human performance through its impact on the motivation, job satisfaction and attitudes of people.

MODULE VI

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

The term change refers to “any alteration which occurs in the overall work environment of an organization”. According to Organizational point of view, the term change defined as, “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”. In short, “Change” defined as, “making things different”.

TYPES OF CHANGE

1) Organizational wide Range Change

Organization-wide change is a large-scale transformation that affects the whole company. This could include restructuring leadership, adding a new policy, or introducing a new enterprise technology.

2) Transformational Change

Transformational change specifically targets a company’s organizational strategy. Cultural trends, social climate, and technological progress are some of the many factors that considerably organization led to focus.

3) Personnel Change

Personnel change happens when a company experiences hyper-growth. The company must move forward hence hiring employees is essential for an organization as employing new staff means and thereby achieving further growth.

4) Unplanned Change

Unplanned change is typically defined as necessary action following unexpected events. While unplanned change cannot be predicted it can be dealt with in an organized manner.

5) Remedial Change

Leaders implement remedial changes when they identify a poor performance in organization. Remedial change effort at specific problem on hand, they still require effective organizational change strategies to be effective.

CHANGE PROCESS

1) Clearly define change

In this step it is necessary to determine the value of the change, which will quantify the effort and inputs. Change should always answers the questions like,

What do we need to change?

Why is this change required?

2) Determine impacts

This stage focuses to form the blueprint for where training and support is needed the most to mitigate the impacts.

What are the impacts of the change?

Who will the change affect the most?

How will the change be received?

3) Develop a strategy

At this stage determine the most effective means of communication for the group or individual.

How will the change be communicated?

How will feedback be managed?

4) Providing training

It is most important to train the people inside the organization not to resist the change. Both on-the-job and off-the-job training will improve company's growth.

What behaviors and skills are required to achieve business results?

What training delivery methods will be most effective?

5) Implement a support structure

It is essential to assist employees to emotionally and practically adjust to the change and to build proficiency of behaviours and technical skills needed to achieve desired business results.

Where is support most required?

What types of support will be most effective?

6) Measure the process

Throughout the change management process, a structure should be put in place to measure the business impact of the changes and ensure that continued reinforcement opportunities exist to build proficiencies.

Did the change assist in achieving business goals?

Was the change management process successful?

What could have been done differently?

FACTORS INFLUENCING CHANGE

A. INTERNAL FACTORS

1) Change in Managerial Personnel

Old managers are replaced by new managers which are necessary because of retirement, promotion, transfer or dismissal. Each new manager brings their ideas and way of working in the organization.

2) Nature of Workforce

The nature of the workforce has changed with time. Different work values have expressed by different generations. The new generation of workers has better educational value they place greater emphasis on human values and questions the authority of managers.

3) Deficiency in Organization

Sometimes, changes are necessary because of deficiency in the present organizational arrangement and process. These deficiencies may be in the form of an unmanageable span of management, the large number of managerial levels, lacks in coordination between various departments, obstacles in communication, the multiplicity of committees, lack of uniformity in policy decisions, lack of cooperation between line and staff and so on.

4) Avoid developing inertia

Organizational changes take place just to avoid developing inertia or inflexibility. Thus, changes are incorporated so that the personnel develops liking for change and there is no unnecessary resistance when the major change in the organization is brought about.

B. EXTERNAL FACTORS

1) Technology

Organization has to adopt new technology. When the organizations adopt new technology, its work structure is affecting and a new equilibrium has to establish.

2) 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 that may affect the competitive position of an organization other organizations supplying the same products and buyers who are buying the product. Any change in these forces may require suitable changes in the organization.

3) Social Change

The social change has taken place because of the several forces like the level of education, urbanization, feeling of autonomy and international impact due to new information sources. These social changes affect the behaviour of people in the organization. Therefore, it is required to adjust its working so that it matches people.

4) Political and Legal Change

Political and legal factors broadly define the activities which an organization can undertake and the methods which will follow it in accomplishing those activities. Any change in these political and legal factors may affect the organizational operation.

PROCESS/ THEORY OF PLANNED CHANGE

When the management wants to implement any Organizational changes, it wishes to be carried out cautiously because this is a very sensitive topic. Adapting to change is very important for all of the employees. The expected Organizational change is being implemented in three different stages according to Kurt Lewin. You are – Stages of Planned Change

1. Unfreezing – At this point, where the change is needed or not, the company studies whether and why the change is necessary. Considering the situation as a whole, the organization decides for an appropriate change. As required a plan and approach is formulated.
2. Changing – The organization is executing the change plan and programme at this stage. To this end, sufficient steps are taken to ensure cohesion and collaboration between the staff and management, preventing miscommunication or conflicts. Adequate supervision and control shall be structured as required.
3. Refreezing – To convey Organizational change, this is the ultimate stage. The company is attempting to evaluate the feasibility of the transition by means of oversight. When the management collects all this material, it interprets whether or not to continue with or replace change by any other alternatives or to make more minor changes.



Resistance to Organizational Change:

Change resistance can be one of the puzzling problems a manager faces because of the fact that it may take several forms. People may also leave, they may also show lateness, lack of motivation to work, increased absenteeism, transfer demands, wild-cat strikes, shoddy work, productivity reduction etc. Resistance to change may also be labelled as:

1. Industrial Resistance
2. Organizational Resistance

1. Industrial Resistance: Individual resistance might also be there due to the fact of the following reasons:

A. Economic Reasons:

(a) **Obsolescence of Skills:** When a man or woman feels his abilities will simply become obsolete with the introduction of newer processes: he will resist the change. A twenty-year professional accountant, for example: is more likely to face the implementation of a pc to plan wage payments due to the fact that he thinks his salary and status may be affected.

(b) **Economic loss scare:** People face change because it opens the risk of directly or indirectly cutting their earnings.

B. Personal reasons for doing so:

(a) Defensiveness to the Ego: A sales manager can often honestly refuse a salesman's advice because the manager perceives his ego may be deflated by accepting the suggestion.

(b) Quo Status. Most human beings fed relaxed with the status quo and resist change strongly. as it may also contain uncertainty and risk.

(c) Afraid of Unknown: Transition brings with it unknown and expected threats and sores people regularly. A manager may also refuse to promote that requires his relocation to some other state, for unknown concern.

C. Social Considerations:

(a) Social displaced persons: The implementation of change (e.g., relocation) may also result in the dissolution of working groups and, for that reason, in disruption of people's established social ties.

(b) Peer issuing: Whenever the peers are reluctant to change, they force the individual subordinate workers bent to embrace the transition, to oppose it.

2. Organizational Resistance: Additionally, resistance may also be present at the Organizational level. Many organizations are built so that they can stand up to innovation. Some of the motives of Organizational resistance are:

(a) Threats to Power and Influence: Many people (especially sitting at the top levels) face change as they undergo a shift that can affect their organization's role, influence, and effect.

(b) Organizational Composition: Many Organizational frameworks (e.g., hierarchical structure) have mechanisms built in to alter resistivity.

(c) Resource Constraints: Failure to access financial, content, and human capital may also serve as a resistance to change.

and feeding that information back to the system to promote increased understanding of the system by its members (Alderfer, 1981).

Purpose of Organizational diagnosis is to establish a widely shared understanding of a system and based upon that understanding to determine whether change is desirable.”

ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- “Organizational development is a topic of study, theory, as well as a practice committed to improving understanding and effectiveness of how people achieve positive organizational change and production.”
- Organizational development is no longer a transition in a single day that can be completed in an organization, but rather a gradual process that needs to be achieved gradually and with the aid of taking care of the outside world.
- Organization Development Techniques/ Interventions Organizations follow the methodology of Organizational improvement to modify the actions of certain individuals who oppose change. It is an application for bringing about a change in human values, norms, attitudes, perception and behavior and for improving the quality of interpersonal relations.

Some of the major systemic development strategies are —

1. Sensitivity Technique Sensitivity refers to the psychological dimension of the human mind which has to be formed by the community to behave as anticipated. Through this strategy it reveals one's own vulnerability and participants understand how others respond to it. Stress is about group dynamics and resolving conflicts over interrelationships. The intention is to improve human actions with the goal of maintaining a smooth interpersonal relationship without any power or control. Members are encouraged to have an open, heart-to-heart talk for healthy relationship growth. Training in sensitivity borders on psychotherapy, where both the feelings and the body language are considered.
2. Survey Feedback In this technique, the discrepancies between groups are weeded out by using questionnaires that perceive the difference in perception between the same working family, group or department. The data obtained are then tabulated and allocated for further deliberation. These acts as the basis for further discussions and discrepancies if any can be resolved through open discussions with all concerned, defending and opposing until there is consensus. For most cases, this approach focuses on concepts and not on people who put forward these concepts.
3. Process Consultation Through this strategy, an organization can also search for expert assistance from inside the organization or from outside. The firm will look at the process consultation is performed by an external specialist with the required assistance from within the company given by the authorities.
4. Building a team, Team Building Attempts at group or intergroup level are made in this technique. The key aim is to enhance teamwork while enhancing the overall performance as a group. This can

be achieved by setting goals: building interpersonal relationships, evaluating roles and responsibilities to interpret roles and responsibilities as well as examining team processes.

5. Intergroup Development Intergroup development approach aims to alter group beliefs about themselves or about other groups. This can be done with the help of organizing unbiased group meetings: creating a list consisting of self-perception, views of other departments and how others view them: trying to recognize and solve the real cause of conflicts, or sub-grouping the groups to get rid of the difference in perceptions and impressions that groups have about each other

Five Models of Organisational Behaviour

The five models of organisational behaviour are the:

- Autocratic model,
- Custodial model,
- Supportive model,
- Collegial model and
- System model.

1. Autocratic model

Autocratic model is the model that depends upon strength, power and formal authority. In an autocratic organisation, the people (management/owners) who manage the tasks in an organisation have formal authority for controlling the employees who work under them. These lower-level employees have little control over the work function. Their ideas and innovations are not generally welcomed, as the key decisions are made at the top management level.

The guiding principle behind this model is that management/owners have enormous business expertise, and the average employee has relatively low levels of skill and needs to be fully directed and guided. This type of autocratic management system was common in factories in the industrial revolution era.

One of the more significant problems associated with the autocratic model is that the management team is required to micromanage the staff – where they have to watch all the details and make every single decision. Clearly, in a more modern-day organisation, where highly paid specialists are employed, an autocratic system becomes impractical and highly inefficient.

The autocratic model is also a detractor to job satisfaction and employee morale. This is because employees do not feel valued and part of the overall team. This leads to a low-level of work performance. While the autocratic model might be appropriate for some very automated factory situations, it has become outdated for most modern-day organisations.

2. Custodial model

The custodial model is based around the concept of providing economic security for employees – through wages and other benefits – that will create employee loyalty and motivation. In some countries, many professional companies provide health benefits, corporate cars, financial packaging of salary, and so on – these are incentives designed to attract and retain quality staff.

The underlying theory for the organisation is that they will have a greater skilled workforce, more motivated employees, and have a competitive advantage through employee knowledge and expertise.

One of the downsides with the custodial model is that it also attracts and retains low performance staff as well. Or perhaps even deliver a lower level of motivation from some staff who feel that they are “trapped” in an organisation because the benefits are too good to leave.

3. Supportive model

Unlike the two earlier approaches, the supportive model is focused around aspiring leadership. It is not based upon control and authority (the autocratic model) or upon incentives (the custodial model), but instead tries to motivate staff through the manager-employee relationship and how employees are treated on a day-to-day basis. Quite opposite to the autocratic model, this approach states that employees are self-motivated and have value and insight to contribute to the organisation, beyond just their day-to-day role.

The intent of this model is to motivate employees through a positive workplace where their ideas are encouraged and often adapted. Therefore, the employees have some form of “buy-in” to the organisation and its direction.

4. Collegial model

The collegial model is based around teamwork – everybody working as colleagues (hence the name of the model). The overall environment and corporate culture need to be aligned to this model, where everybody is actively participating – is not about status and job titles – everybody is encouraged to work together to build a better organisation.

The role of the manager is to foster this teamwork and create positive and energetic workplaces. In much regard, the manager can be considered to be the “coach” of the team. And as coach, the goal is to make the team perform well overall, rather than focus on their own performance, or the performance of key individuals.

The collegial model is quite effective in organisations that need to find new approaches – marketing teams, research and development, technology/software – indeed anywhere the competitive landscape is constantly changing and ideas and innovation are key competitive success factors.

5. System model

The final organisational model is referred to as the system model. This is the most contemporary model of the five models discussed in this article. In the system model, the organisation looks at the overall structure and team environment, and considers that individuals have different goals, talents and potential. The intent of the system model is to try and balance the goals of the individual with the goals of the organisation.

Individuals obviously want good remuneration, job security, but also want to work in a positive work environment where the organisation adds value to the community and/or its customers. The system of model should be an overall partnership of managers and employees with a common goal, and where everybody feels that they have a stake in the organisation.