

**ORGANISATIONAL
BEHAVIOUR
(DMHR04)
(M.A. HRM)**



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LESSON - 1

MEANING, SCOPE AND APPROACHES

LESSON PLAN :

- 1.1 OBJECTIVES
- 1.2 DEFINITION AND IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
 - 1.2.1 DEFINITION
 - 1.2.2 IMPORTANCE
- 1.3 SCOPE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
 - 1.3.1 Explanation of Behaviour
 - 1.3.2 Prediction of Behaviour
 - 1.3.3 Control of Behaviour
- 1.4 APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
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 - 1.4.2 Behaviouristic Approach
 - 1.4.3 Social Learning Approach
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 Model Questions
- 1.7 Suggested Readings

1.1 OBJECTIVES :

The objectives of the above lesson include, definition scope and approaches to organisational behaviour (OB). The scope indicates the territory of OB whereas the approaches together reveal us as to why the OB occurs and how to predict and control it.

1.2. MEANING AND IMPORTANCE OF OB :

1.2.1 Meaning :

Organisational behaviour is defined by various authors in various ways. Stephen P. Robbins defines saying that organisational behaviour as 'the study of people at work'. Elaborating this crisp definition further, he adds that "organisational behaviour is the systematic study of the actions and attitudes that people exhibit within organisation". He also says that OB is concerned with 'development of people skills' and that towards this object it helps us to explain, predict and control human behaviour.

Richard Pettinger says that organisational behaviour is concerned with the study of the behaviour and interactions of people in restricted and organised settings. It involves understanding people and predicting their behaviour and how it influences and shapes. He also mentions that OB is concerned with the following seven points.

1. The purpose for which organisation is created.
2. The behaviour of individuals and an understanding of pressures and influences that cause them to act and react in particular ways.

3. The qualities that individuals bring to particular situations.
4. The creation of groups.
5. The background and context within which activities take place.
6. The relationships and interactions in the wider environment and with other organisations and groups.
7. The management and ordering of the whole and its parts into productive and collective work relationships.

Schemermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn define OB as the 'study of individuals and groups in organisations'. The above authors have identified four special features of OB. They are the following.

1. OB is an interdisciplinary body of knowledge with strong ties to behavioural sciences - Psychology, sociology and Anthropology - and allied social sciences like economics and political science.
2. OB focuses on applications and seeks relevancy in answering practical questions relating to human behaviour in organisations.
3. OB uses contingency thinking i.e. it does not assume that there is 'one best way' to manage people and organisation and solutions must be tailored to fit the exact nature of each situation.
4. OB uses scientific methods to develop and to empirically test generalisations about behaviour in an organisation.

Organisational behaviour is a mix of three-kinds of behaviours. They are individual behaviour, group behaviour and organisational system behaviour.

The individual behaviour is conditioned by personality, perception, attitudes, motivation and learning. Therefore an understanding of these concepts facilitates the understanding of the individual behaviour.

The behaviour of people in groups is something 'more than the sum total of each individual acting in one's own way. Further, the individual's behaviour, when all alone., is different from that which he exhibits in the company of a group. Analysis of group behaviour deals with reasons for group formation, stages of group development, group structure, group cohesiveness, nature of group decision making, leadership, power, politics and conflict, all of which form part of group behaviour.

The third aspect is the behaviour of organisational system. The organisational system here refers to the formal organisation. The organisational system behaviour deal issues like how organisation's performance and appraisal system, organisational culture and its impact on the behaviour of people and the various organisational changes and developmental techniques that managers use to influence the behaviour to the benefit of the organisation.

1.2.2 Importance of OB :

Organisational behaviour according to pettinger, is of concern to all those who organise, create, order, direct, manage or supervise the activities of others. It is also of importance to those who are interested in building relationships between individuals, groups and parts of organisation or between various organizations for, all these relationships are rooted in human behaviour. OB helps

managers in explaining, predicting and controlling human behaviour. It increases managers reasoning ability, predictive potential and influence on human beings. OB is useful in harmonising interpersonal relations, understanding organisational psychology, organisational sociology, human motivations and through them to raise the productivity of the organisations.

OB's primary focus is on developing, what Stephen Robbin's calls, 'people skill'. The people skill or the skill of understanding and dealing with people is found to be deficient in most managers. This understanding is necessary for enabling managers to motivate employees towards higher levels of performance. It is also helpful in planning the organizational operations. A large part of the success in any management job is developing good interpersonal or people skills. As one of the CEO of an American accounting firm put it, "pure technical knowledge is only going to get to a point. Beyond that, interpersonal skills become critical". A study of 191 top executives, working with six of the fortune 5600 companies on the reasons for managerial failure, found that the single biggest reason for failure is poor interpersonal skills. The North Carolina (USA) based centre for creative Leadership has estimated that fifty per cent of all managers and thirty per cent of all senior managers have some or the other difficulty with people.

OB is useful for managers to develop a better work related understanding of self and other people. It can help to expand their potential for career or organisational success in the dynamic, shifting, complex and challenging workplaces of today and tomorrow. A scientific understanding of the organisational behaviour is all the more needed, today than ever before, due to increasing educational and awareness levels and diversification of social background of workforce. Today's manager is required to be more sensitive to the feelings, attitudes and sentiments of workforce than his predecessors. OB sensitises managers on these issues.

1.3 SCOPE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR :

The scope of OB is mainly confined to the achievement of four goals. They are 1) Describe human behaviour 2) Explanation of human behaviour 3) Prediction of human behaviour and 4) control of human behaviour.

1.3.1 Describe of Human Behaviour :

OB helps us to know how people behave under a variety of conditions. This provide a theoretical knowledge to the managers.

1.3.2 Explanation Of Behaviour :

OB seeks to explain as to why people behave the way they do, In other words, OB goes into the roots of behaviour in order to help us in determining the connective cause.

OB seeks to develop conceptual tools to enhance our understanding of the behavioural complexities. The explanation relates to diagnostic dimension of OB.

1.3.3 Prediction of behaviour :

Prediction is guessing about future events. It seeks to determine the possible outcomes of a given action. When the manager of a company assess as to how the employees will react to a five day work week in place of a six day one, we can say that he is engaged in the prediction of behaviour. The knowledge of OB enhances our ability to predict the future of the behavioural responses to a change that is to be introduced.

1.3.4 Control of Behaviour :

Control of behaviour implies an effort on the part of a manager for causing one kind of behaviour and preventing behaviour of another kind. It is modification of behaviour. This goal is more application oriented than the other two. It is also the most controversial of the goals of OB. The controversy is because of the ethical considerations involved. One person controlling another person's behaviour is considered as a bad proposition because in a democratic society controlling another person's behaviour amounts to interference with the privacy or personal freedom of that person. And if this kind of control is subtle and goes on without the knowledge of the subject, it is all the more bad from a democratic point of view. Despite this controversy the managers view this goal of OB as the most valuable of the different goals of OB since it enhances their effectiveness of managers. Despite the controversy, controlling the behaviour is the ultimate goal of OB. The control of behaviour represents the action and the manipulative dimension of OB.

1.4 APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR :

There are three major approaches to organisational behaviour. Each one of these approaches has a distinct perception of understanding about OB. The three major approaches of OB are :

1. Cognitive approach
2. Behaviouristic approach
3. Social-learning approach

1.4.1 Cognitive Approach :

At the beginning writers on organisational behaviour have taken a cognitive approach. Edward Tolman is a pioneering contributor to this approach.

The cognitive approach assume that cognition proceeds behaviour and the cognition best explains behaviour. Here cognition means the act of knowing an item of information. The cognition provides input into a persons thinking, perception, problem solving and processing of information, which together result in the behaviour. This approach gives importance to the individual as the key determinant of behaviour. The approach emphasizes the positive free-will aspects of human behaviour and utilises concepts such as expectancy, demand and incentive. This approach holds that analysis of perception, personality, attitudes, job satisfaction, motivation and goal-setting provide keys to an understanding of organisational behaviour. This approach has two limitations One, it gives excessive importance to individual, as the determinant of OB where as OB in reality is the result of the individual behaviour, group behaviour and the organisational system behaviour. Two, it also erroneously subscribes to the view that there is one to one relationship between cognition and behaviour or that perception automatically leads to behaviour. In reality, there can be a gap between the two, in the sense that knowledge of an item of information need not necessarily influence the behaviour of the person who has that information.

The major draw back of this approach is that it is mentalistic in the sense that it gives sole emphasis to mind as the governor of behaviour. It does not give importance to objective factors of environmental conditions which also influence behaviour.

1.4.2 The Behaviouristic Approach :

The behaviouristic or stimulus - response approach holds that behaviour is what counts and the internal state of an individual or cognition is of little importance. What the individual does is the important thing.

The behaviouristic approach is traced to the work of behaviourists such as Ivon pariot and John B.Watson, who stressed the importance of dealing with observable behaviours instead of the elusive mind as was the case with the cognitive approach. They used the classical conditioning experiments to formulate the stimulus - response explanation of human behaviour. This approach considers behaviour as environmentally based. Unlike the cognitive approach, it considers behaviour as the function of the stimulus. It there fore, concentrated mainly on stimulus and believes that behaviour occurs when the stimulus - response connection is made. For example if a person is pricked by a pin, he will flinch or when he is tapped below the kneecap, the person will extend the lower leg.

The modern behaviourism began with the works of B.F.Skinner, who has made important contributions to psychology. He makes a distinction between two kinds of behaviours viz., the respondent behaviour and the operant behaviour and said that the early behaviourists' approach explained only the respondent behaviour. Respondent behaviour means the behaviour that occurs as a response to stimulus. There is another kind of behaviour that is not considered and that is the operant behaviour. The operant behaviour is the one that is emitted by the individual without any external provocation or stimuli. Skinner complemented the work of early behaviourists by exposing this other dimension of behaviour. Further, he argued that behaviour is a function of its consequences and therefore the consequences explain the behaviour better than the stimulus. He focussed on the antecedents of the behaviour than the precedents of it.

The behaviourist approach is accused as deterministic in the sense that it sees behaviour as a function of stimulus. Another lacunae is that it neglects the role of human consciousness in emitting behaviour.

Since this approach assumes that behaviour is caused by external stimuli, it holds that behaviour can be changed by changing the environment in which one functions. By rewarding the desired behaviour and punishing the undesirable one, an individual or a group can influence others in a desired direction.

According to Jablousky and Devries the behaviouristic approach, to be effective, requires the following steps on the part of the managers.

1. Avoid using punishment as a primary means of obtaining desired behaviour.
2. Positively reinforce desired behaviour, and where possible ignore undesirable behaviour.
3. Minimise the time lag between desired response and reinforcement, or bridge the gap via verbal medium.
4. Apply positive reinforcement frequently, preferably on a variable ration schedule.
5. Ascertain the response level of each individual and use a shaping procedure to obtain a final complex response.
6. Ascertain contingencies which are experienced as positive or negative by the individual.
7. Specify the desired behaviour in explicitly operational terms.

1.4.3 The Social - Learning Approach:

The cognitive approach and the behaviourist approaches were criticised on the ground that they being mentalistic and deterministic, respectively. Both these theories are also dubbed as partial

theories because neither cognition and the individuals mind nor the stimulus do solely explain the human behaviour. The social - learning approach tries to integrate both the approaches and thus make them more relevant.

According to Fred Luthans, under the social-learning approach, people are thought to learn about their environment or alter or construct the environment to make reinforcers available, and note the importance of rules and symbolic processes in learning. Albert Bandura, Whose work is the most representative of this approach, says that the behaviour can best be explained in terms of a continuous and reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural and environmental determinants. The person and environment do not function independently from one another. The person and the environment, together with the behaviour itself, reciprocally interact to determine the environmental conditions which interim affect their behaviour in reciprocal manner. The experience generated by behaviour partly determines what a person becomes and can do, which in turn, affects subsequent behaviour. This triangular model can be depicted as shown below:

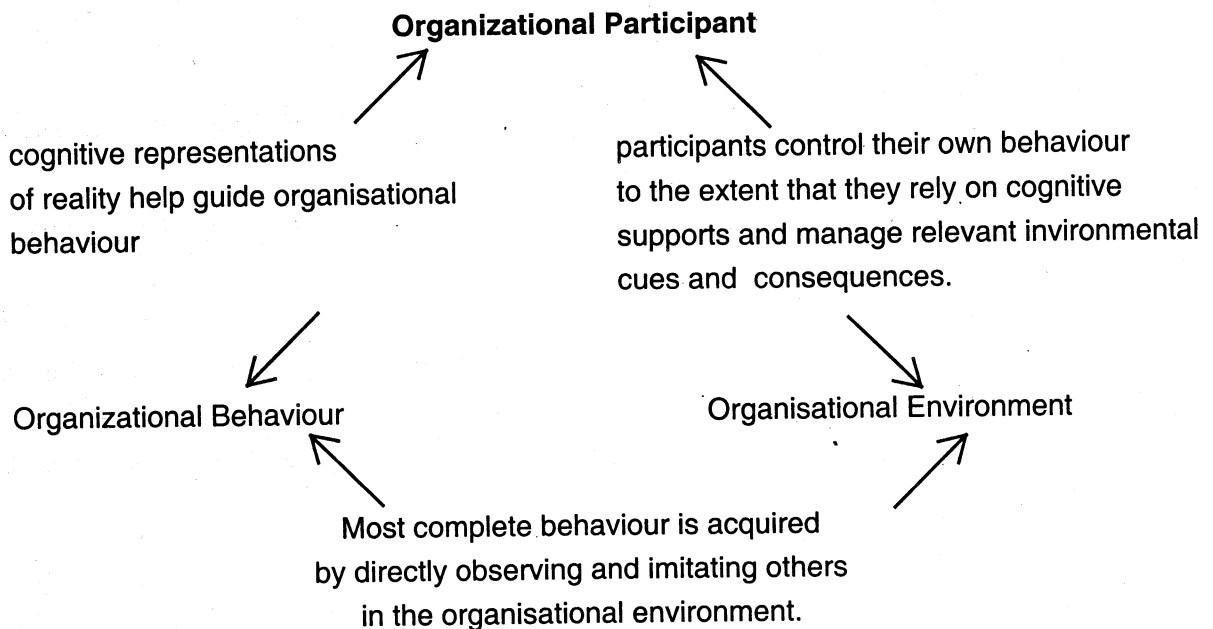


Figure 1 : Social Learning Approach to OB

After considering the three major approaches the first two are pure approaches while the last one is a synthetic one combining the first two. Chronologically, the cognitive approach was the first to emerge. It was followed by the behaviourist and the social learning approaches. The cognitive approach is relevant for an understanding of organisational behaviour, whereas the behaviouristic approach can lead to understanding as well as prediction and control of it. Since the goals of OB are three fold viz., understanding, prediction and control, the social-learning approach, which integrates and synthesises cognitive as well as behaviouristic approaches will help understand, predict and control the organisational behaviour better and therefore this is the most valid of all the approaches.

1.5 CONCLUSION :

Organisation behaviour is nothing but systematic study of people at work, and their attitudes and actions with a view to develop the people skill necessary for improving organisational effectiveness.

It deals with explanation, prediction and control of human behaviour in organisational contexts. It is an interdisciplinary body of knowledge, it is grounded in behavioural sciences, it is application oriented and is based on contingency thinking. It is an invaluable asset to all those who organise, manage, coordinate, control create, order, direct or supervise the activities of others. It can be approached from several perspectives such as cognitive, behaviouristic or more profitably from social-learning approaches.

1.6 MODEL QUESTIONS:

1. Explain the meaning and importance of OB.
2. Discuss the scope of organizational behaviour
3. What are the different approaches to OB? Discuss.
4. Write an essay on the meaning and scope of OB.

1.7 SUGGESTED READINGS:

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LESSON - 2

ELEMENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

LESSON PLAN :

- 2.1 OBJECTIVES**
- 2.2 ELEMENTS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR**
 - 2.2.1 PEOPLE
 - 2.2.2 STRUCTURE
 - 2.2.3 TECHNOLOGY
 - 2.2.4 ENVIRONMENT
- 2.3 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF OB**
 - 2.3.1 HISTORICAL ORIGIN
 - 2.3.2 RESEARCH STUDIES
 - 2.3.3 CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENTS
- 2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE OB FIELD**
- 2.5 CONCLUSION**
- 2.6 MODEL QUESTIONS**
- 2.7 SUGGESTED READINGS**

2.1 OBJECTIVES :

The objectives of the lesson is to explain various key elements of the organisational behaviour and also the historical development of OB field.

2.2. ELEMENTS :

The key elements in organisational behaviour are people, structure, technology, and the environment in which the organization operates. When people join together in an organisation to accomplish an objective, some kind of structure is required. People also use technology to help get the job done, so there is an interaction of people, structure, and technology, as shown in Fig.1. In addition, these elements are influenced by the external environment, and they influence it. Each of the four elements of organisational behavior will be considered briefly.

2.2.1 PEOPLE:

People make up the internal social system of the organisation. They consist of individuals and groups, large groups as well as small ones. There are unofficial, informal groups and more official, formal ones. Groups are dynamic. They form, change, and disband. The human organization today is not the same as it was yesterday, or the day before. People are the living , thinking, feeling being who work in the organisation to achieve their objectives. Organisations exist to serve people, rather than people exist to serve organisations.

2.2.2 STRUCTURE :

Structure defines the formal relationship of people in organisations. Different jobs are required to accomplish all of an organisation's activities. There are managers and employees, accountants and assemblers. These people have to be related in some structural way so that their work can be effectively coordinated. These relationships create complex problems of cooperation, negotiations, and decision making.

2.2.3 TECHNOLOGY :

Technology provides the resources with which people work and affects the tasks that they perform. They cannot accomplish much with their bare hands, so they build buildings, design machines, create work processes, and assemble resources. The technology used has a significant influence on working relationships. An assembly line is not the same as a research laboratory, and a steel mill does not have the same working conditions as a hospital. The great benefit of technology is that it allows people to do more and better work, but it also restricts people in various ways. It has costs as well as benefits.

2.2.4 ENVIRONMENT :

All organisations operate within an internal and an external environment. A single organisation does not exist alone. It is part of a larger system that contains many other elements, such as government, the family, and other organisations. All of these mutually influence one another in a complex system that creates a context for a group of people. Individual organisations, such as a factory or a school, cannot escape being influenced by this external environment. It influences the attitudes of people, affects working conditions, and provides competition for resources and power. It must be considered in the study of human behavior in organisations.

2.3. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOR :

2.3.1 HISTORICAL ORIGINS :

Although human relationships have existed since the beginning of time, the art and science of trying to deal with them in complex organisations is relatively new. In the early days people worked alone or in such small groups that their work relationships were easily handled. It has been popular to assume that under these conditions people worked in a utopia of happiness and fulfillment, but this assumption is largely a nostalgic reinterpretation of history. Actual conditions were brutal and backbreaking. People worked from dawn until dusk under intolerable conditions of disease, filth, danger, and scarcity of resources. They had to work this way to survive, and very little effort was devoted to their job satisfaction.

Then came the industrial revolution. In the beginning the condition of people did not improve, but at least the seed was planted for potential improvements. Industry expanded the supply of goods and knowledge that eventually gave workers increased wages, shorter hours, and more work satisfaction. In this new industrial environment Robert Owen, a young Welsh factory owner, about the year 1800, was one of the first to emphasise the human needs of employees. He refused to employ young children. He taught his workers cleanliness and temperance and improved their working conditions. This could hardly be called modern organisational behaviour, but it was a beginning. He was called "the real father" of personnel administration by an early writer.

Andrew Ure incorporated human factors into his work 'The Philosophy of Manufactures', published in 1835. He recognized the mechanical and commercial parts of manufacturing, but he

also added a third factor, which was the human factor. He provided workers with hot tea, medical treatment, "a fan apparatus" for ventilation, and sickness payments. The ideas of Owen and Ure were accepted slowly or not at all, and they often deteriorated into a paternalistic, do-good approach rather than a genuine recognition of the importance of people at work.

Interest in people at work was awakened by Frederick.W.Taylor in the United States in the early 1900s. He is often called "the father of scientific management," and the changes he brought to management paved the way for later development of organisational behavior. His work eventually led to improved recognition and productivity for industrial workers. He pointed out that just as there was a best machine for a job, so were there best ways for people to do their jobs. To be sure, the goal was still technical efficiency, but at least management was awakened to the importance of one of its neglected resources.

Taylor's major work was published in 1911. It was followed in 1914 by Lillian Gilbreth's 'The Psychology of Management', which primarily emphasized the human side of work. Shortly thereafter the National personnel Association was formed, and later, in 1923, it became the American Management Association, carrying the subtitle "Devoted Exclusively to the Consideration of the Human Factor in Commerce and Industry." During this period Whiting Williams was studying workers while working with them, and in 1920 he published a significant interpretation of his experiences, 'what's on the worker's Mind'.

2.3.2 RESEARCH STUDIES :

In the 1920's and 1930's Elton Mayo and F.J. Roethlisberger at Harvard University gave academic stature to the study of human behavior at work. They applied keen insight, straight thinking, and sociological backgrounds to industrial experiments at the Western Electric Company, Hawthorne Plant. They concluded that an organisation is a social system and the worker is indeed the most important element in it. Their experiments showed that the worker is not a simple tool but a complex personality interacting in group situation that often is difficult to understand.

To Taylor and his contemporaries, human problems stood in the way of production and so should be minimized. To Mayo, human problems became a broad new field of study and an opportunity for progress. He is recognised as the father of what was then called human relations and later became known as organisational behavior. Taylor increased production by rationalising it. Mayo and his followers sought to increase production by humanising it.

The Mayo-Roethlisberger research has been strongly criticised as being inadequately controlled and interpreted, but its basic ideas, such as a social system with in the work environment, have stood the test of time. The important point is that it was substantial research about human behavior at work, and its influence was widespread and enduring.

In the 1940's and 1950's other major research projects developed in a number of organisations, including the Research Center for Group Dynamics, University of Michigan (especially leadership and motivation) ; Personnel Research Board, Ohio State University (leadership and motivation); Tavistock Institute of Human Relations in London (various subjects); and the National Training Laboratories in Bethel, Maine (group dynamics). As the results of this research began to filter into the business and academic communities, it stimulated new interest in the behavior of people at work. An "age of human relations" had begun.

2.3.3 CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENTS :

About this time, several significant conceptual developments emerged that had a lasting impact on organisational behaviour. In 1957, Douglas McGregor presented a convincing argument that most management actions flow directly from whatever theory of human behaviour they had. The idea is that management philosophy controls practice. Management's personnel practices, decision making, operating practices, and even organisational design flow from assumptions about human behaviour. The assumptions about human behavior. The assumptions may be implicit rather than explicit, but they can be inferred from observing the kinds of actions that managers take.

Theory X is a traditional set of assumptions about people. It assumes that most people dislike work and will try to avoid it if they can. Workers are seen as being inclined to restrict work output, having little ambition, and avoiding responsibility if at all possible. They are believed to be relatively self centered, indifferent to organizational needs, and resistant to change. Common rewards cannot overcome this natural dislike for work, and so management is forced (under Theory X assumptions) to coerce, control, and threaten employees to obtain satisfactory performance. Though managers may deny that they hold this view of people at work. Many of their historical actions suggest that Theory X has been a typical management view of employees.

Theory Y implies a more human and supportive approach to managing people. It assumes that people are not inherently lazy. Any appearance they have of being that way is the result of their experiences with organisations, and if management will provide the proper environment to release their potential, work will become as natural to them as play or rest. Under Theory Y assumptions, management believes that employees will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed. Management's role is to provide an environment in which the potential of people can be released at work.

McGregor's argument was that management had been ignoring the facts about people. It had been following an outmoded set of assumptions about people because it adhered to Theory X when the facts are that the Theory Y set of assumptions is more truly representative of most people. There will always be important differences among people, and so a few may come closer to fitting the Theory X model, but nearly all employees have some potential for growth in their capabilities. Therefore, McGregor argued, management needed to change to a whole new theory of working with people: Theory Y.

McGregor also deserves credit for publicising one of the contemporary theories of motivation - the hierarchy of needs model by A.H. Maslow. This model suggested to managers that if they wished to release the inherent potential in employees, managers must pay attention to workers' needs beyond basic levels of physical well-being and economic security. Advanced levels include social, esteem, and self actualisation needs, and these higher-order needs form the basis for many other practices in organisational behavior. These conceptual contributions by McGregor and Maslow helped spark subsequent decades of research and thinking about how to motivate and manage employees today.

The new emphasis on people at work was a result of trends that had been developing over a long period of time. The thoughts of McGregor, Maslow, and many others helped bring human values into balance with other values at work, which is an ongoing struggle. Unfortunately, the popularity of human relations grew so fast that many ideas were put forth without careful development and testing. This resulted in a series of fads, some shallow approaches to human behavior ("be nice to people"), and even some subtle attempts to manipulate employees. These practices led to some

well-deserved criticisms, and the term "human relations" gradually lost favour. As the field gained maturity, the new term that arose to describe it was organisational behaviour.

This brief history supports several key conclusions. Organisational behaviour is still a relatively young discipline, but it is a maturing one. It has struggled to find an identity in its early years, but is now surging ahead and gaining respect. Its future appears bright, as it shows potential for aiding managers in their search for greater effectiveness.

2.4. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR FIELD :

A major strength of organisational behaviour is its interdisciplinary nature. It integrates the behavioural sciences (the systematised body of knowledge pertaining to why and how people behave as they do) with other social sciences that can contribute to the subject. It applies from these disciplines any ideas that will improve the relationships between people and organisations. Its interdisciplinary nature is similar to that of medicine, which applies knowledge from the physical biological, and social sciences into a workable medical practice.

Another strength of organisational behaviour is its emerging base of research knowledge and conceptual frame works. No longer does the field rely on anecdotes and speculative assertions about human behavior. Researchers have identified key questions, designed appropriate studies, and reported the results and their conclusions. Others have examined related studies, and used them to construct models and theories that explain sets of findings and help guide future studies. As a result organisational behavior has progressed substantially in the latter half of the twentieth century.

2.5. CONCLUSION :

The important elements of organisational behaviour are people, structure, Technology and Environment. The historical development of OB began in the year 1835. Andrew ure at that period stressed about human factor in industry. Frederick W. Taylor also stressed that scientific management is not only for the increase of production but also for human factor in industry.

2.6. MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Defined O.B. Explain the various elements of O.B.
2. Briefly explain the historical development of O.B.
3. "Research studies during 1920's contributed for the development of O.B.' discuss.

2.7. SUGGESTED READINGS :

ohn W. Newstrom and Keith Davis : Organisational Behaviour, Tata Mc Graw-Hill Publishing Company Ltd., New Delhi, 1995.

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HUMAN RELATIONS MOVEMENT / APPROACH

LESSON PLAN :

3.1. INTRODUCTION

3.2. PROFILE OF ELTON MAYO

3.2.1 FIRST RELAY ASSEMBLY GROUP TEST

3.2.2 SECOND RELAY ASSEMBLY AND MICA SPLITTING GROUP TESTS

3.2.3 MASS INTERVIEWING PROGRAMME

3.2.4 BANK WIRING GROUP OBSERVATION TEST

3.2.5 POSTULATES

3.3. CONCLUSION

3.4. MODEL QUESTIONS

3.5. SUGGESTED READINGS

3.1. INTRODUCTION :

Many researches were conducted to find solutions to the problems which arose because of Industrialisation. Some of the scholars identified the structural inadequacies of organisations as responsible for the problems while certain other scholars felt that the inter personal and role relationships are vital for solving the organisational problems. For instance, the classical theorists laid considerable emphasis upon the organisational principles. Similarly, organisational efficiency as expressed in mechanistic terms, and human behaviour as related to production were emphasised under scientific Management. Where as in the present lesson, Interpersonal relations in organisations are discussed as the determinants of organisational goals as well as growth. Human Relations which started as an approach became a movement and led to the establishment of a separate human relations cell in every organisation. Further, this approach grew and became the most popular organisational theory with the lable 'Human Relations Theory'. This theory is also known as 'Socio-Economic Theory' or 'Humanistic Theory'.

3.2. PROFILE OF ELTON MAYO :

Elton Mayo was born in 1880 in Australia. After touring several countries in search of a job, he returned to his home town Adelaide and started the printing business. In order to prosecute his studies, he gave up his business and studied psychology. In 1919, he was appointed as the professor of Philosophy in Queensland University. After having taught in several universities, he migrated to USA to join in Pennsylvania university. In 1926, he joined as a research officer in Harvard Business school. Until his death in 1949, he conducted many studies relevant to the Industrial enterprises under the banner of Harvard Business school.

The experiments conducted at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company in Chicago during the twenties and early thirties of this century constitute an outstanding and the most revealing event in the history of management. They have been described by two authorities jointly as 'no less than a textbook (Urwick and Brech, the Making of Scientific Management, Vol. III). According to two other scholars, 'there was little doubt that the work at Hawthorne would stand the test of time

as one of the most exciting and important research projects ever done in an industrial setting' (Hersey and Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behaviour: Utilising Human Resources, 1977).

The company at which the experiments were conducted was one of the most progressive enterprises in U.S.A. with incentive wages, sickness benefit, pension schemes and many recreational and other facilities. It manufactured equipments for the Bell Telephone system and had an employee strength of about 30,000. Still at the time of the experiments there prevailed much grumbling and dissatisfaction and labour productivity was running low. So efficiency experts were called in by the company to deal with the trouble. They came and applied the usual methods-change of physical working conditions e.g. working hours, length and spacing of rest pauses, intensity of lighting, but these proved inconclusive.

In the next stage in 1924 the company sought the assistance of the National Research Council of the National Academy of Sciences, U.S.A. The experimenters tried to determine the effects of varying degrees of illumination on productivity. The experiments were conducted on female workers who were divided into two groups. One group was the experimental group. It was placed in a room in which the illumination was varied. The other group was the control group which worked in a room in which the lighting and other conditions were kept constant. Production of the experimental group went up when lighting increased. Strange enough, it improved in the control room where there was no change in lighting. What was more surprising was that when lighting in the experimental room was reduced from 10 to 3 foot-candles, production still increased. As a matter of fact, the production of the experimental group continually went up, no matter whether the foot-candles of light were raised, retained in the original level or even brought down to just moonlight intensity. The experiments, therefore, failed to establish any correlation between the intensity of illumination and the level of output. The experimenters came to the conclusion that some other variables were involved. So the company decided to invite Elton Mayo and his team of researchers from the Harvard Graduate School of Business. This team had already conducted investigations into the causes of very high turnover in a textile mill at Philadelphia in 1923 and 1924.

Elton Mayo's experiments at the Hawthorne plant were started in 1927 and continued till 1932. Senior executives of the company also joined hands with his team in this long-drawn investigations. The experiments were conducted in different states.

3.2.1 FIRST RELAY ASSEMBLY GROUP TEST :

This is the beginning of Mayo's experiments at the Hawthorne plant. A control room was set up for the purpose, in which measurements could be taken of humidity, illumination and other physical factors. Two girls were selected and they in turn were asked to choose four other girl workers. This group of six was segregated from others and also insulated from the traditional practices of management. Thirteen variables were applied one after another. These included spacing and length of rest pauses, length of working day, length of working week, method of payment and a free mid-day lunch. These variables, one at a time, were in operation for periods varying from 4 to 12 weeks.

The group was employed in assembling telephone relays. A relay was a small but complex mechanism, composed of a coil, an armature, contact spring's insulators and several other parts. All these had to be assembled by the girls, sitting on a long bench, placed and secured in a fixture by means of screws. Since the job was in no way machine-based, output depended on the speed at which and the steadiness with which the operators worked.

The equipment and physical factors of the test room were identical with those of the relay assembly department as whole subject to two important variations: (i) a hole and chute were introduced, from which completed relays were to be dropped for the purpose of recording output, and (ii) instead of regular supervision by one of the senior operators known as the layout operator, an observer from among the experimenters was posted in the room who performed two main functions - (a) keeping records of all that happened including physical conditions of the operators, and (b) maintaining a friendly atmosphere in the room in addition to general supervision.

For the first two or three months of the test the operators were just observed and their output was recorded for the purpose of future comparison. What was notable was that almost immediately after the introduction of the test output began to rise, although there was no change in the physical conditions of work except segregation of the operators into a separate room and the presence of the observer. Thereafter physical conditions were changed one after another - such as formation of the group into a distinct team for piece-rate incentive (a corollary measure), introduction of more rest pause, free snacks shorter work pay, Saturday off and the like. Almost against all these inputs, output went up but when at one stage the number of rest pause was raised from two to six and the duration of each pause was reduced from ten to five minutes, output declined. In any case the investigators were in a fix as to degree to which they could ascribe the changes in output to changes in working conditions.

Accordingly, they took the drastic step of withdrawing all the benefits given so far except the separate group piece-rate scheme which was only a transitional measure. Thus the work week amounted to 48 hours, there was no rest pause, no provision of snacks and so on. As a result the hourly output dropped but the daily and weekly figures reached a record high level. This was the most surprising.

Findings. There was virtually no correlation between improvement of physical working conditions and rise in output. The reasons for such rise were more human than non-human. As a result of the attention bestowed upon the girls in the test-room they felt that they were an important part of the company. They were no longer isolated individuals but while working in the group they developed feelings of affiliation, competence and achievement. They became participating members of a congenial, cohesive work group. So they worked harder and more effectively even when the new material benefits were all withdrawn. Briefly the human factors that contributed to the improvement in productivity were; (i) better and more sympathetic supervision, (ii) closer and more informal interpersonal relations among the group, (iii) greater autonomy of the group as well as its members, and (iv) a sense of belonging promoted in them.

3.2.2 SECOND RELAY ASSEMBLY AND MICA SPLITTING GROUP TESTS :

The object of these test was to study the effects of incentive payments on output.

The second relay assembly group was formed with five experienced operators in November, 1928. They were placed in a separate room but there was no change in the physical conditions. The only difference was that previously the operators who constituted the test group were on a group incentive plan whereas for the first nine weeks of the test they were on an individual incentive plan. The result was that total output went up in the initial few weeks, then levelled off and remained constant at the new higher level (about 12 per cent more than the base period). Thereafter the group was brought back to the group incentive plan which continued for a period of seven weeks. As a result the group's output dropped (by about 4 per cent from the base level).

The mica splitting group was set up almost under similar conditions as the first relay assembly group. A small number of mica splitters who were skilled operators were placed in a separate room under the observation and general supervision of an investigator. They had been on an individual incentive plan. This was retained. During the test which lasted about 14 months rest pauses and the length of the work-day were varied as in the first relay assembly test. The results showed that there was a slight decline in output when the operators first moved into the test room. Thereafter output rose steadily though moderately as rest pauses were increased. But for the last six months the rate of increase of output declined. However, the average hourly output during the entire test period was 15 per cent higher than before. The test was discontinued with the onset of the great depression.

Findings. Wage incentives had little effect on output. The increase in output of the second relay assembly group was due to the fact that this group had a desire to reach the performance record of the first relay assembly group. Had incentives been the cause, the mica splitters would not have registered any increase of output because their incentive system was not changed at all. On the whole it was not incentive wages but improvement in supervision and growth of inter-personal relations that led to rise in output of both the groups.

3.2.3 MASS INTERVIEWING PROGRAMME :

The test room studies showed that the type of supervision influenced morale. So the problem was: how to improve supervision? Why not get the frank opinions of the workers themselves on this issue?

Accordingly, a programme was taken up for interviewing them. It had two phases. In the first phase from September 1928 to the middle of 1929 it was the direct type interview i.e. they were asked a few specific questions, to which the answers were supposed to reveal their attitudes. It was found in course of these interviews that the workers wanted to speak about many other things than those embodied in the pre-determined questionnaire. So the second phase of the interview programme was launched in the later part of 1929. It was the depth or non-directive interview, in which the interviewer, instead of asking the worker set questions, encouraged him to talk freely on topics of his own choice. The average length of the depth interview was one and a half hours, compared to only 30 minutes in the earlier straight interview. By 1931 over 20,000 employees were interviewed separately many of them twice, informally and in confidence. With the onset of the Depression, however, this programme was suspended.

Findings. The supervisors should be trained in such a way that they do not behave with the workers as their bosses. Instead they should be kind and sympathetic to them. They should be trained more to listen than to talk, to be more relations-oriented, more concerned with the workers and more skilled in handling social and personal situations.

3.2.4 BANK WRITING GROUP OBSERVATION :

The earlier investigations had revealed that informal groups among workers could influence to a great extent the behaviour of their individual members. An important trend in such behaviour was restriction of output. So the experimenters wanted to ascertain how a group could put pressure on an individual member for lowering production in a high-incentive system. Accordingly the Bank Wiring Group was set up and its behaviour was studied for seven months from November, 1931 to May, 1932.

The group chosen for study comprised fourteen male operators who assembled switchboard equipment. The bank wiring task involved three separate categories of jobs: (i) nine wiremen attached wires to the equipment, in other words wired its terminals; (ii) three soldermen soldered or solidified the terminal connections; and (iii) two inspectors checked the quality of the finished equipment. These three groups performed different tasks but the making of the equipment involved their mutual collaboration. As the team worked on group incentive plan i.e. each worker was reward on the basis of the total output of his group, this itself necessitate collaborative effort.

The study of the bank wiring groups was not an experiment like the earlier tests in which changes were made in some factors and results recorded. It was more or less a passive observation of how people worked. For this purpose an observer was posted in the room. This was the only change. Otherwise the same supervision and methods of incentive payment as prevailing before were continued.

Findings. Incentives failed to influence the productivity of groups. Instead, group regarded them merely as payment of fair day's wages for a fair day's work.

Group's sentiment effectively prevails upon each member to maintain the standard of output which is informally set by the group itself and to disregard the formal standard laid down by management. The group has its own devices to bring reluctant members into the line. If anybody produced too much, he was decried as a rate buster. On the other hand, if anybody produced too little, he was also condemned as 'a chiseler'.

3.2.5 POSTULATES OF HUMAN RELATIONS APPROACH :

The conclusions to be drawn from the research of Mayo were summed up by D.C. Miller and W.H. Form as follow -

- 1) Work is a group activity.
- 2) The social world of the adult is primarily patterned about work activity.
- 3) The need for recognition, security and sense of belonging is more important in determining worker's morale and productivity than the physical conditions under which they work.
- 4) The worker is a person whose attitudes and effectiveness are conditioned by social demands from both inside and outside the work plant.
- 5) Informal groups within the work plant exercise strong social controls over the work habits and attitudes of the individual worker.
- 6) Group collaboration does not occur by accident; it must be planned for and developed.

3.3. CONCLUSION :

The experiments that were conducted by Elton Mayo and his associates at Western Electric Company, Chicago developed a new approach called human relations approach to the field of organisational behaviour and management. This approach gave much importance to human nature and human activity. This approach gave raise to new systems like participate management, employee counselling etc. to the field of management in the later years.

3.4. MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Narrate the Chief Postulates of Human Relations Approach.
2. Briefly explain the experiments conducted at Western Electric Company, Chicago.
3. Discuss the findings established at Bank Wiring Group observation test.
4. Explain the important features of Hawthorne experiments.

3.5. SUGGESTED READINGS :

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LESSON - 4

BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH OR THEORY

LESSON PLAN :

4.1. OBJECTIVES

4.2 STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON

4.2.1 CONTRIBUTION OF ARGYRIS

4.2.2 CONTRIBUTION OF LIKERT

4.2.3 CONTRIBUTION OF MC GREGOR

4.2.4 CONTRIBUTION OF HOMANS

4.2.5 BEHAVIOURAL THEORISTS

4.2.6 CONTRIBUTION OF MASLOW & HERZBERG

4.2.7 CONTRIBUTION OF KURT LEWIN AND BENNIS

4.3. SUMMARY

4.4 MODEL QUESTIONS

4.5 REFERENCE BOOKS

4.1. OBJECTIVES OF THE LESSON :

The objective of the lesson is to understand the writings of the behavioural scholars on human behaviour. The behavioural scholars did consider research on human behaviour. Their findings help the managers in identifying human needs, human motivation, superiority behaviour need for change in the environment.

4.2. STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

This approach is an improved and more mature approach than human relations approach. Douglas Mc, Gregor, Abraham Maslow, Kurt Lewin, Chester Bernard, Miss, Mary Parker Follett, George C. Homans, Rensis Likert, Chris Argyris and Warren Bennis are some of the foremost behavioural scientists who made important contributions for the development of behavioural approach to the management. These scientist were more rigorously trained in various social sciences (such as psychology, sociology and anthropology) and used more sophisticated research methods. Thus, these people came to be regarded as 'behavioural scientists'. The findings of these people have enormously helped in understanding organisation behaviour.

4.2.1 CONTRIBUTION OF ARGYRIS :

Behavioural scientists are highly critical of the classical organisation structures which are built around the traditional concepts of hierarchial authority, unity of command, line and staff relationship and narrow spans of control. They regarded the classical approach as highly mechanistic which degrade the human spirit. Behaviourists prefer more flexible organisation structures and jobs are built around the capabilities and aptitudes of average employees.

They criticised the formal organisation structure which provided the employees with minimum control on their work. The employees are expected to be passive, dependent and subordinate. They have short time perspective. As long as managers of following these assumptions the human nature

will not be developed. The behaviourists emphasised the need for change of these assumptions and proposed that equal opportunities are to be provided to the employees to get information power and controls according to their contribution. There is a need for matrix organisations which means each individual has equal power and responsibility and influence the core activities. It eliminates the superior-subordinate relations and constitutes self-discipline. The individual has the freedom to create new activity or new idea.

4.2.2 CONTRIBUTION OF LIKERT :

The behavioural approach recognises the practical and situational constraints on human rationality for making optimal decisions. It says that in practice, the decision making is done in a sub-optimal manner. The employees are allowed in taking decisions at levels of management. Then only the employees know about organisation and its problems. They take rational decisions and also work for the implementation of that decision. There is a need to implement industrial democracy in organisations. Hence, behavioral scientists attach greater weightage to participative and group decision making because it is felt that business problems are so complex that it is neither fair nor feasible to make individuals responsible for solving them.

4.2.3 CONTRIBUTION OF MC GREGOR :

Behavioural scholars criticised theory X assumptions which are practised by the managers of that time. They say that man is lazy. He is motivated for money. He avoids work. They said that people should be directed and controlled if we want good results. Organisations should have the power to control people. People have very little ambition and want more security. They proposed more humanising assumptions which are called theory Y assumptions. The modern behaviouristic assumptions proposed by them are man likes work. Work is as natural as play. Man is motivated to work. People have self-direction and self-control. People accept responsibility and also organisational demands. As a result behavioural scholars underline the desirability of humanising the administration of the control process and encouraging the process of self-direction and control instead of imposed control.

They also favour participation of employees in the decision making process in the organisation. The employees' performance is evaluated timely with standard methods and feedback should be given to them immediately in order to improve their performance. They also preferred positive and reformative measures to change employee behaviour according to organisational needs than punitive measures. They also stressed the need for training and overall development of the employees based on their performance evaluation.

4.2.4 CONTRIBUTION OF HOMANS :

Behavioural scientists consider that organisation is composed of groups. The formal and informal groups also created by the organisation. These formal and informal groups within the organisation are dynamic and interdependent. The formal and informal groups and the environment are also dependent with one another. If there is a change in one group results change in other groups and vice-versa. Hence, they consider the organisations as groups of individuals with certain goals. They have, therefore, made wide ranging studies of human groups - big and small. They have studied such issues as why individuals join groups, group size, structure and process, group cohesiveness etc.

4.2.5 BEHAVIOURAL THEORISTS :

Behavioural scientists have made extensive studies on leadership. They develop various styles of leadership. They are autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, participative styles etc. They emphasized that all the leadership styles are desirable depending upon the situation. Hence, managers have to decide which type of leadership style works well with in a particular situation. Their view is that in general, the democratic-participative style is desirable. The autocratic, task-oriented style also desirable in certain situations.

4.2.6 CONTRIBUTIONS OF MASLOW AND HERZBERG :

Behavioural scientists pointed out that human being is very complex. People have different perceptions, attitudes, values, expectations, intelligence, needs etc. No two individuals are alike. Two individuals behave differently to the same situation. But the same individual behaves differently to the same situation at different times. It clearly indicates that human behaviour is dynamic and very complex. The needs of the individuals are also different and the same individual has variety of needs at different times. Hence, managers try to identify the human needs and try to satisfy that needs in order to motivate the people for high level of organisational performance.

Behavioural scholars recognise that conflict in organisation is inevitable. People are employed by the organisation to do different activities. Conflicts generally arises between the people. Hence, the conflicts can also be resolved by the people in the organisation through proper understanding and determination. The organisation works through these conflicts.

4.2.7 CONTRIBUTIONS OF KURT LEWIN AND BENNIS :

Organisational change is also continuous and is inevitable and always desirable. Organisation exist in a dynamic environment which contain a number of vital forces. They are technological, political, economic, social, ethical, cultural etc. If there is any change in these environmental forces it also affects the organisation as a result the organisation has to change in order to survive. Behavioural scholars emphasizes that employee will change according to changes in the environment if proper organisational development activities have taken up by the organisation timely.

They also proposed four types of supervisory styles. They are (i) exploitative-authoritative (ii) Benevolent-authoritative (iii) consultative and (iv) Participative styles. Among these four styles the participative style of supervision is best for employee motivation, commitment, more autonomy and improved performance.

4.3. SUMMARY :

Behavioural approach to the organisations is much more sophisticated and improved approach than human relations approach. The behavioural scholars gave much importance and attention to the individual and his development. The individual is an influential determinant of his behaviour in his phenomenal field. The human behaviour can be changed positively if we change his attitudes and develop his human potentialities and skills. The individual actively learns from his experience. Hence, if the managers take initiative in implementing the new strategies of management and new systems of management definitely the employees change their behaviour according to the needs of the organisation.

4.4. MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Elaborately discuss behavioural approach to management.
2. Behavioural approach is much more advanced approach than human relations approach discuss.
3. Narrate the contributions of Likert and Homans to support behavioural approach.

4.5. SUGGESTED READINGS :

Tripati P.C. & Reddy P.N. : Principles of management, Tata Mc Graw-Hill Publishing Company, New Delhi, 2002.

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UNIT - II

LESSON - 5

PERSONALITY

LESSON PLAN :

- 5.1. OBJECTIVES**
- 5.2 STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON**
 - 5.2.1 DEFINITION
 - 5.2.2 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY
 - 5.2.3 BIOLOGICAL FACTORS
 - 5.2.4 CULTURAL FACTORS
 - 5.2.5 FAMILY AND SOCIAL FACTORS
 - 5.2.6 SITUATIONAL FACTORS
- 5.3. THEORIES OF PERSONALITY**
 - 5.3.1 INTRA PSYCHIC THEORY
 - 5.3.2 TYPE THEORIES
 - 5.3.3. EXTROVERT - INTROVERT THEORY
 - 5.3.4. TRAIT THEORIES
 - 5.3.5. SOCIAL LEARNING APPROACH
 - 5.3.6. SELF THEORY
- 5.4 SUMMARY**
- 5.5 MODEL QUESTIONS**
- 5.6 SUGGESTED READINGS**
- 5.1 OBJECTIVES :**

The objective of the above lesson is to understand the various determinants and definition of personality. The lesson also explains the various theories of personality.

5.2 STRUCTURE OF THE LESSON :

Any discussion of human behaviour should logically begin with the concept of 'personality'. Personality of an individual is unique Behaviour is influenced by personal and environmental factors. It is therefore essential to study the individual and his personality concepts before proceeding to see how he behaves in work organisations.

Basic understanding of human personality is vital to the study and analysis of organizational behaviour. Because of differences in personality, individuals differ in their manner or responding to organizational environments. In the words of D.E. James "it is better to consider the individual aspects of a person's make-up as bricks, and personality as the whole house built of bricks, but held together with cement. Personality is an organised whole without which an individual would have no meaning.

5.2.1 PERSONALITY DEFINED :

The term 'personality' is derived from Latin word 'personare' which means 'to speak through'. The Latin term was used to denote the masks the actors used to wear in ancient Rome and Greece. Personality thus traditionally referred to how people influence others through their external appearances (actions). But for an academician personality included (i) external appearance and behaviour, (ii) the inner awareness of self as permanent organizing force and (iii) the particular organization of measurable traits, both inner and outer. Thus, a thoroughly complete definition of personality becomes a jigsaw puzzle because human being operates as a whole, not as a series of distinct parts. Though psychologists and social scientists unanimously agree to the importance of personality, they are unable to come out with an unanimous definition. Personality has been defined by many people in different ways. Let us consider some of them.

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

2. Personality is a pattern of stable states and characteristics of a person that influences his or her behaviour toward goal achievement. Each person has unique ways of protecting these states.

Gordon Allport, in fact, found more than fifty different definitions of personality and categorised these definitions into five major areas labelled as follows :

- (a) *Omnibus* : These definitions view personality as the 'sum total', aggregate or constellation of properties or qualities.
- (b) *Integrative and configurational* : Under this view of personality the organisation of personal attributes is stressed.
- (c) *Hierarchical* : These definitions specify the various levels of integration or organisation of personality.
- (d) *Adjustment* : This view emphasises the adjustment (adaptation, survival, and evolution) of the person to the environment.
- (e) *Distinctiveness* : The definitions of this category stress the uniqueness of each personality.

After analysing all these definitions, Allport has advanced an interesting and comprehensive definition where he states 'personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.'

5.2.2 DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY :

The major determinants of personality of an individual can be studied under four broad headings - biological, cultural, family and situational.

5.2.3 BIOLOGICAL FACTORS :

Biological factors may be studied under three heads-the heredity, the brain, and the physical stature.

1. *Heredity* : The relative effects of heredity comprises an extremely old argument in personality theory. Certain characteristics, primarily physical in nature, are inherited from one's parents, transmitted by genes in the chromosomes contributed by each parent. Research on animals has showed that both physical and psychological characteristics can be transmitted through heredity. But research on human beings is inadequate to support this viewpoint. However, psychologists and geneticists have accepted the fact that heredity plays an important role in one's personality. The importance of heredity varies from one personality trait to another. For instance, heredity is generally more important in determining a person's temperament than values and ideals.

2. *Brain* : Another biological factor that influences personality is the role of brain of an individual. Through some promising inroads are made by researchers, the psychologists are unable to prove empirically the contribution of human brain in influencing personality. Preliminary results from the electrical stimulation of the brain (ESB) research gives indication that better understanding of human personality and behaviour might come from the study of the brain.

3. *Physical Features* : Perhaps the most outstanding factor that contributes to personality i.e., the physical stature of an individual. An individual's external appearance is proved to be having a tremendous effect on his personality. For instance, the fact that a person is short or tall, fat or skinny, handsome or ugly, black or whitish will undoubtedly influence the person's effect on others and in turn, will effect the self-concept.

5.2.4 CULTURAL FACTORS :

Culture is traditionally considered as the major determinant of an individual's personality. The culture largely determines what a person is and what a person will learn. The culture within a person is brought up, is very important determinant of behaviour of a person. Culture is the "complex of these beliefs, values, and techniques for dealing with the environment which are shared among contemporaries and transmitted by one generation to the next. Culture required both conformity and acceptance from its members.

5.2.5 FAMILY AND SOCIAL FACTORS:

Family and social factors also are important in shaping personality of an individual. In order to understand the effect of a family on individual's personality, we have to understand the socialization process and identification process.

1. *Socialization Process* : The contribution of family and social group in combination with the culture is known as socialization. In the words of Mussen "socialization is the process by which an individual infant acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioural potentials that are open to him at birth, those behaviour patterns that are customary and acceptable according to the standards of his family and social group. It initially starts with the contact with mother and later on the other members of the family (father, sisters, close-relatives) and the social group plays influential role in shaping as individual's personality.

2. *Identification Process* : Identification is fundamental in understanding personality. Identification starts when a person begins to identify himself with some other members of the family. Normally a child tries to behave as his father or mother. He tries to emulate certain actions of his parents. According to Mischel identification process can be examined from three angles: (a) it can be viewed as the similarity of behaviour between child and the model, and (b) it can be looked as the child's motive or desires to be like the model and (c) it can be viewed as the process through which the child actually takes on the attributes of the model.

Apart from the socialisation and identification processes, the personality of an individual is influenced by the home environment. There is a substantial empirical evidence to indicate that the overall environment at home is created by parents is critical to personality development.

Family background a part, social class also influences a person's perception, perception of self and others, and perception of work, authority and money etc.

5.2.6 SITUATIONAL FACTORS :

Human personality is also influenced by situational factors. The effect of environment is quite strong. Knowledge, skill and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behaviour. Learned modifications in behaviour are not passed on to children, they must be acquired by them through their own personal experience, through interaction with the environment. In one research by Milgram it was found that situation plays a vital role in human personality. According to Milgram "situation plays a vital role in human personality. According to Milgram "situation exerts an important press on the individual. It exercises constraints and may provide push. In certain circumstances it is not so much the kind of person a man is, as the kind of situation in which he is placed, that determines his actions. Milgram certainly does not completely rule out the importance of the developmental aspects of personality. He rather demonstrated that the situation may potentially have a very big impact on the behavioural expression of personality.

5.3 THEORIES ON PERSONALITY :

Let us now make a historical trip through different theories of personality. Over time researchers have developed a number of personality theories and no theory, at the outset, it must be pointed out, is complete in itself. Many personality theories can be conveniently grouped under the five heads :

- (i) Intrapsychic theory
- (ii) Type theories
- (iii) Trait theories
- (iv) Social Learning theory
- (v) Self Theory

5.3.1 INTRAPSYCHIC THEORY OF SIGMUND FREUD :

Freud developed an organisation of personality consisting of three structures within the human mind- the id, the ego, and the superego. These parts of the mind are primarily responsible for originating human actions and reactions and modifications.

The id. It is the original and most basic system of human personality. It consists of everything psychologically that is inherited and present at the time of birth. At the base of the Freudian theory lies and id that is primitive, instinctual and governed by the principles of greedy and pleasure.

Like a newly born baby (infant) id has no perception of reality. It is primitive, immoral, insistent and rash. Id is the reservoir of the "psychic energy" which Freud calls "Libido". According to Freud id is totally oriented increasing pleasure and avoiding pain, and it strives for immediate satisfaction of desires.

Thus, id encompasses the most primitive and ancient aspects of human and mental make-up. It is instinctive, often unconscious and unrecognized, and is unaffected by socially or culturally determined restrictions. Id basically represents an individual's natural urges and feelings.

Ego. As an individual learns to separate the unreality from reality in childhood, the ego develops. The ego is reality-oriented part of thinking; it is largely practical and works in an executive capacity. Ego is rational and logical and in essence it is the conscious mediator between the realities of world and the id's demands. Its constantly works to keep a healthy psychological balance between id's impulsive demands and superego's restrictive guidance. Ego is rational master. The ego is said to be the executive part of the personality because it controls the gateway to action, selects the features of the environment to which it will respond, and decides what instincts will be satisfied.

5.3.2 TYPE THEORIES :

The type theories represent an attempt to scientifically describe personalities by classifying individuals into convenient categories. Sheldon's physiognomy theory, Carl Jung's extravert and introvert theory are some examples of type theories.

Sheldon's Physiognomy Theory : William Sheldon has presented a unique body-type-temperamental model that represents a link between anatomical / psychological traits and characteristic of an individual with his behaviour. Sheldon identifies some relationship between the physique types of individuals and their personality temperaments. He identifies three body types- endomorphic, mesomorphic and ectomorphic.

Endomorph : He is bulky and beloved, Sheldon contends that the endomorph to be rather fat, thick in proportion to his height. His personality temperament is viscerotonic i.e., the person seeks comfort, loves fine food, eats too much, jovial, affectionate and liked-by-all person.

Mesomorph : The represents absolutely category two type person. He is basically strong, athletic and tough. His physique is appreciated by all. In fact, it is this personality all other "morphs" wish for. According to Sheldon he will tend to be mesomorphic temperament i.e., he is fond of muscular activity; he tends to be highly aggressive, and self-assertive. He can run faster, smile brighter, and beats alone the other two 'morphs' together.

Ectomorph : The final category of people according to Sheldon's classification is the ectomorphic. These people are thin, long and poorly developed physically. Though physically weak, he leads the league in the intellectual department. His temperament is cerebrotonic i.e. excessive inhibition, restraint, and avoidance of social contacts etc., He is labelled as absent-minded, shy, but brilliant university professor stereotype.

5.3.3 CARL JUNG'S EXTROVERT-INTROVERT THEORY :

A common type theory is Carl Jung's introversion-extroversion scheme. Carl Jung, one of Freud's students in the emerging science of psychoanalysis, proposed his own two-part theory of personality. Jung's approach is also termed as analytical psychology. Extroverts are optimistic, outgoing gregarious and sociable. If the extrovert feelings dominate an individual's thinking his decisions and actions are determined by objective relationships and not by pure opinion. Extrovert is basically objective, a reality-oriented individual who is much more doer than a thinker.

Introverts, by contrast, are more inward-directed people. They are less sociable, withdrawn and absorbed in inner life. They are rigid and less flexible and subjective-oriented. Normally, a person who has few friends, avoids social contacts, and rarely speaks to others unless they speak first might be characterized as being introverted or withdrawn. Extroverts, on the other hand, are friendly, enjoy interaction with others, crave excitement and dislike solitude. Introverts, however, are being quite, retiring, enjoying solitude etc. These two cases thus, represent extreme situations.

5.3.4 TRAIT THEORIES :

Another useful way of looking at and understanding the structure of human personality is by considering the traits he possesses. A personality trait can be defined as "an enduring attribute of a person that appears constantly in a variety of situations". The trait theory makes certain fundamental assumptions :

- (i) Traits distinguish one personality from another.
- (ii) Individuals can be described in terms of construction of traits such as affiliation, achievement, anxiety, aggression and dependency.
- (iii) Traits can be quantifiable and do not defy measurement.
- (iv) Traits and the amount of each trait that a person has is assumed to be stable fairly, and the differences in personality and behaviour between two individuals is assumed to be the result of differences in the amount of each that each person has.

Trait dimension	Descriptive - objective pairs
Extroversion	Talkative - silent Open-secretive Adventures - cautious
Agreeableness	Goodnatured - irritable Gentle-headstrong Cooperative - negativist
Conscientiousness	Tidy - careless Responsible - undependable Preserving - quitting.
Emotional Stability	Calm - anxious Poised - nervous Not hypochondriacal - hypochondriacal
Culture	Artistically sensitive - artistically insensitive Refined - boorish Intellectual - unreflective

The two most commonly known trait theories are that of Gordon Allport's and Raymod Cattell's.

Allport's Trait Theory : One of the most exciting versions of trait theory is provided by Allport wherein he mentions common traits that are used to compare one personality with other. For such comparison he has identified six categories of values - social, political religious, theoretical, economic, and aesthetic - in his theory. Besides these common traits Allport also made use of some unique traits the individuals possess. He calls these unique traits as personal dispositions. They can be cardinal (most pervasive), central (unique and limited in number) or secondary (periphery). Allport thus recognises the complexity of human personality.

Each individual has values that emphasise these six orientations (common traits). Some individuals may be high in economic and low in others. It is the profile of an individual's values that is useful in defining his personality.

Cattel's Trait Theory : From out of several different and sometimes overlapping words representing personality, Cattel has selected one hundred and seventy one words that can be used to describe personality. Using the factor analytic approach, he has identified two categories of traits and labelled them 'surface traits' and 'source traits. A surface trait is something like a medical cause of the diverse symptoms. An example of surface trait is affectionate versus cold. An example of source trait is dominance versus submissiveness.

Evaluation of Trait Theories : When compared to type theories, trait theories have some sense, Instead of making unrealistic attempt to place personalities into discrete, discontinues categories, trait theories give recognition to continuity of personalities.

5.3.5 SOCIAL LEARNING APPROACH :

As against the trait theory that assumes the personality to be consistent so that a person can be characterised according to the enduring traits, social learning theory considers the situation as an important determinant of behaviour. In nut shell an individual's actions in a given situation depend on the specific characteristics of the situation, individual's appraisal of the situation, and post reinforcement to behaviour in somewhat similar situations. When the situations they encounter are relatively stable, individual's behaviour will be more or less consistent.

The main focus of social learning approach is on the pattern of behaviour the individuals learn in coping with environment. Some behaviour patterns are learned or acquired through direct experience, Responses can also be acquired or learned without direct reinforcement. For instance, people make use of complex symbolic processes to code and store these observations in memory, and learn by observing the actions of others and by noting the consequences of these actions. Thus, social learning theorists believe that reinforcement facilitates learning by focussing attention. According to social learning school, much of human learning is vicarious or observational.

Reinforcement, though not necessary for learning, is very crucial for the performance of learned behaviour. The notable assumption of social learning theory in this connection is that people behave in ways likely to produce reinforcement. An individual's repertoire of learned behaviours is extensive; the particular action achose for specific situation depends on the expected outcome. The reinforcement that controls the expression of learned behaviour may be (i) direct, (ii) vicarious, or (iii) self-administered.

Direct : It refers to the social approval or disapproval or alleviation of aversive conditions, and other tangible rewards.

Vicarious : It refers to observation of someone else receiving reward or punishment for similar behaviour.

Self-administered : It refers to evaluation of one's own performance with self-praise or reproach.

Of all these, self-administered reinforcement theory plays a vital role in social learning theory.

5.3.6 SELF THEORY :

The intrapsychic, physiognomy and trait theories represent the traditional approaches to understanding the complex human personality. Of many contemporary theories the one that has received the most recent emphasis is the self-theory of personality. Self theory rejects both psychoanalytic and behaviouristic conceptions of human nature as too mechanistic portraying people as creatures helplessly buffeted about by internal instincts or external stimuli. Carl Rogers is most

closely associated with this approach of self-theory. Rogers and his associates have developed this personality theory that places emphasis on the individual as an initiating, creating, influential determinant of behaviour within the environmental framework. According to Rogers there are three basic ingredients of personality the organism, the phenomenal field, and the self.

To understand the Roger's theory we have to see (i) the self concept, (ii) the organism and (ii) the development of self.

1. *Self - Concept* : The most important concept in Roger's theory is the self. The self consists of all the perceptions, ideas, values, and characteristics that characterize 'I or Me' includes 'What I am' and 'What I can do'. Rogers defines the self concept as "an organized, consistent, conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of the characteristics of the I or me and the perceptions of the relationships of I or me to these perceptions. Here 'I' refers to the personal self, and 'me' refers to the social self. Personal self consists of a person's psychological processes such as perception, motivation and attitudes etc., that result in a composed whole. On the other hand, the social self is the way an individual appears to others and the manner this person thinks he appears to others. The perceived self influences both the person's perception of the world and his behaviour. An individual with a strong, positive self-concept is quite likely to view world quite differently from one whose self-concept does not necessarily mean or reflect reality; an individual may be high successful or respected yet, views himself as failure. As Rogers said, "the basic nature of the human being when functioning fully, is constructive and trustworthy. The self generally takes the initiative in improving the conditions in its environment so that the values of the self can be achieved." These essence of this theory is that individuals normally are active creators and initiators, experience rather than passive reactors to the pressures of the environment.

2. *The Organism* : The organism is essentially the locus of all experience. The totality of experience is the phenomenal field. This field is known to the person himself and is frequently referred to as frame of reference. Behaviour of an individual is largely determined by the phenomenal field not by the stimulating conditions of events in the external field or environment.

The individual evaluates every experience in relation to his self concept. The experiences may be symbolized or un symbolized. When they are symbolised they become part of individual's consciousness. Conversely, when they are unsymbolised they remain outside the confines of the awareness or consciousness of an individual. The important thing here is that distorted symbolisation gives rise to inappropriate behaviour.

3. *The development of self personality* : Rogers feels that the fundamental force motivating the human organism is self-actualization i.e., "a tendency toward fulfillment, toward actualization, toward the maintenance and enhancement of the organism." The tendency to self-actualization of both the organism and the self is subject to the profound influence of the social environment, right from childhood. Actually, in the childhood itself, when the child's behaviour is evaluated continuously by their parents, he will be in a position to discriminate between thoughts and actions that are considered 'worthy' and unworthy." He will be able to exclude the unworthy experiences from his self-concept.

Rogers maintains that the innate tendency towards self-actualisation often runs into conflict with two needs - the need for self-regard, and the need for positive reward. It is true that the latter need is universal whereas the former one is the internalisation of those actions and values that others approve. The regard may be conditional or unconditional. Ideally, the more completely the

individual is given positive regard-acceptance that is not conditional to specific behaviours - the more congruence there will be between his self-concept and his actual experiences, as well as between his self-concept and ideal self.

5.4. SUMMARY :

Personality is defined differently by different scholars. Biological, Cultural and Situational factors play important role in the development of personality. Various theories proposed by the psychologists also helps us in understanding personality.

5.5 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Explain the factors that determine human personality.
2. Define personality. Narrate self theory of personality.
3. Elaborately discuss intra psychic theory of personality.
4. Explain trait theories of personality.

5.6 SUGGESTED READINGS :

Luthans, Fred : Organisational Behavior, Mc-Graw Hill, INC, New York, 1992.

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LESSON - 6

LEARNING

LESSON PLAN :

- 6.1 OBJECTIVES
- 6.2 DEFINITION
- 6.3 LEARNING PROCESS
- 6.4 CLASSICAL CONDITIONING
- 6.5 OPERANT CONDITIONING
 - 6.5.1 POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT
 - 6.5.2 NEGATIVE REINFORCEMENT
 - 6.5.3. EXTINCTION
 - 6.5.4. PUNISHMENT
- 6.6 SCHEDULES OF REINFORCEMENT
 - 6.6.1 FIXED INTERVAL SCHEDULE
 - 6.6.2 VARIABLE INTERVAL SCHEDULE
 - 6.6.3 FIXED RATIO SCHEDULE
 - 6.6.4 VARIABLE RATIO SCHEDULE
- 6.7 OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING
- 6.8 CONGNITIVE LEARNING
- 6.9 LEARNING THEORY AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
- 6.10 CONCLUSION
- 6.11 MODEL QUESTIONS
- 6.12 SUGGESTED READINGS
- 6.1 OBJECTIVES :

The concept learning and various approaches are clearly explained in this chapter. Operant conditioning process is very useful to the managers to influence the behaviour of the people in the organisations.

6.2 DEFINITION :

The common phenomenon that we tend to overlook its very occurrence is 'learning'. Learning is a prerequisite for behaviour. For example, an employee's skill, a supervisor's attitude, and a

typist's manners are all learned. In fact, every aspect of human behaviour is responsive to learning experiences.

There seems to be a general consensus among social scientists that learning can be defined as "relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result; of experience or reinforced practice". This defined contains the following points.

- (i) Learning involves a change, though not necessarily improvement in behaviour. Learning may be good or bad from organisation's point of view. For example, bad habits, prejudice, stereotype and work restrictions also can be learned.
- (ii) Change must be relatively permanent. Temporary changes may be only reflexive and fail to represent any learning.
- (iii) Some form of experience is necessary for learning to occur.
- (iv) The practice of learning must be reinforcement does not accompany the practice or experience the behaviour will eventually disappear.

Learning is, therefore, acquisition of knowledge, skills, and expertise etc., and reinforcement strengthens and intensifies certain aspects of ensuring behaviour. Learning is very important because it gives insight into how best to develop the talents and skills that employees need to perform effectively.

Learning can be viewed as the process of conditioning. Conditioning, in fact, is often used as a synonym for learning. More precisely conditioning refers to the process of acquiring a particular pattern of behaviour. There are two types of conditioning - classical and operant. But before we proceed to explain the types of conditioning, it is necessary to understand learning process.

6.3 LEARNING PROCESS :

Most of the human behaviours are acquired through learning. Rewarded behaviours are learned and repeated, and unrewarded behaviours are discontinued. Reinforcement is an important concept in the learning process. Individuals tend to retain a behaviour or practice for which they are given reinforcement. Reinforcement is the process by which an external reinforcer or reward produces and maintains a behaviour. Reinforcement increase the strength of response and tends to induce repetitions of the behaviour that proceeds the reinforcement. Reinforcement generates a reproducible behaviour process in time and usually it intensifies and enhances that behaviour afterwards. The positive reinforcement model is base on two principles:

- (i) People perform in ways that they find most rewarding to them.
- (ii) By proper reinforcement it is possible to improve performance.

The positive reinforcement model tries to link specific behaviours to specific rewards; it uses rewards than punishment to influence behaviour.

People learn new behaviour through one or more of the four learning processes - classical conditioning, operant conditioning observational learning and cognitive learning.

6.4 CLASSICAL CONDITIONING :

The work of the famous Russian Physiologist Ivan Pavlov demonstrated the classical conditioning process. When Pavlov presented piece of meat to the dog in the experiment Pavlov

noticed a great deal of salivation. He termed the food an unconditioned stimulus (food automatically caused salivation) and the salivation an unconditioned response. When the dog saw the meat, it salivated. On the other hand, when the Pavlov merely rang a bell (neutral stimulus), the dog did not salivate. Pavlov subsequently introduced the sound of a bell each time the meat was given to the dog. The dog eventually learned to salivate in response to the ringing of the bell even when there was no meat. Pavlov had conditioned the dog to respond to a learned stimulus. Thorndike called this the "law of exercise" which states that behaviour can be learned by repetitive association between a stimulus and a response (S-R association).

Classical conditioning has a limited value in the study of organisational behaviour. As pointed out by Skinner, classical conditioning represents an insignificant part of total human learning. Classical conditioning is passive. Something happens and we react in a specific or particular fashion. It is elicited in response to a specific, identifiable event and as such it explains simple and reflexive behaviours. But behaviour of people in organizations is emitted rather than elicited, and it is voluntary rather than reflexive. The learning of these complex behaviours can be explained or better understood by looking at operant conditioning.

6.5 OPERANT CONDITIONING :

Operant is defined as behaviour that produces effects, Operant conditioning, basically a product of Skinnerian psychology, suggests that individuals emit responses that are rewarded and will not emit responses that are either not rewarded or are punished. Operant conditioning is voluntary behaviour and it is determined, maintained and controlled by its consequences. In contrast, respondent behaviour is an involuntary response to an environmental stimulus.

Operant conditioning acts on the environment to produce consequences. It is basically assumed that man's behaviour is determined by environment. Operant conditioning presupposes that human beings explore their environment and act upon it. In classical conditioning the sequence of events is independent of subject's behaviour. Again, in operant conditioning reinforcement is given only when the correct response is made. For example, if a passenger waiting for the train in a railway station puts a ten paise coin (R) in the weighing machine (S) nothing happens (consequence). However, if he inserts two paise coin (R) in the machine (S) he gets the weight card (consequence). In operant conditioning, behaviour is instrumental in determining consequence which accrue to him. As pointed out by Skinner, the consequences determine the likelihood that a given operant will be performed in the future. To change behaviour, the consequences of that behaviour must be changed.

Operant conditioning is a powerful tool for managing people in organisations. Most behaviours in organisations are learned, controlled and altered by the consequences; i.e. operant behaviours. Management can use the operant conditioning process successfully to control and influence the behaviour of employees by manipulating its reward system. If one expects to influence behaviours he must also be able to manipulate the consequences. In general, it can be conducted that the behavioural consequences that are rewarding increase the rate of a response. Reinforcement is anything that both increases the strength of response and tends to induce repetitions of the behaviour that preceded the reinforcement. A reward can be a reinforcer when it increase the rate of response. Four types of reinforcement strategies can be employed by managers to influence the behaviour of employees. - viz., positive-reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction, and punishment.

6.5.1 POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT :

Positive reinforcement strengthens and increases behaviour by the presentation of a desirable consequence (reward). In other words, a positive reinforcer is a reward that follows behaviour and is capable of increasing the frequency of that behaviour. Effective reinforcers must meet two conditions: First, the reward should be contingent upon the rate of performance. Second, the reward should be matched with the need or desire of the performer. There are two types of positive reinforcers: primary, and secondary. Primary reinforcers such as food, water and sex are of biological importance in that they are innately satisfies hunger need and reinforces the food-producing behaviour. Secondary reinforcers like job advancement, recognition, praise and esteem result from previous association with a primary reinforcer.

6.5.2 NEGATIVE REINFORCEMENT :

The removal of punishment or the threat of punishment rather than the presentation of a reward is known as negative reinforcement. Negative reinforcers also serve to strengthen desired behaviour responses leading to their removal or termination. Negative reinforcement is employed to increase the frequency of a response by removing a noxious consequence. A student, for example, is negatively reinforced to step into the class room before the arrival of professor. People learn a negatively reinforced behaviour through an avoidance learning process. Avoidance learning techniques can be used to strengthen desired behaviour but Skinner's approach is primarily based on the principles of positive reinforcement only.

6.5.3. EXTINCTION :

Extinction is an effective method of controlling undesirable behaviour. It refers to non-reinforcement. It is based on the principle that if a response is not reinforced, it disappears. If a teacher ignores a noisy student the student may drop the attention-getting behaviour. Extinction is less painful than punishment because it does not involve the direct application of an aversive consequences. Students who perform well are praised quite often by the teachers. If they begin to slack off and turn out poor performance, the teacher may try to modify their behaviour by withholding praise. Here, the teacher is not trying to punish the students by imposing fines or rebuking openly in the class or expelling them. The student is simply denied any feedback. Extinction is a behavioural strategy that does not promote desirable behaviours but can reduce undesirable behaviours. If the students eventually show good work, the teacher may gain praise them (positive reinforcement) but if poor performance is again resulting in, extinction will be re-employed.

6.5.4. PUNISHMENT :

Punishment is a control device employed in organisation to discourage and reduce annoying behaviours others. It can take either of two forms: there can be withdrawal or termination of a desirable or rewarding consequence or there can be an unpleasant consequence after a behaviour is performed. Punishment reduces the response frequency; it weakens behaviour. The use of aversive control is the most controversial method of modifying behaviour because it produces undesirable by-products.

- (i) Punishment reduces the frequency of undesired behaviour, but it does not promote desired behaviour.
- (ii) The frequency of undesirable behaviour is reduced only when the punishing agent is present.

- (iii) Punishment frustrates the punished and leads to antagonism toward the punishing agent. As a result the effectiveness of the punishing agent diminishes over time.

Administering punishment. The question often arises as to when to administer punishment? The following points suggest answer to the question.

- (i) Punish the specific, undesired behaviour, not the person. If it is directed at the person, punishment receives revenge.
- (ii) The punishment should be enough to extinguish the undesired behaviour. Underpunishment will not deter the behaviour, overpunishment may produce undesirable by-products.
- (iii) Punishment should be administered privately. By administering the punishment in front of others, the worker is doubly punished in the sense that is also put out of face.
- (iv) To avoid a feeling of resentment toward the punishing agent, punishment should be administered by an agent other than the rewarder.
- (v) The use of punishment should be coupled with the use of reinforcement.
- (vi) Finally, punishment must be administered carefully so that does not become a reward for undesirable behaviour.

6.6 SCHEDULES OF REINFORCEMENT :

So far the discussion centered around two points : What causes behaviour and why it is important information for managers. The various issues concerning the scheduling or administering of positive reinforcement will be discussed now. Reinforcement schedules indicate the timing of reinforcement. The effectiveness of the reinforcer depends as much upon its scheduling as upon any of its other features like magnitude, quality and degree of association with the behavioural act.

6.6.1 FIXED INTERVAL SCHEDULE :

This schedule demands that a fixed amount of time has to elapse before a reinforcement is administered. In many organizations monetary reinforcement comes at the end of a period of time. Most workers are paid hourly, weekly or monthly for the time spent on their jobs. This method offers the least motivation for hard work among workers because pay is tied to time interval rather than actual performance.

6.6.2 VARIABLE INTERVAL SCHEDULE :

Under this schedule reinforcers are dispensed unpredictably. The reward is given after a randomly distributed length of time. This is an ideal method for administering praise, promotions and supervisory visits. Variable interval schedules produce higher rates of response and more stable and consistent performance. Suppose the plant manager visits the production department at 11 A.M. approximately each day (fixed interval) performance tends to be high just prior to his visit and thereafter it declines. Under variable interval schedule the manager visits at randomly selected time intervals and no one knows for sure when the manager will be around. As a result performance tends to be higher and have less fluctuation than under the fixed interval schedule.

6.6.3 FIXED RATIO SCHEDULE :

In this schedule, reinforcement is given after a certain number of responses. This is basically the piece-rate schedule for pay. This schedule tends to produce high rate of response which is both vigorous and steady. Workers try to produce as many pieces as possible in order to pocket the monetary rewards. Therefore, the response level here is significantly higher than obtained under an interval schedule.

6.6.4 VARIABLE RATIO SCHEDULE :

In this schedule, reinforcement is given in an irregular manner. The reward is given after a number of responses slot machines (gambling) are operating under a variable ratio schedule. These machines pay off after swallowing a number of coins. Since gamblers never know when they will be lucky, they often respond at a very high rate. Another example this type of schedule might be provided by the actions of workers in an oyster-processing plant. Every so often (no one can predict when) an oyster being opened is found to contain a pearl. Here the workers never know when fate will smile upon them in this way, they work at a high rate, striking as many oysters as they can each day.

6.7 OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING :

Observational learning results in as a result of watching the behaviour of another person and appraising the consequences of that behaviour. It does not require an overt response. When Mr. X observes that Y is rewarded for superior performance, X learns the positive relationship between performance and rewards without actually obtaining the reward himself. Observational learning plays a crucial role in altering behaviours in organisations.

6.8 COGNITIVE LEARNING :

Here the primary emphasis is on knowing, how events and objects are related to each other. Most of the learning that takes place in the class room is cognitive learning. Cognitive learning is important because it increases the change that the learner will do the right thing first time, without going through a lengthy operant conditioning process.

6.9 LEARNING THEORY AND ORGANISATION BEHAVIOUR :

Learning theory can also provide certain guidelines for conditioning organizational behaviour. Managers know that individuals capable of turning out superior performance must be given more reinforces than those with average or low performance. Managers can successfully use the operant conditioning process to control and influence the behaviour of employees by manipulating its reward system.

6.10 CONCLUSION :

Learning is an important pre-requisite for behaviour. Learning must be reinforced otherwise learning behaviour will disappear. Reinforcement is nothing but repetition and practice. The important theories of learning are classical conditioning, operant conditioning, observation learning and cognitive learning. Operant conditioning is very much useful to the organisational behaviour. Managers can make use of the operant conditioning process by to influence employee behaviour.

6.11 MODEL QUESTIONS :

- 1) Define Learning. What are the essentials of learning ?
- 2) What is the difference between classical conditioning and operant conditioning ?
- 3) Distinguish between positive and negative reinforcements.
- 4) Elaborately discuss various reinforcement schedules to influence employee behaviour.

6.12 SUGGESTED READINGS :

- Skinner B.F.* : Science and Human Behaviour, Mac Millan, New York, 1953.
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LESSON - 7

ATTITUDES

LESSON PLAN :

- 7.1 OBJECTIVES
- 7.2 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION
- 7.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ATTITUDES
- 7.4 COMPONENTS OF THE ATTITUDES
 - 7.4.1 AFFECTIVE COMPONENT
 - 7.4.2 CONGNITIVE COMPONENT
 - 7.4.3 THE OVERT COMPONENT
- 7.5 ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR
- 7.6 FUNCTIONS SERVED BY ATTITUDES
- 7.7 FORMATION OF ATTITUDES
- 7.8 MEASUREMENT OF ATTITUDES
- 7.9 ATTITUDES AND PRODUCTIVITY
- 7.10 CHANGING THE ATTITUDES
- 7.11 SUMMARY
- 7.12 MODEL QUESTIONS
- 7.13 SUGGESTED READINGS
- 7.1 OBJECTIVES :

In this lesson the concept attitude, characteristics and components of the attitude are discussed. The relationship between attitudes and behaviour is also analysed.

7.2 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION :

Attitude is an internal state of person that is focussed on objects, events, people that can exist in the person's psychological world. An individual's behaviour is also a function of attitudes. An attitude is also a cognitive element; it always remain inside a person. Everyone's psychological world is limited and thus everyone has a limited number of attitudes. In business organisation, employees have attitudes related to world environment and plant location etc. The individual's attitudes toward these factors are indicative of his apathy or enthusiasm toward the activities and objectives of the organisations.

1. An attitude is the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some object in a favourable or an unfavourable manner.

2. The most pervasive phenomenon is "attitude". People at work place have attitudes about lots of topics that are related to them. These attitudes are firmly embedded in a complex psychological structure of beliefs and other attitudes and values.

3. Attitudes are different from values. Values are the ideals-abstract ideals, positive or negative, not tied to any specific object or situation that represents our beliefs about ideal conduct. Whereas attitudes are narrower, they are our feelings, thoughts and behavioural tendencies toward a specific object or situation.

4. Attitude is a predisposition to respond to a certain set of facts.

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

An attitude is "a mental state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a specific influence upon a person's response to people, objects, and situation with which it is related". Attitudes thus state one's predispositions toward given aspects of world. They also provide an emotional basis of one's interpersonal relations and identification with others.

Managers in work organisations need to know and understand employee's attitudes in order to manage effectively. Attitudes do influence behaviour of people and their performance in organisations.

7.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF AN ATTITUDE :

Attitudes can be distinguished in terms of (characterised by) their valence, multiplexity, relation to needs, and centrality.

Valence : It refers to the magnitude or degree of favourableness or unfavourableness toward the object/event. While measuring the attitudes we are basically concerned with the valence. If a person is relatively indifferent toward an object then his attitude has low valence. On the other hand, if a person is extremely favourable or unfavourable toward an attitude object, then his attitude will have a high valence.

Multiplexity : It refers to the number of elements constituting the attitude. For example, one student may show interest in studies, but another shows interest, in addition works hard, sincere, and serious. Similarly an employee may feel simply loyal to an organisation, but another may feel loyal, respectful, fearful and dependent.

Relation to needs : Attitudes can also vary in relations to the needs they serve. For instance, attitudes of an individual toward the pictures may serve only entertainment needs. On the other hand, attitudes of an individual toward task may serve strong needs for security, achievement, recognition, and satisfaction.

Centrality : One salient characteristic of the attitude refers to the importance of the attitude object to the individual. The centrality indicates the importance of the object. The attitudes which have high centrality for an individual will be less susceptible to change.

7.4 COMPONENT OF AN ATTITUDE :

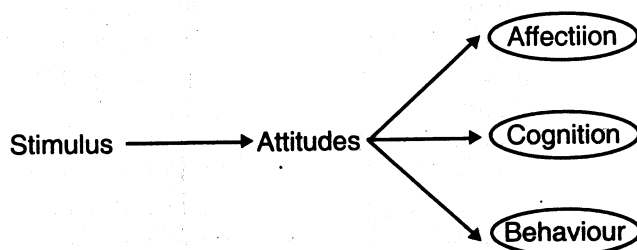
The structure of a person's attitude comprises of three vital components - affective, cognitive and overt.

7.4.1 AFFECTIVE COMPONENT :

The affective or feeling component refers to the emotions associated with an attitude object. It basically consists of the "feeling" a person has toward an attitude object. According to Mc Ginnies "it is an emotional component that develops as a conditioned response by association with stimuli that have either punishment or rewarding effects. This component is concerned with the evaluation and emotion and is often expressed as like or dislike, good or bad, pleasing or displeasing, favourable or unfavourable. The expression of warmth, love, hate, and other emotional expressions are also belonging to the affective component. It is this affective feature that is most commonly associated with the idea of attitude.

In work organisations, the examples of affective components of a person X attitude toward Y may be :

- * X dislike Y on personal grounds
- * X dislike Y because he is liked by employer
- * X dislikes Y because he makes more money than X
- * X dislikes Y because he takes good decisions despite the lack of experience, and training.



In one research study by Dickson and Mc Ginnies about the attitudes of a sample university students towards church, it is revealed that both pro-church and anti-church students responded with greater emotions to statements that contradicted their attitudes than to those that reflected the reasons behind a person's feeling of good or bad, like or dislikes.

7.4.2 COGNITIVE COMPONENT :

Cognitive component represents the beliefs of a person about an attitude object. The beliefs may be based on a variety of learning experience, rumors, misunderstandings, or any other information. You may believe that the manager is intelligent or stupid, ethical or unethical, good or bad, or autocrat or democrat. Therefore, cognitive component is very important and consists of the individual's perceptions, beliefs and ideas about an object. According to Krech, Crutchfield, Ballachery the most critical cognitions incorporated into the system of attitudes are the "evaluative beliefs" that take account of good bad, desirable/undesirable, favourable, unfavourable qualities of object. The cognitive component of attitude is sometimes referred to as "opinion".

It is important to note that there may be incongruity between the affective and cognitive components. The affective component (feeling) may be positive and the cognitive component (beliefs) may be negative. For instance, you may have a positive feeling toward a person but still believe that he has negative characteristics.

7.4.3 THE OVERT COMPONENT :

It is also known as "behavioural" component or "conative" component. This overt component is concerned with the way one intends to behave toward a particular attitude object. Both the affective and cognitive components (feelings and beliefs) influence the way a person intends to behave toward an attitude object. For instance, if a person has a negative feeling or belief toward an object, he will be likely to behave negatively toward the object. In other words, the behavioural component of attitude consist of the tendency to act or react toward an attitude object in certain specified ways.

7.4.5 ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR :

The relationship between attitudes and behaviour is highly controversial. On one side, cognitive theorists believe that changes in attitudes affect the behaviour of individuals. That is, to say, to change behaviour of an individual the attitudes he possess must subject to change initially. In other words, change in behaviour calls for a change in attitudes of individuals.

On the other side of argument, some theorists like Bem and other reinforcement theorists, believe that one would have to change behaviour initially to change attitudes. Bem's self perception theory, for instance indicates that people are generally aware of their cognitions. According to nonmotivational interpretation of Bem, and individual who wants to know his own feelings or beliefs will study his own behaviour and ask "what must my attitude be if I am willing to behave in this particular fashion in this situation?". This kind of dispute between the theories (Cognitive theories and reinforcement theories) is trivial for the beginner students at this level but it would suffice if they notice the fundamental difference between these two opinions.

Perhaps the most famous research on this topic "behaviour and attitudes" was conducted by Richard La Piere. Long back (from 1930 to 1932) La Piere and a Chinese couple travelled around the entire States (USA) by car. These people have received warm welcome and were treated magnificently well. La Piere reported that only once was the couple not treated hospitably (out of two hundred and fifty one establishments they visited). But after six months when La Piere has sent letters to the restaurants asking whether Chinese clientele would be accepted, surprisingly over ninety three per cent of the responses said "no"-i.e., Chinese would not be accommodated.

The essence of La Piere's work is that people acted in one way i.e., friendly and hospitably, whereas they respond to Chinese in a different way i.e., negative affects and beliefs about Chinese. In other words, clearly there was discrepancy between the actual behaviour and reported attitude. The results of this research has created an uproar among social scientists who then attempted to define, redefine, measure and develop new theories of attitudes. Out of the refinement some generalizations about attitudes and behaviour.

1. First of all, the more specific the measurement of attitude, the more it is to be related to the behaviour. La Piere has obtained extremely discrepant information about the prejudice toward Chinese people in America. He simply asked about Chinese people in general. He did not actually measure the attitude.

2. Attitudes are related to behaviour. There is not doubt about it, but they are influenced by situational factors such as pressures by union, top management etc.

7.6 FUNCTIONS SERVED BY ATTITUDES :

Attitudes serve a number of functions. According to Katz, attitudes serve four important functions - adjustment, value, expression, knowledge and ego-defensiveness.

1. *Adjustment function* : This function recognizes the famous hedonistic principle- people strive to maximise the rewards and minimize the penalties in their external environment. Attitudes are the means for reaching desired goals or for avoiding undesirable results. Attitudes are the associations of sentiments based on experiences in attaining the motive satisfaction.

2. *The ego-defensive function* : People normally expected a great deal of their energies in the process of learning to live with themselves. Many of our attitudes serve the function of defending our self-image. For instance, when people cannot admit their inferiority feelings they project their feelings over some convenient minority group and bolster their egos by attitudes of superiority toward this minority group.

3. *The value-expressive function* : Many attitudes serve another, yet very important, function in terms of positive expressions of an individual in the minds of other people. Value-expressive attitudes, according to Katz, not only give clarity to the self-image but also mold that self-image closer to heart's desire.

4. *The knowledge function* : This function is based on the need for understanding and making sense of the world. Some attitudes that are appropriate to the situations will be retained and those that are outdated are discarded by an employee. In other words, attitudes that are inadequate for dealing with new and changing environment will be thrown out by an individual because they lead to contradictions and inconsistency.

7.7 ATTITUDE FORMATION :

The question often arises "Where do attitudes come from?". Attitudes are basically learned. People are not born with specific attitudes, rather they acquire them through the "process of learning". Attitudes reflect a person's previous reinforcement history. The determinants of a person's attitudes are personal experience, association, family, peer groups, and society. Most of the attitudes are a mixture of the above determinants.

1. *Experience* : People gain experience in forming (developing) attitudes by coming in direct contact with an attitude object. Through job experiences, individuals learn attitudes. They develop attitudes about such factors as salary, performance reviews, job design, work group affiliation and managerial capabilities.

2. *Association* : People are highly influenced by the major groups or associations to which they belong. Our geographic region, religion, educational background, race, sex, age and income-class-all strongly influence our attitudes. The influence of groups on the attitudes of the individual is inversely proportional to the distance of the group from the individual.

3. *Family* : Family exerts influence on the initial core of attitudes held by an individual. Individuals develop certain attitudes from their family members-parents, brothers, sisters etc. The family characteristics influences the individual's early attitude patterns and control to which he is initially exposed. Family is primary to the group which an individual belongs. According to Newcomb and Svehla there have been found high correlation between parents and children with respect to attitudes in many specific areas. This investigation has found a high degree of relationship between parents and children in attitudes than they found between children and their peers. They also empirically observed low correlation between attitudes of the children and their teachers.

4. *Peer groups* : As people approach their adulthood, they increasingly rely on their peer groups for approval/attitude. How others judge an individual largely determines his self-image, and

approval-seeking behaviour. "We often seek out others who share attitudes similar to our own, or else we change our attitudes to conform to the attitudes of those in the group (fraternity, dorm, club) whose approval is important to us.

5. *Society* : Social class and religious affiliation also play a vital role in forming attitudes of an individual. The culture, language and the structure of society, all provide an individual with the boundaries of his initial attitudes. At the very early age an individual is taught that certain attitudes are acceptable and certain others are non-acceptable in the society. For instance, the attitudes of Russian toward communism re radically different form those held by an average American. That is to say, what seem to be appropriate in one individual's culture and society may be totally unacceptable in another culture.

6. *Personality factors* : Personality differences between individuals appears to be a very important concomitant of the formation of attitudes. This particular are has been the subject matter of great interest and it carries a great deal of weight in organizational behaviour. An outstanding study by Adorno et al sketched the "authoritarian personality" and tried to study the personality differences between people.

7.8 MEASUREMENT OF ATTITUDES :

According to Gordon Allport the concept of attitude is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary social psychology. With reference to organizational setting, attitudes are tied to one's individual personality and motivation. Attitude is related to behaviour. It is unidimensional variable in the sense that it is tied to one's feelings about an object/event. Though attitude is a hypothetical construct (that is, it something which one carries around inside), it also subject to measurement .

Different types of scales are in use with respect to measurement of attitudes viz., Thurstone's scale, Likert's scale, Bogardu's social distance scale, Guttman's scale etc. let us throw a dim light on these scales.

Thurstone's scale : About five decades back Thurstone collected a large number of statements relating to the area in which attitudes were to be measured. The statements may be relating to any object-for example, religion, education, war, peace etc. The statements, both favourable and unfavorable, are placed into eleven piles; 1 representing the most favourable one and "11" representing the unfavourable. Individuals will then be asked to check those statements with which they agreed. The average of the scale of the scale values of the items which they accepted will give an indication of the placement of a person along the attitude continuum. For example, if the average happens to be low, this would indicate high degree of favourableness in attitudes in this particular area of field and if the average happens to be low, this would indicate high degree of favourableness in attitudes in this particular area of field and if the average happens to be high, this indicates of favourableness in attitudes in the area.

Likert's scale : Another scale that is relatively easy when compared earlier Thurstone's scale is the one that is developed by Rensis Likert's scale is consisting of five boxes ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Under each statement of attitude the respondent will be given a chance to check one of five boxes and finally all the ratings will be summed up. The Likert's scale is also called a summed-rating measure, because several statements are collected in an attitude area, such as one's attitude about a job, and the scale are added up or summed to obtain a person's attitude toward his job. The summed-rating scale provides a means of measuring the intensity of one's attitude toward a particular object/event in addition to the direction.

Likert's scale is more reliable than Thurstone's scale and it is more valid.

7.9 ATTITUDES AND PRODUCTIVITY :

One of the most perplexing questions concerning employees attitudes is the extent of their relationship with employee efficiency and productivity. A number of studies have attempted to analyse this relationship but to date no close correlation has been established. The results, at best, are inconclusive. Let us analyse briefly the important studies.

Attitude Toward Employees and Operating Efficiency : Let us take up this question first "What is the relation ship between the employees' productivity and their attitude toward the organization that employs them?" On this subject, research was conducted by the University of Michigan (Institute for Social Research). In one study of a big company it has been found that employees in high producing sections were found to have no more favourable attitudes toward the organisation than those in low-producing sections engaged in the same kind of work. The distribution of employees into the various attitude group is as follows.

The figures reveal no correlation between the general attitudes and productivity. When the study was repeated in other situations once again it revealed the similar results Surprisingly, these studies suggest that the employees with favourable attitudes toward the organization are unlikely to be more productive employees than are those with relatively unfavourable attitudes. Likert, however, suggested that the nature work seems to affect this relationship. He contends that in the case of varied tasks, a positive correlation exists between productivity and their attitudes. Most of the research studies have considered only repetitive tasks and probably that is the reason why there is no correlation between attitudes and productivity. By varied work we mean the type of work involved in engineering, research, marketing etc.-(other than producing and manufacturing sections).

Another important factors is time. Some research evidence Reveals a positive connection between attitudes and employee's productivity when the data are analysed over an appreciable period of time. The essence is that some time span is required for a change in managerial behaviour to show up in employee attitudes and in productivity. In other words, evaluation of the relationship between attitudes and productivity at a particular point of time often misleads the relationship and give biased results.

7.10 CHANGING THE ATTITUDES :

Managers are often confronted with the problem of changing attitudes of individual employees. When the previously structured attitudes of the employees are believed to be hindering the task performance, a manager must attempt to change their attitudes. "To know how attitudes change of can be made to change is a theoretical and practical problem of great momentperhaps the most urgent psychological problem in our world today." But the most to important thing to remember about attitude change is that a need to change must be existing.

Attitude change may be roughly classified into congruent and incongruent changes. By congruent change we mean a movement in the same direction; a mild pro-war attitude may become, under changed conditions, even more pro-war. To take an example, a less serious student maybe converted into a more serious student by resorting to attitude change. On the other hand, an incongruent attitude change involves a change toward the other end of the continuum. For example, conversion of a dull and non-intelligent student into an interesting and intelligent student constitutes this incongruent attitude change. Similarly turning dislike into like, unfavourable into favourable etc. are also examples of incongruent attitude changes.

A manager attempting to change an individual employee's attitudes should keep in mind the following factors:

- (i) The characteristics of the communicator.
- (ii) The method of communication.
- (iii) The characteristics of the person to be influenced.
- (iv) Situational factors.

Characteristics of the Communicator : The most important thing in attitude change is the characteristics of communicator. These include the status and prestige, whether the communication is biased or dispassionate, whether the manager (communicator) is attractive and liked.

One very important variable is status of the manager. The higher the status of the manager the higher is the probability that he will be able to change the employee's attitude. Another variable is the amount of prestige he carries on his head. The typical study has two people reading the same message with one communicator having high prestige and one having low prestige. The high prestige communicator produced the greatest amount of attitude change.

Changing attitudes is also a function of the trust in the communicator by the employee. If the employee trust their manager i.e, if they have faith in the manager, they accept the message and change their attitudes correspondingly. On the other hand, if a manager has insignificant prestige, trust, and is not shown considerable respect by his peers and subordinates, he will be in a difficult position to change the attitudes of his employees. One of the more reliable research finding is that the greater the prestige of the communicator, the more attitude change is produced.

Finally if a manager is liked by his subordinates he is likely to be successful in a bringing change in the attitudes of his subordinates. " The reason that cricket players and movie stars advertise speak. It is because these people are attractive and liked. We like products that are liked by people for whom we have positive feelings."

The Method of Communication : Another influential factor in attitude change is the way the message to his employees. There are, in fact, certain ways in which a message can be constructed so that it results in change in attitudes. Communication should be easy and convincing so that it creates change without any discomfort. Communicator by presenting a clear-view (two-sided view) will be able to bring change, people when presented with two-sided views will be more convinced as they perceive that the argument is not biased.

Yet another method of communication is through "fear appeals." By communicating the terrible the terrible consequences of the continuance of the present attitudes, a manager can bring change in attitudes. Antismoking advertisements, by constantly emphasizing the dangerous possibility of cancer attacks, are famous examples of "fear appeals" throughout the globe. The research results on this issue indicated that fear appeals can be effective, especially when the target can not do something constructive to reduce the fear on the spot.

Characteristics of the Target : The single most important factor influencing the attitude change is the degree of commitment of the target (employee) to the initial attitude. Further, attitudes that are publicly expressed (openly stated) are more difficult to change because the person concerned has already shown commitment. And to change the attitude would be to admit the mistake. A research by

Hovland et al reveals that attitudes represented by public statements were more resistant to change than those stated privately. Thus, firmly held attitudes to which people are behaviourally or morally committed are difficult to change. Again, the more central the attitude to other attitudes and values, the less and less change is possible. Strong, and have high self-esteem are difficult to change because they feel their attitudes are more correct.

Situational Factors : Situational factors are not only extensive but also play a major role in influencing the change in attitudes of people. How one picks up the message is apart, the most important part is the situation or the prevailing context. For example, in one study by Lazarsfeld, Berelson and Gaudel it has been found that in a group discussion, attitude changes are more likely to take place in the direction of prevailing attitudes. If the employee (target) believes that the group (his colleagues) is more favourable to the manager, then he will have less hesitation in changing his attitudes. Further, when the target feels the group and the group members are important he will have an "easy go" in changing his attitudes towards the group.

Astute managers who are interested in changing attitudes will begin by examining their prestige, the degree and extent to which they are liked, the strength of their message, and the degree of commitment of the employee to a particular attitude.

7.11 SUMMARY :

The structure of the attitude contains important vital components namely effective component and overt component. Attitudes also serve important functions to the individual. Even though attitudes remain inside a person they can be method. The relationship between attitudes and productivity is also established. Attitudes can also be changed by good communicator and also communication message.

7.12 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Define attitude. How attitudes affect behaviour ?
2. Explain various components of an attitude ?
3. What are the various methods of measurements of attitudes ?
4. Can attitudes be change? What factors you consider while changing the attitudes?

7.13 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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LESSON - 8

WORK STRESS

LESSON PLAN :

- 8.1 OBJECTIVES
- 8.2 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION
- 8.3 POTENTIAL SOURCES OF STRESS
 - 8.3.1 ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS
 - 8.3.2 ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS
 - 8.3.3 INDIVIDUAL FACTORS
- 8.4 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES
 - 8.4.1 PERCEPTION
 - 8.4.2 JOB EXPERIENCE
 - 8.4.3 BELIEF IN LOCUS OF CONTROL
 - 8.4.4 TYPE A BEHAVIOUR
- 8.5 STRESS CONSEQUENCES
 - 8.5.1 PHYSIOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS
 - 8.5.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS
 - 8.5.3 BEHAVIOURAL SYMPTOMS
- 8.6 STRESS MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES
 - 8.6.1 INDIVIDUAL APPROACHES
 - 8.6.2 ORGANISATIONAL APPROACHES
- 8.7 SUMMARY
- 8.8. MODEL QUESTIONS
- 8.9 SUGGESTED READINGS
- 8.1 OBJECTIVES :

In this lesson the potential sources of stress are discussed. Individual differences are responsible whether the stress is potential or actual. The consequences of actual stress and stress management strategies are also described in this chapter.

8.2 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION :

Stress is a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint, of demand related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important. This is a complicated definition. Let's look at its components more closely.

Stress is not necessarily bad in and of itself. While stress is typically discussed in a negative context, it also has positive value. It is an opportunity when it offers potential gain. Consider, for

example the superior performance that an athlete or stage performer gives in "clutch" situations. Such individuals often use stress positively to rise to the occasion and perform at or near their maximum.

More typically, stress is associated with constraints and demands. The former prevent you from doing what you desire. The latter refers to the loss of something desired. So when you take a test at school or you undergo your annual performance review at work, you feel stress because you confront opportunities, constraints, and demands. A good performance review may lead to a promotion, greater responsibilities, and a higher salary. But a poor review may prevent you from getting the promotion. An extremely poor review might even result in you being fired.

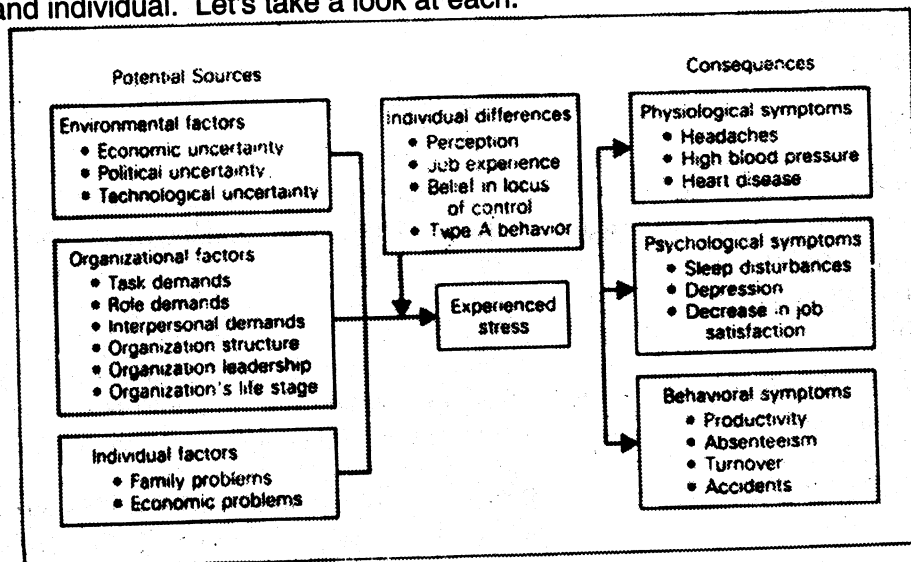
Two conditions are necessary for potential stress to become actual stress. There must be uncertainty over the outcome and the outcome must be important. Regardless of the conditions, it is only when there is doubt or uncertainty regarding whether the opportunity will be seized, the constraint removed, or the loss avoided that there is stress. That is stress is highest for those individuals who perceive that they are uncertain as to whether they will win or lose and lowest for those individuals who think that winning or losing is a certainty. But importance is also critical. If winning or losing is an unimportant outcome, there is no stress. If keeping your job or earning a promotion doesn't hold any importance to you, you have no reason to feel stress over having to undergo a performance review.

The model identifies three sets of factors—environmental, organizational, and individual—that act as potential sources of stress. Whether they become actual stress depends on individual differences such as job experience and personality. When stress is experienced by an individual, its symptoms can surface as physiological, psychological, and behavioral outcomes.

In the remainder of this chapter, we'll consider this model in more detail by reviewing the potential sources of stress, key individual difference variable, and stress consequences. Then we'll focus on stress management strategies that individuals themselves and organisations can utilise to help people cope with dysfunctional stress levels.

8.3 POTENTIAL SOURCES OF STRESS :

As the figure shows, there are three categories of potential stressors; environmental, organisational, and individual. Let's take a look at each.



8.3.1 ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS :

Just as environmental uncertainty influences the design of an organisation's structure, it also influences stress levels among employees in that organisation.

Changes in the business cycle create economic uncertainties. When the economy is contracting, people become increasingly anxious about their security. It was not a change occurrence that suicide rates skyrocketed during the Great Depression of the 1930s. Minor recessions, too, increase stress levels. Downward swings in the economy are often accompanied by permanent reductions in force, temporary layoffs, reduced pay, shorter work weeks, and the like. The October 1987 stock market crash and the attendant speculation that another economic depression might be close at hand is recent illustration of economic uncertainty raising anxiety levels among individuals.

Political uncertainties don't tend to create stress among North American employees as they do for employees in countries like Nicaragua or Iraq. The obvious reason is that the United States and Canada have stable political systems where change is typically implemented in an orderly manner. Yet political threats and changes, even in countries like the U.S. and Canada, can be stress-inducing. This is especially true when voters oust a political party from power. For instance, back in 1976, the Parti Quebecois (PQ) was elected to power in the province of Quebec, Canada, replacing the thirty-year rein of the Liberal Party. Elected on the platform of separating Quebec from the rest of Canada, the PQ immediately made French the official language of the province, set new policies limiting English education, and arranged for an election to allow the citizens of Quebec to vote on separation. The political uncertainties that went with the election of the PQ caused considerable stress among the people of Quebec, particularly those with little or not skills in the French language.

New innovations can make an employee's skills and experience obsolete in a very short period of time. Technological uncertainty, therefore, is a third type of environmental factor that can cause stress. Computers, robotics, automation, and other forms of technological innovations are a threat to many people and cause them stress.

8.3.2 ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS :

There are no shortages of factors within the organisation that can cause stress: Pressures to avoid errors or complete tasks in a limited time period, work overload, a demanding and insensitive boss, and unpleasant co-workers are a few examples. We've categorised these factors around task, rôle, and interpersonal demands; organisation structure; organizational leadership; and the organisation's life stage.

Task demands are factors related to a person's job. They include the design of the individual's job (autonomy, task variety, degree of automation), working conditions, and the physical work layout. Assembly lines can put pressure on people when their speed is perceived as excessive. The more interdependence between a person's tasks and the tasks of others, the more potential stress there is. Autonomy, on the other hand, tends to less stress. Jobs where temperatures, noise, or other working conditions are dangerous or undesirable can increase anxiety. So, too, can working in an overcrowded room or in a visible location where interruptions are constant.

Role demands relate to pressures placed on a person as a function of the particular role he or she plays in the organisation. Role conflicts create expectations that may be hard to reconcile or satisfy. Role overloads is experienced when the employee is expected to do more than time permits. Role ambiguity is created when role expectations are not clearly understood and the employee is not sure that he or she is to do.

Interpersonal demands are pressures created by other employees. Lack of social support from colleagues and poor interpersonal relationships can cause considerable stress, especially among employees with a high social need.

Organisation structure defines the level of differentiation in the organisation, the degree of rules and regulations, and where decisions are made. Excessive rules and lack of participation in decisions that affect an employee are examples of structural variables that might be potential sources of stress.

Organisational leadership represents the managerial style of the organisation's senior executives. Some chief executive officers create a culture characterised by tension, fear, and anxiety. They establish unrealistic pressures to perform in the short run, impose excessively tight controls, and routinely fire employees who don't "measure up". For instance, when Harold Geneen was chairman and CEO at ITT, division executives had to formally present their annual business plan to Geneen and his senior staff group. Each division executive would then be interrogated about every number in every graph, exhibit, and analysis in the plan. The exercise was known to put fear in the hearts of all the division executives and to occasionally bring tears to some of their eyes.

Organisations go through a cycle. They're established, they grow, become mature, and eventually decline. An organization's life stage - that is, where it is in this four stage cycle - creates different problems and pressures for employees. The establishment and decline stages are particularly stressful. The former is characterised by a great deal of excitement and uncertainty, while the latter typically requires cutbacks, layoffs, and a different set of uncertainties. Stress tends to be least in maturity where uncertainties are at their lower ebb.

8.3.3 INDIVIDUAL FACTORS :

The typical individual only works about forty hours a week. The experiences and problems that people encounter in those other 128 nonwork hours each week can spill over to the job. Our final category, then, encompasses factors that comprise the employee's personal life. Primarily, this focuses on family and personal economic problems.

Natural surveys consistently show that people hold family and personal relationships dear. Marital difficulties, the breaking off of a relationship, and discipline troubles with children are examples of relationship problems that create stress for employees and which aren't left at the front door when they arrive at work.

Economic problems created by individuals overextending their financial resources is another set of personal troubles that can create stress for employees and distract their attention from their work. Regardless of income level-people who make \$50,000 a year seem to have as much trouble handling their finances as those who earn \$15,000-some people are poor money managers or have wants that always seem to exceed their earning capacity.

8.4 INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES :

Some people thrive on stressful situations, while others are totally overwhelmed by them. What is it that differentiates people in terms of their ability to deal with stress? What individual difference variables moderate the relationship between potential stressors and experienced stress? At least four variables-perception, job experience, belief in locus of control, and Type A behaviour-have been found to be relevant moderators.

8.4.1 PERCEPTION :

Employees react in response to their perception of reality rather than reality itself. Perception, therefore, will moderate the relationship between a potential stress condition and an employee's reaction to it. One person's fear that he'll lose his job because his company is laying off personnel may be perceived by another as an opportunity to get a large severance allowance and start his own business. Similarly, what one employee perceives as an efficient and challenging work environment may be viewed as threatening and demanding by others. So the stress potential in environmental, organizational, and individual factors doesn't lie in their objective condition. Rather, it lies in an employee's interpretation of those factors.

8.4.2 JOB EXPERIENCE :

Experience is said to be a great teacher. It can also be a great stress-reducer. Think back to your first date or your first few days in college. For most of us, the uncertainty and newness of these situations created stress. But as we gained experience, that stress disappeared or at least significantly decreased. The same phenomenon seems to apply to work situations. That is, experience on the job tends to be negatively related to work stress. Two explanations have been offered. First is the idea of selective withdrawal. Voluntary turnover is more probable among people who experience more stress. Therefore, people who remain with the organisation longer are those with more stress-resistant traits; or at least more resistant to the stress characteristics of their organisation. Second, people eventually develop coping mechanisms to deal with stress. Because this takes time, senior members of the organisation are more likely to be fully adapted and should experience less stress.

8.4.3 BELIEF IN LOCUS OF CONTROL :

Locus of control was introduced in Chapter 3 as a personality attribute. Those with an internal locus of control believe they control their own destiny. Those with an external locus believe their lives are controlled by outside forces. Evidence indicates that internals perceive their jobs to be less stressful than do externals.

When internals and externals confront a similar stressful situation, the internals are likely to believe that they can have a significant effect on the results. They, therefore, act in ways to take control of events. Externals are more likely to be passive and defensive. Rather than do something to reduce the stress, they acquiesce. So externals, who are more likely to feel helpless in stressful situations, are also more likely to experience stress.

8.4.4 TYPE A BEHAVIOR :

A great deal of attention in recent years has been directed at what has become known as Type A behavior. It is undoubtedly the most frequently used moderating variable related to stress.

Type A behavior is characterized by feeling a chronic sense of time urgency and by an excessive competitive drive. A Type A individual is "aggressively involved in a chronic, incessant struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons." In the North American culture, such characteristics tend to be highly prized and positively correlated with ambition and the successful acquisition of material goods. Type A's

1. Are always moving, walking, and eating rapidly,
2. Feel impatient with the rate at which most events take place,
3. Strive to think or do two or more things simultaneously,

4. Cannot cope with leisure time, and
5. Are obsessed with numbers; success is measure in terms of how much of everything they acquire.

The opposite of Type A is Type B behaviour. Type B's are "rarely harried by the desire to obtain a wildly increasing number of things or participate in an endless growing series of events in an ever decreasing amount of time. Type B's.

1. Never suffer from a sense of time urgency with its accompanying impatience,
2. Feel to need to display or discuss either their achievements or accomplishments unless such exposure is demanded by the situation.
3. Play for fun and relaxation, rather than to exhibit their superiority at any cost, and
4. Can relax without guilt.

Obviously, Type A's are more likely to experience stress on and off the job. They subject themselves to more or less continuous time pressure, creating for themselves a life of deadlines.

8.5 STRESS CONSEQUENCES :

Stress shows itself in a number of ways. For instance, an individual who is experiencing a high level of stress may develop high blood pressure, ulcers, irritability, difficulty in making routine decisions, loss of appetite, accident proneness, and the like. These can be subsumed under three general categories : physiological, psychological, and behavioral symptoms.

8.5.1 PHYSIOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS :

The physiological stress create changes in metabolism, increase heart and breathing rates, increased blood pressure, bring on headaches, and induce heart attacks.

8.5.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL SYMPTOMS :

This type of stress create changes in an individuals attitudes and disposition which create tension, anxiety, irritability, boredom and procrastination.

8.5.3 BEHAVIORAL SYMPTOMS :

These stress symptoms brings changes in an individuals behavior including productivity, absence and turnover. It also creates changes in heating habits, increasing smoking rapid speech etc.

8.6 STRESS MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES :

The stress management strategies include under two headings. There (1) Individual approaches and (2) Organisational approaches .

8.6.1 INDIVIDUAL APPROACHES :

Individual approaches include : a) Time managements (b) Physical Exercise (c) Relaxation training and (d) Social support.

Time Management : If the people manage their time properly they can avoid stress. The famous time management principles accepted by majority of the scholars are: (1) Making daily list of the activities to be performed. (2) Give priority to the activities as per urgency and importance. (3) Scheduling activities according to the priorities set. (4) Do the most important activity when you are in pleasant mood.

Physical Exercise : Non competitive physical exercises like aerobics, race walking, jogging, swimming and riding a bicycle have also recommended by the physicians to deal with excessive stress levels. These exercises increase heart capacity, lower heart rate and a mental diversion from work pressures.

Relaxation Training : By using relaxation training technics such as meditation hypnosis and biofeedback we also come up with excess stress levels. If we get deep relaxation we are free from blood pressure and can avoid stress.

Social Support : Having friends family and colleagues at work place provides an outlet when stress levels become excessive. If you have social support with can be a means for tension reduction. The high social support reduces the heavy work stress and job burnout.

8.6.2 ORGANISATIONAL APPROACHES :

The factors which come under organizational approaches in order to reduce stress are (a) Selection and placement (b) Goal setting (c) Job redesign (d) Organisational communication (e) Wellness programs.

Selection and Placement : Suppose for jobs which require little experience we can take people with external locus of control, type A behavior and with little job experience. For those jobs which involve decision making we take people who have long experience with belief in internal locus of control and type B behavior. So through proper selection and placement methods the organization can also reduce stress.

Goal Setting : Employees perform better when they have specific and challenging goals and receive feedback on how they will progressing towards these goals. The use of goals can reduce stress and provide motivation.

Job Redesign : Redesigning jobs to give employees more responsibility, greater participation in decision making, more meaning full work, more autonomy and increased feedback can reduce stress and give employees greater control were work activities and lesson dependence on others.

Organisational Communication : Increasing formal communication with employees reduces uncertainty by lessening role ambiguity and role conflict. Management can also use effective communications as a means to shape employee perceptions.

Wellness Programs : These programs focus on the employees total physical and mental condition. For example quite smoking, control alcohol use, lose weight, improve their diet, and develop a regular exercise program.

8.7 SUMMARY :

The potential stress is useful to the organisation. The stress should not become actual. The environmental, organisational and individual factors are responsible for potential sources. Individual

differences decide whether the stress is potential or actual. The consequences of stress are physiological, psychological and behavioural. The stress can be managing by both individual and organisation.

8.8 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Describe the sources of potential stress.
2. What are the symptoms of stress ?
3. What can individuals do to reduce stress ?
4. What can organisations do to reduce stress ?

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LESSON - 9

JOB SATISFACTION

LESSON PLAN :

- 9.1 OBJECTIVES
- 9.2 MEANING AND DEFINITION
- 9.3 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION
 - 9.3.1 FULFILMENT THEORY
 - 9.3.2 DISCREPANCY THEORY
 - 9.3.3 EQUITY THEORY
 - 9.3.4 TWO-FACTOR THEORY
- 9.4 MEASURING JOB SATISFACTION
 - 9.4.1 RATING SCALES
 - 9.4.2 CRITICAL INCIDENTS
 - 9.4.3 INTERVIEWS
- 9.5 JOB SATISFACTION OF AMERICAN EMPLOYEES
 - 9.5.1 YOUNG WORKERS
 - 9.5.2 BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS
 - 9.5.3 MIDDLE MANAGERS
- 9.6 INFLUENCES ON JOB SATISFACTION
- 9.7 OUTCOMES OF JOB SATISFACTION
- 9.8 MODEL QUESTIONS
- 9.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

9.1 OBJECTIVES :

The Objectives of this lesson is to explain the concept and definition of job satisfaction. Various theories are also explained along with variables of job satisfaction.

9.2 DEFINITION AND MEANING :

Human Resource is considered to be the most valuable asset in any organisation. It is the sum-total of inherent abilities, acquired knowledge and skills represented by the talents and aptitudes of the employed persons who comprise executives, supervisors, and the rank and file employees. It may be noted here that human resources should be utilised to the maximum possible extent, in order to achieve individual and organisational goals. It is thus the employee's performance which ultimately decides and attainment of goals. However, the employee performance is to a large extent, influenced by motivation and job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction refers to a person's feeling of satisfaction on the job, which acts as motivation to work. It is not the self-satisfaction, happiness or self-contentment but the satisfaction on the job.

The term relates to the total relationship between an individual and the employer for which he is paid. Satisfaction does mean the simple feeling-state accompanying the attainment of any goal, the end-state is feeling accompanying the attainment by an impulse of its objective. Job dissatisfaction does mean absence of motivation at work. Researchers differently described the factors contributing to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Hoppock describes job satisfaction as, "any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause and person truthfully to say I am satisfied with my job."

Job satisfaction is defined as the "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values." In contrast job dissatisfaction is defined as "the unpleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's job values or as entailing disvalues." However, both satisfaction and dissatisfaction were seen as, "a function of the perceived relationship between what one perceives it as offering or entailing."

9.3 THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION :

There are vital differences among experts about the concept of job satisfaction. Basically, there are four approaches/theories of job satisfaction.

There are : (i) Fulfilment theory, (ii) Discrepancy theory, (iii) Equity theory, and (iv) Two-factor theory.

9.3.1 FULFILMENT THEORY :

The proponents of this theory measure satisfaction in terms of rewards a person receives or the extent to which his needs are satisfied. Further, they thought that there is a direct/positive relationship between job satisfaction and the actual satisfaction of the expected needs. The main difficulty in this approach is that job satisfaction as observed by willing, is not only a function of what a person receives but also what he feels he should receive as there would be considerable difference in the actuals and expectations of persons. Thus, job satisfaction cannot be regarded as merely a function of how much a person receives from his job. Another important factor/variable that should be included to predict job satisfaction accurately is the strength of the individual's desire or his level of aspiration in a particular area. This led to the development of the discrepancy-theory of job satisfaction.

9.3.2 DISCREPANCY THEORY :

The proponents of this theory argue that satisfaction is the function of what a person actually receives from his job situation and what he thinks he should receive or what he expects to receive. When the actual satisfaction derived is less than expected satisfaction, it results in dissatisfaction. As discussed earlier, "Job satisfaction, it resolve in dissatisfaction. As discussed earlier, "Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are functions of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it is offering. This approach does not make it clear whether or not over satisfaction is a part of dissatisfaction and if so, how does it differ from dissatisfaction. This led to the development of equity theory of job satisfaction.

9.3.3 EQUITY THEORY :

The proponents of this theory are of the view that a person's satisfaction is determined by his perceived equity, which in turn is determined by his input-output balance compared to his comparison of others input-output balance. Input-output balance is the perceived ratio of what a person receives from his job relative to what he contributes to the job. This theory is of the view that both under and over rewards lead to dissatisfaction while the under-reward causes feelings of unfair treatment, over-reward leads to feelings of guilt discomfort.

9.3.4 TWO-FACTOR THEORY :

As discussed earlier, this theory was developed by Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell who identified certain factors as satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Factors such as achievement, recognition, responsibility etc., are satisfiers, the presence of which causes satisfaction but their absence does not result in dissatisfaction. On the other hand, factors such as supervision, salary, working conditions etc., are dissatisfiers, the absence of which causes dissatisfaction. Their presence, however, does not result in job satisfaction. The studies designed to test their theory failed to give any support to this theory, as it seems that a person can get both satisfaction and dissatisfaction at the same time, which is not valid.

9.4 MEASURING JOB SATISFACTION :

Since job satisfaction is an attitude, it cannot be directly observed and therefore must rely on the employees' self-reports. These surveys are receiving renewed interest in the practice of human resources management as seen in the accompanying Application Example. There are a number of ways of measuring job satisfaction. Some of the most common are rating scales, critical incidents, interviews, and action tendencies.

9.4.1 RATING SCALES :

The most common approach for measuring job satisfaction is the use of rating scales. One of the most popular is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). This instrument (MSQ) provides a detailed picture of the specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions of employees.

9.4.2 CRITICAL INCIDENTS :

The critical incidents approach to the measurement of job satisfaction was popularized by Frederick Herzberg. He and his colleagues used this technique in their research on the two-factor theory of motivation covered in the next chapter. Employees were asked to describe incidents on their job when they were particularly satisfied and dissatisfied. These incidents were then content-analysed in determining which aspects were most closely related to positive and negative attitudes.

One of the major benefits of the critical incidents approach is that it allows the respondents to say whatever they want. The individuals are not restricted by pre-determined categories or events as on a structured questionnaire. On the other hand, the approach is time-consuming and there is the chance that both the responses and the interpretations will be biased. The respondents might tell the interviewer what they think the interviewer wants to hear or something that makes them look good such as, "I like it best when my supervisor gets out of my hair and lets me do the job my way. No one knows how to do this work better than I do."

9.4.3 INTERVIEWS :

Another method of assessing job satisfaction is through the use of personal interviews. This approach allows for an in-depth exploration of job attitudes. If the respondent says something that the interviewer does not understand or would like to learn more about, the interviewer can follow up with additional questions. On the negative side, responses can be misinterpreted and thus lead to erroneous conclusions. A second problem is the possibility of interviewer bias. The way in which the individual asks the questions or the types of information the person chooses to record can affect the outcome. Finally, there is the cost factor. Interviews are a relatively time consuming and thus expensive way of gathering information.

9.5 JOB SATISFACTION OF AMERICAN EMPLOYEES :

Are most workers dissatisfied with their jobs? Job attitude surveys generally reveal that they are not, although job satisfaction continues to be a major concern. Although surveys are reported all the time, the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center and the National Opinion Research Center have found that workers in a wide range of jobs across a diverse set of organizations consistently report that they are generally satisfied with their jobs.

9.5.1 YOUNG WORKERS :

Young workers seem to be less satisfied with their jobs than their older counterparts. There are a number of reasons for this. One is that young workers come into the workplace with high expectations that may not be fulfilled, as jobs prove insufficiently challenging or meaningful. Another reason for dissatisfaction is that many young graduates of colleges and even high schools may be overqualified for their jobs. For example, the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that the number of college graduates exceeds job openings that require college degrees by about 1 million a year. As a result, some college graduates are taking lower-income, lower-status jobs, and this is leading to frustration and lack of job satisfaction on their part.

Another reason why young employees are dissatisfied with their jobs is that they do not have any authority or control over their work. The loss of control is becoming increasingly recognized as a major problem in leading to dissatisfaction and work stress. Young people in particular find that they lose control over their lives in the workplace. They find that their bosses are in charge and they must respond to their directives. This situation is quite different from what they encountered at home and school, where they had some control over their lives.

9.5.2 BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS :

Many blue-collar workers do not believe that there is much opportunity for either themselves or their children. In fact, for the first time in decades, the children of many blue-collar workers are becoming blue collar workers themselves. Today, about 50 percent of all blue-collar workers have high school diplomas; in 1960 this was but 25 percent. These workers are becoming better educated, but their opportunities are not improving.

Many blue-collar workers are particularly frustrated by the lack of respect accorded to them. The popular press often portrays them in negative terms. For example, newspaper stories that report cases in which plumbers or electricians earn \$50 an hour while the average person earns far less continue to appear and give the impression that many blue-collar people are overpaid for doing menial work.

Another problem is the increasing feeling among blue-collar workers that there are not enough of the good things of life to go around and they are failing to receive their fair share. In truth many blue-collar workers are barely able to scrape by because of low wages and the high cost of living.

9.5.3 MIDDLE MANAGERS :

Many middle managers feel that their organizations are not doing enough for them. One of their major complaints in recent years has been the decline in organizational loyalty to the personnel. Years ago, middle managers used to believe that if they did a good job; they could expect the company to take care of them. This is no longer true. As companies continue to become "learn and mean" through downsizing, it is having a devastating effect on all employees, but especially on middle managers. The Fortune 500 industrial companies eliminated 3.2 million jobs in the eighties. Many of those jobs were held by middle managers, who had previously been very satisfied. Now in the nineties, where the trend continues, the great majority of remaining managers have been found in surveys to have low morale, to fear future cutbacks, and to distrust their top level management.

9.6 INFLUENCES ON JOB SATISFACTION :

There are a number of factors that influence job satisfaction. The major ones can be summarised by recalling the dimensions identified earlier: pay, the work itself, promotions, supervision, the work group, and working conditions.

Pay : Wages are a significant factor in job satisfaction. Money not only helps people attain their basic needs but it is an instrumental in providing upper-level need satisfaction. Employees often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organization. Fringe benefits are also important, but they are not as influential. One reason undoubtedly is that most employees do not even know how much they are receiving in benefits. Moreover, most tend to undervalue these benefits because they cannot see their practical value.

The Work Itself : The content of the work itself is another major source of satisfaction. For example, research related to the job characteristics approach to job design, shows that feedback from the job itself and autonomy are two of the major job-related motivational factors. Some of the most important ingredients of a satisfying job uncovered by surveys include interesting and challenging work, work that is not boring, and a job that provides status.

Promotions : Promotional opportunities seem to have a varying effect on job satisfaction. This is because promotions take a number of different forms and have a variety of accompanying rewards. For example, individuals who are promoted on the basis of seniority often experience job satisfaction but not as much as those who are promoted on the basis of performance. Additionally, a promotion with a 10 percent salary raise is typically not as satisfying as one with a 20 percent salary raise. This helps explain why executive promotions may be more satisfying than promotions that occur at the lower levels of organisations.

Supervision : Supervision is another moderately important source of job satisfaction. For now, however, it can be said that there seem to be two dimensions of supervisory style that affect job satisfaction. One is employee-centeredness. This is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes a personal interest in the employee's welfare. It commonly is manifested in ways such as checking to see how well the subordinate is doing, providing advise and assistance to the individual, and communicating with the worker on a personal as well as an official level.

Working Conditions : Working conditions are another factor that have a modest effect on job satisfaction. If the working conditions are good (clean, attractive the surroundings, for instance), the personnel will find it easier to carry out their jobs. If the working conditions are poor (hot, noisy surroundings, for example), personnel will find it more difficult to get things done. In other words, the effect of working conditions on job satisfaction is similar to that of the work group. If things are good, there will not be a job satisfaction problem; if things are poor, there will be.

9.7 OUTCOMES OF JOB SATISFACTION :

To society as a whole as well as from an individual employee's standpoint, job satisfaction in and of itself is a desirable outcome. However, from a pragmatic management and organizational effectiveness perspective, it is important to know how, if at all, satisfaction relates to outcome variables. For instance, if job satisfaction is high, will the employees perform better and the organization be more effective? If job satisfaction is low, will there be performance problems and ineffectiveness? This question has been asked by both researchers and practitioners through the years. There are no simple answers. In examining the outcomes of job satisfaction, it is important to break down the analysis into a series of specific subtopics. The following examines the most important of these.

Satisfaction and Productivity : Are satisfied workers more productive than their less-satisfied counterparts? This "satisfaction-performance controversy" has raged over the years. Although most people assume a positive relationship, the preponderance of research evidence indicates that there is no strong linkage between satisfaction and productivity. For example, a comprehensive meta-analysis of the research literature found only a 0.17 average correlation between job satisfaction and productivity. Satisfied workers will not necessarily be the highest producers. There are many possible mediating variables, the most important of which seems to be rewards. If people receive rewards they feel are equitable, they will be satisfied and this is likely to result in greater performance or performance leads to satisfaction.

Satisfaction and Turnover : Does high employee job satisfaction result in low turnover? Unlike that between satisfaction and productivity, research has uncovered a moderate relationship between satisfaction and turnover. High job satisfaction will not, in and of itself, keep turnover low, but it does seem to help. On the other hand, if there is considerable job dissatisfaction, there is likely to be high turnover. One group of researchers found that for women eighteen to twenty-five, satisfaction was an excellent predictor of whether or not they changed jobs. On the other hand, as job tenure (length of time on the job) increased, there was less likelihood of their leaving. Tenure has also been found to lessen the effects of dissatisfaction among male employees.

Satisfaction and Absenteeism : Research has pretty well demonstrated an inverse relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism. When satisfaction is high, absenteeism tends to be low; when satisfaction is low, absenteeism tends to be high. However, as with the other relationships with satisfaction, there are moderating variables such as the degree to which people feel that their jobs are important. For example, research among state government employees has found that those who believed that their work was important had lower absenteeism than did those who did not feel this way. Additionally, it is important to remember that while high job satisfaction will not necessarily result in low absenteeism, low job satisfaction is likely to bring about high absenteeism.

9.8 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Explain the concept and meaning of job satisfaction.

2. Narrate major factors that influence job satisfaction.
3. "Young people are more satisfied with the job". Is this statement is true or not ? Explain.
4. What are the important outcomes of job satisfaction ?

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LESSON - 10

GROUPS, TYPES OF GROUPS AND PROCESS OF GROUP FORMATION

LESSON PLAN :

- 10.1 OBJECTIVES
- 10.2 DEFINITION
- 10.3 TYPES OF GROUPS
- 10.4 DYNAMICS OF GROUP FORMATION
- 10.5 THEORIES OF GROUP FORMATION
- 10.6 PRACTICALITIES OF GROUP FORMATION
- 10.7 MODEL QUESTIONS
- 10.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

10.1 OBJECTIVES :

The lesson explains the definition group and also various types of groups that exist in the organisation. Various theories of group formation are also explained.

10.2 DEFINITION :

A group is defined as "two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who come together to achieve particular objectives".

10.3 TYPES OF GROUPS :

A group is defined as 'two of more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who come together to achieve particular objectives'. Groups can be either formal or informal. By formal, we mean defined by the organisation's structure, with designated work assignments establishing tasks and work groups. In formal groups, the behaviours that one should engage in are stipulated by and directed toward organisational goals. In contrast, informal groups are alliances that are neither formally structured nor organizationally determined. These groups are natural formations in the work environment, which appear in response to the need for social contact.

It is possible to subclassify groups further as command, task, interest, or friendship groups. Command and task groups are dictated by the formal organization, whereas interest and friendship groups are informal alliances.

The command group is determined by the organization chart. It is composed of the subordinates who report directly to given manager. An elementary school principal and her twelve teachers form a command group, as do the director of postal audits and his five inspectors.

Task groups, also organisationally determined, represent those working together to complete a job task. However, a task group's boundaries are not limited to its immediate hierarchical superior. It can cross command relationships. For instance, if a college student is accused of a campus crime, it may require communication and coordination among the Dean of Academic Affairs, the Dean of students, the Registrar, the Director of Security, and the student's advisor. Such a formation would constitute a task group. It should be noted that all command groups are also task groups, but because task groups can cut across the organization, the reverse need not be true.

People who may or may not be aligned into common command or task groups may affiliate to attain a specific objective with which each is concerned. This is an interest group. Employees who band together to have their vacation schedule altered, to support a peer who has been fired, or to seek increased fringe benefits represent the formation of a united body to further their common interest.

Groups often develop because the individual members have one or more common characteristics. We call these formations friendship groups. Social allegiances, which frequently extend outside the work situation, can be based on similar age, support for "Big Red" Nebraska football, having attended the same college, or the holding of similar political views, to name just a few such characteristics.

Informal groups provide a very important service by satisfying their member's social needs. Because of interactions that result from the close proximity of workstations or task interactions, we find workers playing golf together, riding to and from work together, lunching together, and spending their breaks around the water cooler together. We must recognise that these types of interactions among individuals, even though informal, deeply affect their behaviour and performance.

10.4 THE DYNAMICS OF GROUP FORMATION :

Why do individuals form into groups? Before discussing some very practical reasons, it would be beneficial to examine briefly some of the classic theories of group formation or why people affiliate with one another. The most basic theory explaining affiliation is propinquity. This interesting word means simply that individuals affiliate with one another because of spatial or geographical proximity. The theory would predict that students sitting next to one another in class, for example, are more likely to form into a group than students sitting at opposite ends of the room. In an organization, employees who work in the same area of the plant or office or managers with offices close to one another would more probably form into groups than those who are not physically located together. There is some research evident to support the propinquity theory, and on the surface it has a great deal of merit for explaining group formation. The drawback is that it is not analytical and does not begin to explain some of the complexities of group formation. Some theoretical and practical reasons need to be explored.

10.5 THEORIES OF GROUP FORMATION :

A more comprehensive theory of group formation than mere propinquity comes from the theory based on activities, interactions, and sentiments. These three elements are directly related to one another. The more activities persons share, the more numerous will be their interactions and the stronger will be their sentiments (how much the other persons are liked or disliked); the more interactions among persons, the more will be their shared activities and interactions. This theory lends a great deal to the understanding of group formation and process. The major element is

interaction. Persons in a group interact with one another, not in just the physical propinquity sense, but also to accomplish many group goals such as cooperation and problem solving.

There are many other theories that attempt to explain group formation. Most often they are only partial theories, but they are generally additive in nature. One of the more comprehensive is a balance theory of group formation. The theory states that persons are attracted to one another on the basis of similar attitudes toward commonly relevant objects and goals. Figure shows this balance theory. Individual X will interact and form a relationship/group with individual Y because of common attitudes and values (Z). Once this relationship is formed, the participants strive to maintain a systematic balance between the attraction and the common attitudes. If an imbalance occurs, an attempt is made to restore the balance. If the balance cannot be restored, the relationship dissolves. Both propinquity and interaction play a role in balance theory.

Still another theoretical approach to group formation receiving considerable attention is exchange theory. Similar to its functioning as a work-motivation theory. Exchange theory of groups is based upon reward-cost outcomes of interaction. A minimum positive level (rewards greater than costs) of an outcome must exist in order for attraction or affiliation to take place. Rewards from interactions gratify needs, while costs incur anxiety, frustration, embarrassment, or fatigue. Propinquity, interaction, and common attitudes all have roles in exchange theory.

10.6 PRACTICALITIES OF GROUP FORMATION :

Besides the theoretical explanations for group formation, there are some very practical reasons for joining and/or forming a group. For instance, employees in an organization may form a group for economic, security, or social reasons. Economically, workers may form a group to work on a project that is paid for on a group-incentive plan or may form a group-incentive plan or may form a union to demand higher wages. For security, joining a group provides the individual with a united front in combating indiscriminant, unilateral treatment. The adage that there is strength in numbers applies in this case. The most important practical reason why individuals join or form groups is, however, that groups tend to satisfy the very intense social needs of most people. Workers, in particular, generally have a very strong desire for affiliation. This need is met by belonging to a group. Research going as far back as the Hawthorne studies has found the affiliation motive to have major impact on human behavior in organisations.

10.7 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Define group. Explain various types of groups in organisation.
2. Briefly explain the theories of group formation. In your opinion which theory is relevant to organisational behaviour.

10.8 SUGGESTED READINGS :

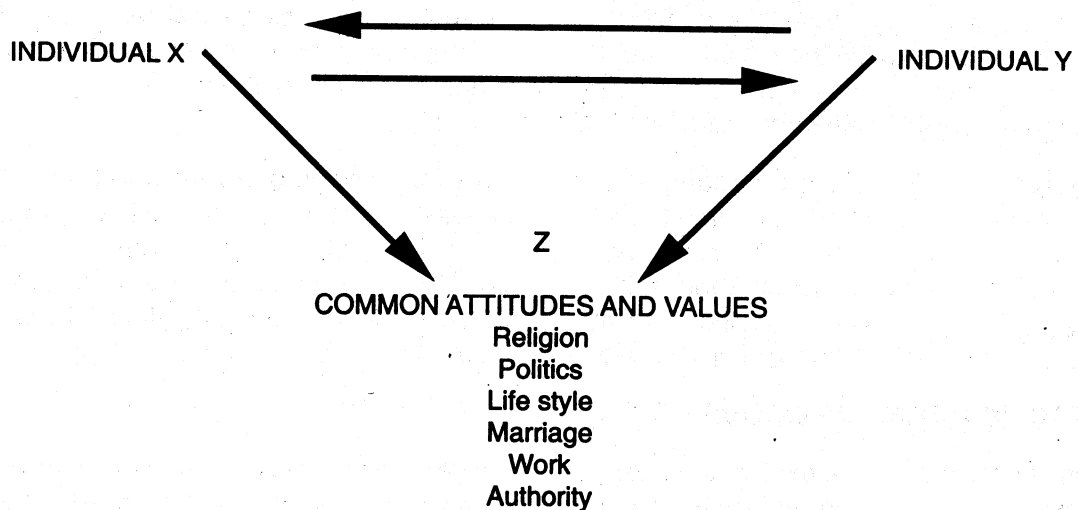
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LESSON - 11

CONFLICTS AND DEFENCE MECHANISMS

LESSON PLAN :

- 11.1 OBJECTIVES**
- 11.2 CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION**
- 11.3 GOAL CONFLICT**
 - 11.3.1 APPROACH-APPROACH CONFLICT
 - 11.3.2 APPROACH-AVOIDANCE CONFLICT
 - 11.3.3 AVOIDANCE-AVOIDANCE CONFLICT
- 11.4 ROLE CONFLICT AND AMBIGUITY**
- 11.5 DEFENCE MECHANISM**
- 11.6 MODEL QUESTIONS**
- 11.7 SUGGESTED READINGS**

11.1 OBJECTIVES :

The lesson explains the concept conflict and also various types of goal conflicts and role conflicts. If the individual is unable to achieve his goal he tries to depend his failure in order to overcome from that failure. Hence, a number of such defence mechanisms are also explained.

11.2 CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION :

Every individual has to take decisions in his life. Some times we take spontaneous decisions but some decisions may not require spontaneous acting. The act of decision making depends upon the ability of the individual. That means how intelligent he is, his self-determination, his insight towards a problem. The individual who knows about his worth and inner skills take correct decisions in his life.

But it may not be always possible for an individual to reach a decision. Some times the individual may face a feeling of two or more courses of action which may be equally pleasant or equally unpleasant. It is this opposition or clash of desires we call as 'conflict'. A conflict, when it is an even tug of war between two urgent and strong wants, keeps a person from acting from one way or another, thus arousing painful emotions. It is essential for a person's well-being that conflicts be overcome within a reasonable time. Some conflicts are short lived and persist for a few days where as some conflicts are long lived and persist for weeks, months and years. There may not be much problem with short lived conflicts but long lived conflicts create serious emotional consequences.

Conflict may be defined as "incompatibility of an individual between values, goals or desires as one goal or desire is interfering with another goal or desire and the individual is emotionally in terms of hostility". Generally speaking conflict is a basic psychological term where an individual faces difficulty in taking a decision.

For example, a young lady may be torn between the desire to accept an offer of a job and the desire to get married into a rich handsome young man. She may not get such an offer of a job again and at the same time it is also difficult to get such an offer of marriage again. She is very unhappy and unable to decide. If she is wise she could understand that she cannot have both and must decide early. Life is full of choices and conflicts. In every case the individual has to take decision early and try to overcome from conflict. Conflicts also create danger to mental health.

11.3 GOAL CONFLICT :

Another common source of conflict for an individual is a goal which has both positive and negative features, or two or more competing goals. Whereas in frustration a single motive is blocked before the goal is reached, in goal conflict two or more motives block one another. For ease of analysis, three separate types of goal conflict are generally identified :

1. Approach-approach conflict, where the individual is motivated to approach two or more positive but mutually exclusive goals.
2. Approach-avoidance conflict, where the individual is motivated to approach a goal and at the same time is motivated to avoid it. The single goal contains both positive and negative characteristics for the individual.
3. Avoidance-avoidance conflict, where the individual is motivated to avoid two or more negative but mutually exclusive goals.

To varying degrees, each of these forms of goal conflict exists in the modern organisation.

11.3.1 APPROACH-APPROACH CONFLICT :

This type of goal conflict probably has the least impact on organizational behaviour. Although conflict may arise about making a choice between two positive goals, they are preferable to two negative goals or a goal with both negative and positive characteristics. For example, if both personal and organizational goals are attractive to organizational participants, they will usually make a choice rather quickly and thus eliminate their conflict. A more specific example would be the new college graduate who is faced with two excellent job opportunities or the executive who has the choice between two very attractive offices in which to work. Such situations often cause the person some anxiety but are quickly resolved, and the person, unlike the donkey in the fable, does not "starve between two haystacks".

Approach-approach conflict can be analyzed in terms of the well-known theory of cognitive dissonance. In simple terms, dissonance is the state of psychological discomfort or conflict created in people when they are faced with two or more goals or alternatives to a decision. Although these alternatives occur together, they do not belong or fit together. The theory states that the person experiencing dissonance will be highly motivated to reduce or eliminate it and will actively avoid situations and information which would be likely to increase it. For example, the young person faced with two equally attractive job opportunities would experience dissonance. According to this theory, the young person would actively try to reduce the dissonance. The individual may cognitively rationalize that one job is really better than the other one and, once the choice is made, be sincerely convinced that it was the right choice and actively avoid any evidence or argument to the contrary.

11.3.2 APPROACH-AVOIDANCE CONFLICT :

This type of goal conflict is most relevant to the analysis of organizational behavior. Normally, organizational goals have both positive and negative aspects for organization participants. Accordingly, the organizational goal may arouse a great deal of conflict within a person and may actually cause the person to vacillate anxiously at the point where approach equals avoidance.

For example, managers engaged in long-range planning typically are very confident of a goal (a strategic plan) they have developed for the future. Yet, as the time gets near to commit resources and implement the plan, the negative consequences seem to appear much greater than they did in the developing stage. Managers in such a situation may reach the point where approach equals avoidance. The result is a great deal of internal conflict and stress, which may cause indecision, ulcers, or even depression. Such conflict and its aftermath are very common among decision makers and people in responsible positions in modern, complex organizations. On the other hand, the approach-avoidance type of conflict can often be resolved in the same manner as cognitive dissonance, or the ingredients may be shifted by the individual so that either the positive or the negative aspects clearly predominate.

11.3.3 AVOIDANCE-AVOIDANCE CONFLICT :

Analogous to approach-approach conflict, this type of conflict does not have a great deal of impact on organizational behavior. Avoidance-avoidance conflict is usually easily resolved. A person faced with two negative goals may not choose either of them and may simply leave the situation. If this can be done, the conflict is quickly resolved. In some situations, however, the person is unable to leave. This would be true of persons in nonvoluntary organizations, such as inmates in a prison, patients in a hospital, or members of the armed services. To a lesser extent, most personnel in modern organizations are also restricted from leaving, for example, workers who detest their supervisor and have too much pride to be unemployed. Such workers cannot easily resolve their avoidance-avoidance conflict in a time when jobs are very scarce. This can lead to very dissatisfied workers who feel they have no escape.

11.4 ROLE CONFLICT AND AMBIGUITY :

Closely related to the concept of norms (the "oughts" of behavior) role was defined as a position that has expectations evolving from established norms. Persons living in contemporary society assume a succession of roles throughout life. A typical sequence of social roles would be that of child, son or daughter, teenager, college student, boyfriend or girlfriend, spouse, parent, and grandparent. Each of these roles has recognized expectations which are acted out like a role in a play. As the accompanying International Application Example shows, sometimes these roles differ by culture and can result in conflict.

Besides progressing through a succession of roles such as those just mentioned, the adult in modern society fills numerous other roles at same time. It is not uncommon for the adult middle-class male to be simultaneously playing the roles of husband, father, provider, son (to elderly parents), worker or manager, student (in a night program), coach of a Little League baseball team, church member, member of a social club, bridge partner, poker club member, officer of a community group, and weekend golfer. Although all the roles which individuals bring into the organisation are relevant to their behavior, in the study of organisational behaviour the organisational role is the most important. Roles such as assembly line worker, clerk, supervisor, salesperson, engineer, systems analyst,

department head, vice president, and chairperson of the board often carry conflicting demands and expectations.

There are three types of role conflict. One type is the conflict between the person and the role. There may be conflict between the person's personality and the expectations of the role. For example, a production worker and member of the union is appointed to a supervisory position. This new supervisor may not really believe in keeping close control over the workers and it goes against the individual's personality to be "hard nosed," but that is what the head of production expects. A second type is intrarole conflict created by contradictory expectations about how a given role should be played. Should a new supervisor be autocratic or democratic in dealing with the workers? Finally, interrole conflict results from the differing requirements of two or more roles that must be played at the same time. Work roles and nonwork roles are often in such conflict. For example, one successful woman working for a computer company said that she often worked from 7:30 A.M. to 11:30 P.M. Her boyfriend got fed up with her long hours and left. When she got word that her mother was seriously ill, she remembered, "I had about five minutes to be upset before the phone started ringing again. You get so far into it, you don't even realise your life has gotten away from you completely.

The first-line supervisor and the fast-climbing executive obviously represent the extreme cases of organisational role conflict. Yet to varying degrees, depending on the individual and the situation, people in every other position in the modern organisation also experience one or all three types of conflict. Staff engineers are not sure of their real authority. The clerk in the front office does not know whether to respond to a union organising drive. The examples are endless. The question is not whether role conflict and ambiguity exist - they do, and they seem inevitable. Rather, the key becomes a matter of determining how role conflict can be resolved or managed.

11.5 DEFENCE MECHANISMS :

If the student fails in the examination then he should work hard with greater application to pass next time or gives up his studies and join in some trade for getting his failure. Instead, some students throw blame on teachers, college and also on the examination system for their failure. The adjustment of the former student is healthy, he has got rid of his conflict in his mind and over come from his frustration. The later student made his conflict and frustration much more violent and at the same time he deceives himself and also others. These adjustments which an individual throw blame on others are called mall adjustments which cause mental disorders.

Every person needs recognition. He thinks that others should accept his worth and fame. If the individual does not receive recognition by his worth then he tries to get recognition through other means. Such means or methods he uses to over come his defeats, failures and difficulties are called mechanisms. These mechanisms defend his esteem, prestige and dignity against defeats and failures are called defence mechanisms. Let us discuss some of the important defence mechanisms.

The first mechanism by which we hide our faults and weaknesses is rationalisation, in which we unconsciously give reasonable but untrue excuses or explanations of our behaviour. We do so in order to defend and justify our behaviour and to maintain our feelings of worth and self-esteem. When a father rebukes a son in college for unsatisfactory score, he may get a reply: "Marks do not mean much. I do not wish to be a bookworm". The son is defending and excusing himself for low score by giving plausible but untrue reasons. It is a face-saving device. When the fox in the famous story unable to reach grapes turns away that they are sour and it does not want them, it is rationalising. It had set its heart on it but unable to reach it says that they are not worth reaching. Thus it derives

comfort and saves its esteem. Many poor people unable to provide better conditions for their children sing praises of poverty pleading that they do not have to worry about their wealth. They hide their lack of ambition and laziness and rationalise their poverty.

Or we may throw the blame for our failures and weaknesses on others. The student may say "I do not get very good marks because the teacher does not like me". "There is so much favouritism in the college", "Even university examination results are cooked". All this is projection. Responsibility for our failures, defeats and weaknesses is shifted on to others, situations, tools, organizations of other persons—we are indulging in projection. A bad workman quarrels with his tools, a tennis player puts the ball in the net and then looks at the racket as if the racket has done it, the housewife blames the oven, the grocer of utensils for bad cooking. Or we may plead that others too have our faults, that pass percentage this year is very low, that a large number of students have failed, that the university is going to the dogs and the like. In this way we not only try to push our weakness and failure away from us, but also gain a feeling of superiority over those to whom we attribute our faults.

These are people who always answer "no" when they are asked to do something, to join in a game, or go out on a hike. This is negativism. Such people make negative responses to all situations and demands, they resent criticism, they usually do not accept invitations or cooperate with others. They are the contrary-type and build round themselves a fence of "no's". They hide their faults and weaknesses by not responding or doing just the opposite of what they are requested to do. Stubborn, hard and unrelenting, they rebel against every move. A good many of such people were unfairly treated in early life. This method of response is very common. Many people on reading "Stick no bills here", "keep off the grass", and the like deliberately violate such advice. Negativism is quite common among young children and moment, and are they not often victims of unfair treatment?

Negative people sometimes expect to be asked a number of times. They get a feeling of worth if others have to ask them again and again. Some people are negative because they lack confidence, feel inadequate and insecure. They are afraid of not succeeding or doing well in the new situation, and others will find out their limitations. In discussion they usually take the opposite view, do not welcome new ideas or people and are critical and fault-finding.

Many people use compensation to enhance their self-esteem and prestige. Compensation refers to more or less unconsciously motivated behaviour whose purpose is to make up for what the individual feels he lacks. A student not well up in studies may make up by distinguishing himself in games or dramatics or by putting on fine clothes and entertaining his friends. Compensation is good when we compensate for our inadequacies and failures with virtues and strength, with positive and constructive achievement. It is undesirable when we try to cover up our faults and weaknesses with unacceptable and useless behaviour. Many bullies, trouble-shooters and mischievous students in school are those who are trying to get into limelight, to earn a name for their school fellows. They may have an undesirable reputation but they are proud of it and brag about it.

People may hide their faults and weaknesses by banishing them altogether from consciousness, that is, by repressing them. This process of forgetting of embarrassing thoughts and memories related to our faults and weaknesses takes place at the unconscious level. When we have conflicts we cannot handle, unpleasant thoughts we cannot face, and injuries to our prestige we will not acknowledge, repression occurs and for the time being they are avoided and banished from consciousness. Repression is burying our troubles but they are not destroyed, they smoulder in the unconscious and whenever there is an opportunity due to mental slackness they burst into conscious behaviour and cause trouble.

When problems are hard to solve, when situations are fraught with failure and defeat, are unpleasant and embarrassing, we use illness, real or feigned, to escape them. Many students pretend illness or really fall ill on the approach of examinations. They have headache or nausea or many develop fever. They actually fall ill. This is a typical attempt to escape from the distasteful situation. They hope they would be excused because they cannot be blamed if they fall ill. The soldier who is afraid of the battle, and the housewife who dislikes housework, commonly make use of this escape mechanism.

Some people take to alcohol to escape difficulties, boredom and frustrations. Drinking transports them into a new world where worries, fears, humiliations, difficulties and problems do not bother them. Nowadays there is greater appreciation of the psychological aspect of alcoholism and psychological treatment is resorted to in helping alcoholics to get rid of this escape mechanism which in course of time becomes habitual.

We have already dealt with daydreams and phantasy in escaping from reality. Reading fiction, watching movies or listening to radio when excessively indulged in offer escape from the trials and tribulations of the real world, but they are a poor preparation to meet the problems and difficulties of life squarely and directly or to gain worth.

Identification is the unconscious placing of oneself in the situation of another person and assuming the characteristics of that person. It is the practice of feeling that you are in the role of someone else. When you look at a film, you may identify yourself with one of the actors in it and feel yourself in his position. Thus obtaining the emotional experience of being that actor. Young people frequenting film shows identify themselves with actors to get rid of their troubles. In real life the young student may be struggling to keep his body and soul together but in the cinema hall he feels a millionaire or a lover. Hero-worship, declaring social and political leaders as our guiding stars, testimonial advertising, and the like, help us to run away from our troubles and boost our prestige.

Displacement is the expression of our emotions in a situation other than the one which aroused it. Direct expression of such emotions is inhibited and it is transferred to a neutral idea or object. A man is snubbed by his superior but he cannot snub back. Soon reaching home he takes it out on his family and loses his temper with his wife. It is a kind of substitution, and escape from one situation and fixing one's blame on another situation or person. Many primitive people beat their breasts when they are helpless in expressing their hostility against their enemies. Self-torture and suicides are often cases of displaced aggression and anger.

Regression is a flight into childhood, and the individual retreats to an earlier and lower level of development. He adopts childish modes of adjustment. Very often instead of meeting difficulties and tragedies in the face people start weeping and sobbing like a child. In moments of anxiety they start biting their nails like children. Many women dash their heads against wall when they are intensely frustrated. Many grown-up people shout and jump out of joy as young people do. All these are examples of regression in which adults go back to the childish level of behaviour and adjustment. In a way all maladjustments are regressive because the person withdraws from the situation and adopts too simple a solution of his difficulties.

Reason formation is an unusual method of controlling undesirable or socially unacceptable urges, it is to deny their existence and to develop diametrically opposed traits that conceal and check the more basic motives. People who protest too much are really admitting their guilt, who pose as custodians of religion and morals are abnormally interested in sex and who go out of their way to

impress you with their generosity are most miserly. Very often those who preach most aggressively are themselves guilty of not following what they preach.

Sublimation is "flight into creative work". Here primitive urges are re-directed into new channels which may be useful and enjoyable for both the individual and society. The term was originally employed by Freud and his followers for re-direction of sex urge into substitute behaviour like art, literature. The psycho-analysts believed that all our culture would not have developed into the complex pattern that it is today. Many young women to satisfy their needs of family and children of their own sublimate their desire by taking to teaching in a school or looking after patients as a nurse. Sublimation arises out of frustration of strong desires.

This long list of defence mechanisms describes different types of frustration reactions. The list is not complete, they are just modes of adjustment in conflict and frustration, and there are many more ways of adjustment. Some people take to back-biting in frustration, some withdraw and retreat from active life, others behave in such a manner as to attract attention.

11.6 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. What is conflict ? Explain various types of conflicts.
2. Narrate approach-approach conflict with suitable examples.
3. Elaborately discuss various defence mechanisms.
4. Discuss these defence Mechanisms-Rationalisation, Compensation, Regression and Projection.

11.7 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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LESSON - 12

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS, JOHARI WINDOW, FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

LESSON PLAN :

- 12.1 OBJECTIVES
- 12.2 CONCEPT
- 12.3 A HEALTHY PERSONALITY
- 12.4 LIFE POSITION
- 12.5 TRANSACTIONS BETWEEN PEOPLE
- 12.6 STROKES
- 12.7 PSYCHOLOGICAL GAME ANALYSIS
- 12.8 SCRIPT ANALYSIS
- 12.9 THE JOHARI WINDOW
- 12.10 FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS
- 12.11 MODEL QUESTIONS
- 12.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

12.1 OBJECTIVES :

The lesson explains the interpersonal communication between people and also the ego states the individual select for his life. Johari Window is useful in explaining interpersonal conflict and various interpersonal styles between self and others. Force field analysis is a technic for diagnosing the situations that variables responsible in determining the effectiveness.

11.2 CONCEPT :

TA is a method of analysing and understanding behaviour that was developed by Eric Berne and in more recent years has been popularised in the writings of Thomas Harris, Murial James and Dorothy Jongeward, and Abe Wagner. In particular, Jongeward and Wagner have shown how the concepts of TA can be applied to organizations and related to the work of other theorists, such as Mc Gregor and Likert. Their work has been very helpful to us in writing this section on transactional analysis.

TA, is an outgrowth of earlier Freudian psychology. Sigmund Freud was the first to suggest that there are three sources within the human personality that stimulate, monitor, and control behavior. The Freudian Id, ego, and superego are important concepts, but their definitions are difficult for

practitioners to understand or apply without extensive training in psychotherapy. Thus, one of the major contributions of TA theorists is that they have, in a sense, borrowed from Freud but have put some of his concepts into a language that everyone can use for diagnostic purposes in understanding why people behave as they do.

Ego States : According to TA, a transaction is a stimulus plus a response. For example, if you say to one of your staff, "You really did a fine job on that project, Don". that's a stimulus; if he says, "Thanks", that's a response. Thus, transactions take place between people. They can also take place between the "people" in our heads. If we have a sudden impulse to say something to someone, we may mentally hear a voice telling us not to say it and then a second voice agreeing. These people in our heads are called ego states.

The personality of a person is the collection of behavior patterns developed over time that other people begin to recognise as that person. These behaviour patterns are evoked in differing degrees from three ego states-Parent, Adult, and Child. These terms are capitalised so as not to be confused with their lower-cased counterparts. Thus, a parent (mother or father) has Parent, Adult and Child ego states; and a child (son or daughter) also has Parent, Adult, and Child ego states. These ego states have nothing to do with chronological age, but only with psychological age.

The Parent ego state is a result of the "messages" (conditioning) people receive from their parents, older sisters and brothers, school teachers, Sunday school teachers, and other authority figures during their early childhood. These messages can be thought of as recorded on "little cassette tapes" in people's heads. They're in place, stored up, and ready to go. All you have to do is push the right button and you get the message-almost like dialing a number on the telephone. Push another button and you get a different message. After the message is given the tape is rewound and ready to go again. For instance, if a father's son was eating his dinner and was playing with his food, a common Parent tape such as the following might be played : "Stop Playing with your food, Garth, and clean up your plate. People are starving all over the world, so you're going to eat everything". Now where did the father learn to say that? He probably learned it from his mother and father, who learned it from their parents. And now he's playing it on his kids. This is parent tape. Many of us were taught when we were young that it's good to clean our plate and bad to leave food on our plate. In fact, many of us probably still feel guilty today if we leave food on our plate.

Thus, a person is operating from Parent ego state when "old tapes" from childhood are mentally played back. These recordings say such things as "it's right!" "it's wrong!" "it's bad!" "it's good!" "you should!" "you shouldn't!" Thus, our Parent ego state is the evaluative part of us that evokes value-laden behavior. But remember, this value-laden behavior is not necessarily "real value" -It's "learned value." In our example with Garth not cleaning his plate, it might have been more appropriate had his father said, "Don't feel you have to eat everything on your plate if you are really not hungry" - Particularly if Garth were a little overweight. Thus, cleaning up one's plate is a "learned value" because, in a real sense, whether or not Garth eats all the food on his plate won't impact starving children around the world; it will only impact the size of the garbage.

There are two kinds of parent ego states: Nurturing parent and Critical parent. The Nurturing Parent is that part of a person that is understanding and caring about other people. While behaviour coming from the Nurturing parent may set limits on and provide direction for people's behavior, it will not put these people down and make them feel not okay as individuals. The Critical Parent makes people feel that they, not just their behaviour attacks people's personalities as well as their behaviour.

When people are in their Critical Parent ego state, they are very evaluative and judgmental. They are always ready to respond with a "should" or "ought" to almost anything people tell them. People with a heavy Critical Parent ego state "should" on other people as well as "should" on themselves.

The Adult ego state evokes behaviour that could be described simply as logical, reasonable, rational, and unemotional. Behaviour from the Adult ego state is characterised by problem-solving analysis and rational decision making. People operating from the Adult ego state are taking the emotional content of their Child ego state and the value-laden content of their parent ego state and checking them out in the reality of the external world. These people are examining alternatives, probabilities, and values prior to engaging in behaviour.

As suggested, the Child ego state is associated with behaviours that appear when a person is responding emotionally. A person's Child contains the "natural" impulses and attitudes learned from child experiences. There are several forms of the Child ego state that various authors discuss. In our work we use two kinds of Child ego states: Happy Child and Destructive Child.

People behaving from their Happy Child are doing things because they want to, but their behaviour is not disruptive to others or destructive to the environment. People in their Destructive Child are destructive to the environment. People in their Destructive Child are also doing things because they feel like it, but their behavior is either disruptive to others or destructive to themselves or their environment. In understanding the difference between these two types of the Child state, it helps to remember that behaviour by itself is not happy or destructive. Whether a person's behaviour is coming from the Happy Child or the Destructive Child depends on the transaction or feedback from others.

One form of the Destructive Child ego state is the Rebellious Child. When people are in this ego state, they aren't going to listen to anyone who tells them what to do. They either rebel openly by being very negative or rebel subtly by forgetting, being confused, or putting off doing something that someone wants them to do. Persons behaving from Rebellious Child will not do anything an authority figure asks them to do even if it makes sense.

Another destructive Child ego state is Compliant Child. When people are in this ego state, they do what others want. Complying with the wishes of others is okay if the person really wants to or if it makes sense to do it. When that is the case, Compliant Child would be classified as a form of Happy Child because the behaviour would not be considered destructive to themselves or their environment. However, Compliant Child can hurt development of people who comply unquestionably all the time, even when it makes no sense to them. These people tend to remain dependent instead of becoming independent. When this occurs, Compliant Child becomes a form of Destructive Child.

Behaviour coming from the Adult ego state is very different from behaviour evoked from the Child ego state. Child ego state behaviour is often almost a stimulus-response relationship. Something happens and the person responds almost immediately. What happens is not processed intellectually. It almost goes in one ear, picks up speed, and goes out the other ear. With Adult ego state behaviour, when something happens, there is not an immediate response. A response follows only conscious evaluation and thought.

12.3 A HEALTHY PERSONALITY :

All people behave from these three ego states at different times. A healthy person has a personality that maintains a balance among all three; particularly, according to Abe Wagner, Nurturing

parent, Adult, and Happy Child. This means that these people are able, at times, to let the Adult ego state take over and think very rationally and engage in problem solving. At other times, these people are able to free the Child ego state and let their hair down, have fun, and be spontaneous and emotional. At still other times, healthy people are able to defer to the parent ego state and learn from experience; they do not have to reinvent the wheel every time. They develop values that aid in the speed and effectiveness of decision making.

While a balance among all three ego states seems to be most healthy, some people seem dominated at times by one or two ego states. This is especially a problem when the Adult ego state is not in the "executive position" and a person's personality is being dominated by the Critical Parent or the Destructive Child. When this occurs in people, it poses problems for their managers in the world of work.

More specifically, Child-dominated people who are mainly coming from Destructive Child do not engage in much rational problem solving. They learned in their early years that they could get things by screaming, hollering, and being emotional. It's very difficult to reason with them in many situations. Instead of solving their own problems, these people want their managers or some other person to tell them what to do, where to do it, and how to do it-or what's right, what's wrong, what's good, and what's bad.

12.4 LIFE POSITION :

In the process of growing up, people make basic assumptions about their own self-worth, as well as about the worth of significant people in their environment, that may or may not be generalised to other people later in life. Harris calls the combination of an assumption about oneself and another person as a life position. Life positions tend to be more permanent than ego states. They are learned throughout life by way of reinforcements for, and responses to, expressed needs. These assumptions are described in terms of "okayness." Thus, individuals assume that they are either OK or not OK, or that as people they do not possess value or worth. Further, other individuals are assumed to be either OK or not OK.

Four possible relationships result from these life positions: (1) neither person has value ("I'm not OK, you're not OK"); (2) you have value, but I do not have value ("I'm not OK, you're OK"); (3) I have value, but you do not ("I'm OK, you're not OK"); and (4) we both have value ("I'm OK, you're OK").

"I'm not OK, you're not OK" people tend to feel bad about themselves and see the whole world as miserable. People with this life position usually give up. They don't trust other people and have no confidence in themselves.

People with an "I'm not OK, You're OK" life position often come from their Compliant Child ego state. They feel that others are more capable and generally have fewer problems than they themselves do. They tend to think that they always get the short end of the stick. This is the most common life position for people who have a high deference for authority. They see their world as "I don't have any control or much power, but those people (folks with authority or position power) seem to have all the power and rewards and punishments.

People who feel "I'm OK, you're not OK" often come from their Critical Parent ego state. They tend to be down on other people for at least two reasons. First, they often regard other people as sources of criticism. They feel that if they're not exactly perfect or right, people will be excessively

critical of them. Second, they want to break away or rebel from some authority figure and become more independent, unpleasant experiences in attempting it in the past.

"I'm OK, you're OK" is suggested as the healthy life position. People with these feelings express confidence in themselves as well as trust and confidence in other people in their environment. Their behaviour tends to come from their Nurturing Parent, Adult, and Happy Child ego states, while seldom being evoked from their Destructive Child or Critical Parent.

12.5 TRANSACTIONS BETWEEN PEOPLE :

TA may be used to explain why people behave in specific patterns-patterns that frequently seem to be repeated throughout their lives (life scripts). In this form of analysis, the basic observational unit is called a transaction. Transactions are exchanges between people that consist of no less than one stimulus and one response. This analysis enables people to identify patterns of transactions between them-selves and others. Ultimately, this can help us determine which ego state is most heavily influencing our behavior and the behavior of other people with whom we interact.

Two types of transactions may be useful for managers to Know; open (complementary) and blocked (crossed). There are many combinations of open transactions; however, the basic principle to remember is that the ego state that is addressed is the one that responds. Therefore, the response to the stimulus is the expected or predictable one. When this occurs, communication can continue. (This in no way suggests effective communication or indicates any openness between individuals, for, in the content of the communication may be a distortion of true data.) Open transactions take place between Adult to Adult, Child to Child, parent to Child, and Parent to Parent. Not all open transactions are beneficial. What we want to strive for in our relationships are OK open transactions-Happy Child to Happy Child. Nurturing Parent to Happy Child. Adult to Adult, and Nurturing Parent to Nurturing Parent. Not OK open transactions involve any of the less healthy ego states-for example, Critical Parent, Rebellious Child, or Compliant Child (When complying does not make sense to the person's Adult ego state.)

For example, if a manager says to one of her staff members from her Nurturing Parent, "I want you to be more graphical and grammatical errors in this report," and her staff member responds from mistakes," then we have a compliant Child, "OK, Mrs. Jones, I didn't notice all those mistakes", then we have a completed communication in which information has been easily shared and everyone still feels OK about themselves. If, however, for example, this manager was coming from her Critical Parent and said something like, "How can you be so stupid? The last report you give me had all kinds of typographical and grammatical errors. I don't see how you can possibly do your job if you don't know how to write a decent report", and her staff member responded from Compliant Child back to his manager's Critical parent by meekly saying, "I'm sorry, I'll try not to make those mistakes next time," we have a completed communication in which information is shared with a minimum effort. But the staff member feels put down by his boss and does not feel OK.

A blocked transaction is one that results in the closing at least temporarily of communication. Unlike open transactions, the response is either inappropriate or unexpected, as well as being out of context with what the sender of the stimulus had originally intended. This occurs when a person responds with an ego state different from the one the other person was addressing. In other words, it occurs when the stimulus from one ego state to another ego state is responded to as if the source were some other ego state, such that the sender feels misunderstood, confused, or even threatened. When this occurs, sharing and listening stop, at least temporarily. For example, If Alan asks a co-

worker a question from his Adult ego state "What time is it, John? he would expect John to respond from his Adult ego state and share information with him; that is, tell him what time it is. If, however, John responds from his Critical Parent and answers, "Don't ask so many questions, then a blocked transaction has taken place.

For example in a blocked transaction the lines of communication get crossed and stop effective communication (although talking may continue.)

Blocked transactions can either be helpful or destructive to the development of people. The preceding example was a destructive transaction because the Critical Parent response to Alan's Adult question leaves Alan with not OK feelings. Destructive blocked transactions occur between people when either responds to the other from the Critical Parent or the Rebellious or Compliant Destructive Child.

When people argue or fight, a destructive blocked transaction is usually involved. For example, if a manager makes a statement in a Critical Parent manner ("I don't think you should hire that person for your staff assistant. There will be nothing but trouble.") directed toward the staff member's Compliant (happy) Child and the staff member responds from the Rebellious (destructive) Child ("you have no right to tell me who I can hire for my staff assistant.") to the boss's Child, the lines of communication get blocked and the manager and the subordinate stop listening (although talking or yelling may continue.) Now the interaction becomes a win-lose power struggle. Manager and staff members seem to be talking past each other, matching "oughts and shoulds" with the other's "oughts and shoulds." If, in this example, the boss wins and bosses usually do, the win has a cost. It forces the staff member to become destructive (complaint child) and teaches the staff member to either go "underground" with feelings in the future, plot how to get from under the command of the boss, or become compliant and do what others say because "I'm not OK".

In some situations, we may find blocked transactions useful in helping people to switch out of the less healthy Rebellious Child, Complaint Child, and Critical Parent ego states into their Adult, Nurturing Parent, or Happy Child. This will become clear as we integrate concepts from TA with other theories in later chapters.

By analyzing open and blocked transactions, it is possible to determine the various strengths of the three ego states. This in turn provides an indication of which life position the individual has selected. We can thus gather data on individuals in a way that will help to predict future patterns of behavior.

Ulterior transactions, like blocked transactions, are generally not desired. "An ulterior transaction happens when someone appears to be sending one kind of message but is secretly sending another. Thus, the real message is disguised. An example of an ulterior transaction is when Alice says to her boss, "I'd be happy to add up all those figures, Mr. Johnson. It looks like it would be a real challenge."

In this example of an ulterior transaction, Alice is not talking straight about her needs but is sending her message in a disguised way. She appears to be giving Mr. Johnson factual information in an Adult to Adult transaction. Actually, she is probably annoyed about all of the routine, boring tasks that she's continually asked to do. Perhaps she would like to ask Mr. Johnson directly if there's a way that she could expand her responsibilities and take on more exciting tasks. "It should be challenging to add up all those figures" may be a plea for more challenging work from Alice's Child to Mr. Johnson's Parent.

12.6 STROKES :

It is important to recognise one more thing about transactions. "Strokes" are being exchanged whenever two people are transacting.

If it is true that people have a basic need for strokes, they will work hard to get them. For example, ignored people will engage in all sorts of creative activities to get strokes. Often, such people quickly learn at work that they can get strokes from their boss by

- * fighting with co-workers.
- * doing sloppy work.
- * Injuring themselves.

12.7 PSYCHOLOGICAL GAME ANALYSIS :

When people don't get enough strokes at work, they will try a variety of things, some harmful, to make up their "stroke deficit." To do that, they may play psychological games. A psychological game is a set of transactions with the following characteristics :

- * Transactions tend to be repeated.
- * They make sense on a superficial or social level.
- * One or more of the transactions is ulterior.
- * A set of transactions ends with a predictable payoff—a negative feeling. Payoffs usually reinforce the decision made in childhood about oneself or about others. They reflect feelings of not okayness, as we shall see.

12.8 SCRIPT ANALYSIS :

As we have pointed out, the life position (I'm OK, you're OK, etc.) that people act out tend to vary according to the situation. The life position that people take and the games that they learn to play are part of what TA calls a "script".

All people have a script. People develop their scripts based on their experiences as a child. The most important influence on how one's script develops is through interactions with parents or other authority figures. These interactions in turn lead us to make certain decisions, formulate our life positions, play psychological games, and start the drama of our script.

12.9 THE JOHARI WINDOW :

Besides transactional analysis, the other popular framework for analysing the dynamics of interpersonal behaviour is the Johari window. Developed by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham (thus the name Johari), this model is particularly useful in analysing interpersonal conflict. As Figure shows, the model helps to identify several interpersonal styles, shows the characteristics and results of these styles, and suggest ways of interpreting the conflicts that may develop between the self and others.

In simple terms, the self can be thought of as "me," and others can be thought of as "you" in a two-person interaction. There are certain things that the person knows about himself or herself and certain things that are not known. The same is true of others. There are certain things the person knows about the other and certain things that are not known. The following summarizes the four cells in the Johari window :

1. *Open self* : In this form of interaction the person knows about himself or herself and about the other. There would generally be openness and compatibility and little reason to be defensive. This type of interpersonal relationship would tend to lead to little, if any, interpersonal conflict.
2. *Hidden self* : In this situation the person understands himself or herself but does not know about the other person. The result is that the person remains hidden from the other because of the fear of how the other might react. The person may keep his or her true feelings or attitudes secret and will not open up to the other. There is potential interpersonal conflict in this situation.
3. *Blind self* : In this situation the person knows about the other but not about himself or herself. The person may be unintentionally irritating to the other. The other could tell the person but may be fearful of hurting the person's feelings. As in the hidden self, there is potential interpersonal conflict in this situation.
4. *Undiscovered self* : This is potentially the most explosive situation. The person does not know about himself or herself and does not know about the other. In other words, there is much misunderstanding, and interpersonal conflict is almost sure to result.

	The person knows about the other	The person does not know about the other
The person knows about himself or herself	1 OPEN SELF	2 HIDDEN SELF
The person does not know about himself or herself	3 BLIND SELF	4 UNDISCOVERED SELF

The Johari window only points out possible interpersonal styles. It does not necessarily describe, but rather helps to analyse, possible interpersonal conflict situations.

One way of decreasing the hidden self and increasing the open self is through the processes of self-disclosure. By becoming more trustful of others and disclosing information about themselves, people may reduce the potential for conflict. On the other hand, such self-disclosure is a risk for the individual, and the outcome must be worth the cost. To decrease the blind self and at the same time increase the open self, the other must give feedback, and the person must use it.

12.10 FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS :

Force field analysis, a technique developed by Kurt Lewin for diagnosing situations, may be useful in looking at the variables involved in determining effectiveness.

Lewin assumes that in any situation there are both driving and restraining forces that influence any change that may occur. Driving forces are those forces affecting a situation that are pushing in a particular direction; they tend to initiate a change and keep it going. In terms of improving productivity

in a work group, encouragement from a supervisor, incentive earnings, and competition may be examples of driving forces. Restraining forces are forces acting to restrain or decrease the driving forces. Apathy, hostility, and poor maintenance of equipment may be examples of restraining forces against increased production. Equilibrium is reached when the sum of the driving forces equals the sum of the restraining forces. In our example, equilibrium represents the present level of productivity.

This equilibrium, or present level of productivity, can be raised or lowered by making changes in the relationship between the driving and the restraining forces. For illustration, let us look again at the dilemma of the new manager who takes over a work group in which productivity is high, but whose predecessor drained the human resources (intervening variables). The former manager had upset the equilibrium by increasing the driving forces (that is, being autocratic and keeping continual pressure on workers) and thus achieving increases in output in the short run. By doing this, however, new restraining forces developed, such as increased hostility and antagonism; and at the time of the former manager's departure, the restraining forces were beginning to increase and the results manifested themselves in turnover, absenteeism, and other restraining forces, which lowered productivity shortly after new manager arrived. Now a new equilibrium at a significantly lower productivity is faced by the new manager.

Now just assume that our new manager decides not to increase the driving forces, but to reduce the restraining forces. The manager may do this by taking time away from the usual production operation and engaging in problem solving and in training and development. In the short run, output will tend to be lowered still further. However, if commitment to objectives and technical know-how of the group are increased in the long run, they may become new driving forces, and, along with the elimination of the hostility and apathy that were restraining forces, will now tend to move the balance to a higher level of output.

Managers are often in a position in which they must consider not only output, but also intervening variables, not only short-term, but also long-term goals in diagnosing these interrelationships. Force field analysis is a useful framework for this.

12.11 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Narrate three ego states in transactional analysis.
2. Explain various life positions in transactional analysis.
3. Briefly explain four-selves in Johari-Window.
4. Elaborately discuss force field analysis in determining effectiveness.

12.12 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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LESSON - 13

TYPES OF MOTIVES, MASLOWS' NEED-HIERARCHY THEORY

LESSON PLAN :

- 13.1 OBJECTIVES
- 13.2 MEANING AND DEFINITION
- 13.3 TYPES OF NEEDS OR MOTIVES
- 13.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF SECONDARY NEEDS
- 13.5 MASLOWS' HEIRARCHY OF NEEDS
 - 13.5.1 PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS
 - 13.5.2 SAFETY NEEDS
 - 13.5.3 BELONGINGNESS NEEDS
 - 13.5.4 SELF-ESTEEM NEEDS
 - 13.5.5 SELF-ACTUALISATION NEEDS
- 13.6 CRITICAL EVALUATION
- 13.7 MODEL QUESTIONS
- 13.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

9.1 OBJECTIVES :

The lesson explains the various types of motives that influence human behaviour and maslows' need-heirarchy theory of motivation is also discussed.

13.2 DEFINITION AND MEANING :

Certain functions occur without motivation, but nearly all conscious behaviour is motivated, or caused. It requires no motivation to grow hair, but getting a haircut does. Eventually, anyone will fall asleep without motivation (although parents with young children may doubt this), but going to bed is a conscious act requiring motivation. Management's job is to identify and activate employee motives toward task performance.

Motives are expressions of a person's needs; hence they are personal and internal. Incentives, on the other hand, are external to the person. They are made part of the work environment by management in order to encourage workers to accomplish tasks. For example, management offers sales people a bonus as an incentive to encourage higher sales and also satisfy the salesperson's need for recognition and status.

Needs create tensions that are modified by one's culture to cause certain wants. These wants are interpreted in terms of positive and negative incentives and one's.

13.3 TYPE OF NEEDS :

There are various ways to classify needs. A simple one is (1) basic physiological needs, called primary needs, and (2) social and psychological needs, called secondary needs. The physiological needs include food, water, sex, sleep, air, and a reasonably comfortable temperature. These needs arise from the basic physiology of life and are important to the survival and preservation of the species. They are, therefore, virtually universal among people but they may vary in intensity from one person to another. For example, a child needs much more sleep than an older person.

These needs are also conditioned by social practice. If it is customary to eat three meals a day, then the body tends to respond that way. It could do just as well with two or four meals. If a coffee hour is introduced in the morning, then that becomes a physical habit of appetite satisfaction as well as a social one.

Secondary needs are more vague because they represent needs of the mind and spirit rather than of the physical body. Many of these needs are developed as one matures. Examples are rivalry, self-esteem, sense of duty, self-assertion, giving, belonging, and receiving affection. The secondary needs are the ones that complicate the motivational efforts of managers. Nearly any action management takes will affect secondary needs; therefore, management planning should consider the effect of any proposed action on the secondary needs of employees.

13.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF SECONDARY NEEDS :

Secondary needs are often hidden, so that a person cannot recognise them. This fact alone makes motivation quite difficult. Since secondary needs are so vague, dissatisfied workers often say their dissatisfaction is caused by something easier to identify, such as low wages. Many so-called wage disputes do not really concern wages, so meeting the wage request does not remove the basic dissatisfaction that existed.

In summary, secondary needs:

Are strongly conditioned by experience.

Vary in type and intensity among people.

Are subject to change within any individual.

Work in groups rather than alone.

Are often hidden from conscious recognition.

Are vague feelings instead of specific physical needs.

Influence behavior. It is said that "we are logical only to the extent that our feelings let us be."

Although human needs have been classified as primary and secondary, this is done for purposes of discussion only. In an individual person they are inseparable. The state of the physical body affects the mind, and the state of mind can affect the physical body. Everyone must be treated as whole person.

13.5 MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS :

It is good to know what a person's primary and secondary needs are, but this does not answer the question of which ones are important at a particular time and place. Psychologists recognize that needs have a certain priority. As the more basic needs are satisfied, a person seeks to fulfill the

higher-level needs. If one's basic needs are not met, they claim priority, and efforts to satisfy the higher-level needs must be postponed. A need hierarchy of five levels by A.H Maslow has gained wide attention. These five levels include:

1. Basic physiological needs
2. Safety and security
3. Belonging and social needs
4. Esteem and status
5. Self-actualisation and fulfillment

The important point about need levels is that usually have a definite sequence of domination. Second-level needs do not dominate until first-level needs are reasonably satisfied. Third-level needs do not dominate until first - and second level needs have been reasonably achieved, and so on.

13.5.1 PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS :

The need for survival is the most basic, powerful and obvious of all human needs. This group includes the needs for food, drink, oxygen, sleep, sex, protection from excrement temperature, and sensory stimulation. The biological maintenance of the human organisation depends upon these physiological drives; that is the persons who fails to satisfy the basic level of needs just won't be around long enough to try to satisfy the higher level needs.

Most people in general, satisfy these primary needs. But if one these is unsatisfied that will soon be donated by that need, so much that all needs are secondary. If person is chronically hungry, he will never get around to compose great music or do any thing. Physiological needs are necessary to understand, human behaviour. For they dominate human desires, forcing themselves into one's consciousness, before higher order goals can be pursued. Organisationally speaking primary needs are represented by the employee's concern for salary and basic working conditions. In terms of motivating workers to better performance depends on the satisfaction of the these needs to enable them to strive for gratification of higher order needs.

13.5.2 SAFETY NEEDS :

The security needs become motivators, the moment the physiological needs are must. The safety or security needs manifest themselves as a force to ensure a reasonable degree of continuity, order, structure and predictability in one's environment. These needs are apparent in the people who are relatively helpless and dependant on other people. The security needs are shown by most of us in terms of preference for secured income, acquisition of insurance and owning one's own house. To an extent religious belief systems may also be seen to be satisfying the security/safety need. This is because a religion helps a person organise his world and the people in it into a coherent and meaningful whole, thus making the person feel "safe".

Security needs in the organizational context may be understood in terms of job security, salary increases, safe working conditions, unionisation, etc. Management uses the gratification of this security need (pension scheme, group insurance, provident fund, gratuity, safe working conditions grievance procedure, etc.) to keep their employees motivated.

13.5.3 BELONGING AND LOWER NEEDS :

When the physiological and safety needs are satisfied, the love and belongingness needs arise. Essentially these needs mean that a person at this level, long for affectionate relationship with others - that is, family and/or reference groups. The dominant goal of the person at this point is group membership. Without a group, the person may feel lonely, socially outcast, friendless, etc. Maslow believed that love involves a healthy loving relationship between two people marked by mutual respect, admiration and trust. He also stressed that love needs involve both giving and receiving love. Both (giving and receiving love) are vital to healthy feelings of worth. If one is not loved it may lead to feeling of futility, emptiness and hostility.

Love and belongingness becomes the social need for a compatible work group, peer acceptance, professional friendship and friendly supervision. It is advantageous for the management to encourage informal groups. It is unfortunate that most managers see the friendly relations of employees as threatening to themselves and the organisation. In many instance, the managers have tried to control and direct employees relationships in ways that are opposed to the natural groupings of human beings. This only leads to resistance, antagonism and uncooperative attitudes in the employees.

13.5.4 SELF-ESTEEM NEEDS :

Maslow states that the esteem needs are twofold - self respect and esteem from others. Self-respect includes a desire for competence, confidence, personal strength, adequacy, achievement, independence and freedom. A person needs to know that he is capable of mastering tasks and challenges in life and that he is worthy. Esteem from other includes prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, reputation and appreciation. That is, a person needs to be appreciated for what they can do-in other words, they must experience feelings of worth because their competence is recognised and valued by others.

If the self esteem need is the wanted it leads to feelings of inferiority, ineptness, weakness and helpless. This is turn usually leads to discouragement, a sense of futility and hopelessness in dealing with the demands of life. Maslow stressed that most-healthy self esteem is based on earned respect from others rather than on fame, status or adulation. Esteem is the result of effort-it is earned. In the organisational context, self esteem needs correspond to job title, merit pay increase, recognition from peers and supervisors challenging work, responsibility, etc. Managerial practices to fulfil these needs include challenging work, performance feedback, recognition, encouragement and involvement of employees in the decision making process and goal setting.

13.5.5 SELF-ACTUALISATION NEEDS :

If all four level needs are satisfied, the need for self-actualization (SA) arises. SA is the desire to become everything that is capable of becoming. The person, who is self actualising, moves towards the full use and exploitation of his talents, capacities and potentialities. The need for SA is unique in that it is never fully satisfied.

The process of growth towards self actualisation demands a constant willingness to take risks; to make mistakes and to go in new directions. This is not only requires courage, but logic says that anything that increases the individual's fear and anxiety also increases the tendency to regress towards safety and security. In the organisational context, the SA needs correspond to the desire for excelling oneself in one's job, being creative in solving job-related problems, successfully managing

a unit, etc. Managers cause this understanding of the SA needs to enable sordidness to achieve personal as well as organisational goals.

In sum, the task of the manager is to lift the employees from lower level needs to higher level ones.

13.6 CRITICAL EVALUATION :

The most appreciated theory of motivation is Maslow's need hierarchy. The theory offers some useful idea for helping managers think about motivating their employees. It is simply to identify particular needs and offer satisfaction for them. Another advantage is that it accounts for both interpersonal and intrapersonal variations in human behaviour. That is, some employees are motivated by money and some employees are not. Why? Similar some are engrossed in their work while others are totally disinterested. Maslow would say that they may be occupying different levels of the need hierarchy. The implication for the manager is important : the desired behaviour is most likely to occur if it results in the satisfaction of an employee's prepotent need. Therefore, rewards or incentives will be effective when they are linked to the prepotent level.

Thirdly, Maslow's theory is dynamic in that it presents motivation as a constantly changing force, expressing itself through constant striving for fulfillment of new and higher levels of needs.

Fourthly, Maslow's approach is based on existential philosophy and is known as the humanistic psychology and is completely different from other earlier approaches. One basic principle of Maslow's approach is that a man is a healthy, good and creative being. And finally, what makes the theory popular and widely appreciated is because of its simplicity, humanness and commonness.

Turning to the negative evaluation, there are any number of critics. In fact there are more critics than supporters of the theory in the academic.

Firstly, the critics contend that Maslow's need hierarchy theory is not a theory of work motivation.

Maslow himself did not intend that his theory be directly to work motivation. In fact it was D. McGregor who popularised Maslow's theory in the management literature.

Secondly, the contention is that hierarchy of needs simply does not exist, that at all levels needs are present at a given time. For example, the self-actualising person needs food.

Thirdly, the contention is that if needs exist in the hierarchy proposed by Maslow, they are culture specific. That is, Maslow's need hierarchy is specifically applicable to western managers (British and Americans, in particular) than to the Japanese or other eastern countries. Because of the differing need priorities in organisations, the need hierarchy may be applicable across organizations.

Fourthly, Maslow's assumption about psychological health has been criticised by many. Many individuals may stay content with lower level needs and may not move further up the hierarchy in search of satisfaction.

Finally, the time constraint involved in assessing each employee's level in the hierarchy and then trying to satisfy him at that level is impossible for most managers. Tailor-made solutions for the individual employee are difficult in large and complicated organisations.

In spite of all the above limitations, the need hierarchy is important because of its contribution in terms of making management's rewards diverse needs of human at work.

13.7 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Explain various types of motives.
2. Critically examine need-hierarchy theory of motivation.

13.8 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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LESSON - 14

HERZBERG - TWO-FACTOR THEORY OF MOTIVATION

LESSON PLAN :

14.1 OBJECTIVES

14.2 CONCEPT

14.3 HYGIENE FACTORS

14.4 MOTIVATORS

14.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HERZBERG AND MASLOW

14.6 MODEL QUESTIONS

14.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

14.1 OBJECTIVES :

The lesson explains the research conducted by Herzberg at the psychological service of pittsburgh. The study reveals that employees express two categories of needs namely hygiene factors and motivators. Hygiene factors prevent dissatisfaction whereas motivators help the employee to reach high level of organisational performance.

14.2 CONCEPT :

It is noted that needs such as esteem and self-actualisation seem to become more important as people develop. One of the most interesting series of studies that concentrates heavily on these areas was directed by Frederick Herzberg. These studies has developed a theory of work motivation that has broad implications for management and its efforts toward effective utilisation of human resources.

Herzberg, in developing his motivation-hygiene theory, seemed to sense that scholars such as Mc Gregor and Argyris were touching on something important. Knowledge about human nature, motives, and needs could be invaluable to organisations and individuals :

To industry, the payoff for a study of job attitudes would be increased productivity, decreased absenteeism, and smoother working relations. To the individual, an understanding of the forces that lead to improved morale would bring greater happiness and greater self-realisation.

Herzberg set out to collect data on job attitudes from which assumptions about human behaviour could be made. The motivation-hygiene theory resulted from the analysis of an initial study by Herzberg and his colleagues at the Psychological Service of Pittsburgh. This study involved extensive interviews with some two hundred engineers and accountants from eleven industries in the Pittsburgh area. In the interviews, they were asked about what kinds of things on their job made them unhappy or dissatisfied and what things made them happy or satisfied.

In analysing the data from these interviews, Herzberg concluded that people have two different categories of needs that are essentially independent of each other and affect behavior in different

ways. He found that when people felt dissatisfied with their jobs, they were concerned about the environment in which they were working. On the other hand, when people felt good about their jobs, this had to do with the work itself. Herzberg called the first category of needs as hygiene or maintenance factors : hygiene because they describe people's environment and serve the primary function of preventing job dissatisfaction; maintenance because they are never completely satisfied - they have to continue to be maintained. He called the second category of needs as motivators since they seemed to be effective in motivating people to superior performance.

14.3 HYGIENE FACTORS :

Company policies and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, money, status, and security may be thought of as maintenance factors. These are not an intrinsic part of a job, but they are related to the conditions under which a job is performed. Herzberg related his original use of the word hygiene to its medical meaning (preventive and environmental). He found that hygiene factors produced no growth in worker output capacity; they only prevented losses in worker performance due to work restrictions. This is why, more recently, Herzberg has been calling these maintenance factors.

Motivation and Hygiene Factors :

MOTIVATORS The Job Itself	HYGIENE FACTORS Environment
Achievement	Policies and administration
Recognition for accomplishment	Supervision
Challenging work	Working conditions
Increased responsibility	Interpersonal relations
Growth and development	Money, status, security

14.4. MOTIVATORS :

Factors that involve feelings of achievement, professional growth, and recognition that one can experience in a job that offers challenge and scope are referred to by Herzberg as motivators. Herzberg used this term because these factors seem capable of having a positive effect on job satisfaction, often resulting in an increase in one's total output capacity.

In recent years motivation-hygiene research has been extended well beyond scientists and accountants to include every area of an organisation, from top management to hourly employees. For example, in an extensive study at Texas Instruments, Scot Meyers concluded that Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory "is easily translatable to supervisory action at all levels of responsibility. It is a framework on which supervisors can evaluate and put into perspective the constant barrage of 'helpful hints' to which they are subjected, and hence serves to increase their feelings of competence, self-confidence, and autonomy."

Perhaps an example will further differentiate between hygiene factors and motivators and help explain the reason for classifying needs as Herzberg has done.

Let us assume that an employee is highly motivated and is working at 90 percent capacity. The person has a good working relationship with the supervisor, is well satisfied with pay and working conditions, and is part of a congenial work group. Suppose the supervisor is suddenly transferred and replaced by a person who is difficult to work with, or suppose the employee finds out that someone whose work seems inferior is receiving more pay. How will these unsatisfied hygiene needs (supervision and money) may lead to restriction of output. This decline in productivity may be intentional or the employee may not be consciously aware of holding back. In either case productivity will be lowered.

In our illustration, even if the worker's salary is adjusted well above expectations and the former supervisor returns, productivity will probably increase only to its original level.

Conversely, let us take the same employee and assume that dissatisfaction has not occurred; work is at 90 percent capacity. Suppose the person is given an opportunity to develop and satisfy motivational needs in an environment where there is freedom to exercise some initiative and creativity, to make decisions, to handle problems, and to take responsibility. What effect will this situation have on this individual? If the employee is able to fulfill the supervisor's expectations in performing these new responsibilities, that person may still work at 90 percent capacity, but may have developed and growth in ability and may be capable now of more productivity and capacity has increased.

Hygiene factors, when satisfied, tend to eliminate dissatisfaction and work restriction, but they do little to motivate an individual to superior performance or increased capacity. Enhancement of the motivators, however, will permit an individual to grow and develop, often increasing ability. Thus, hygiene factors affect an individual's willingness and motivators affect an individual's ability.

14.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HERZBERG AND MASLOW :

In terms of Hersey and Blanchard's motivating situation Maslow is helpful in identifying needs or motives and Herzberg provides us with insights into the goals and incentives that tend to satisfy these needs.

Thus, in a motivating situation, if you know what are the high-strength needs (Maslow) of the individual you want to influence, then you should be able to determine what goals (Herzberg) you could provide in the environment to motivate those individuals. At the same time, if you know what goals these people want to satisfy, you can predict what their high-strength needs are. That is possible because it has been found that money and benefits tend to satisfy needs at the physiological and security levels; interpersonal relations and supervision are examples of hygiene factors that tend to satisfy social needs; increased responsibility, challenging work, and growth and development are motivators that tend to satisfy needs at the esteem and self-actualization levels.

The physiological, safety, social, and part of the esteem needs are all hygiene factors. The esteem needs are divided because there are some distinct differences between status per se and recognition. Status tends to be a function of the position one occupies. One may have gained this position through family ties and thus this position may not be a reflection of personal achievement or earned recognition. Recognition is gained through competence and achievement. It is earned and granted by others. Consequently, status is classified with physiological, safety, and social needs as a hygiene factor, while recognition is classified with esteem as a motivator.

It appears that McClelland's concept of achievement motivation is also related to Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. People with high achievement motivation tend to be interested in the

motivators (the job itself). Achievement-motivated people want task-relevant feedback. They want to know how well they are doing on their job. On the other hand, people with low achievement motivation are more concerned about the environment. They want to know how people feel about them rather than how well they are doing.

14.6 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Briefly explain the two-factor theory of motivation.
2. Narrate the relationship between Herzberg and Maslow.

14.7 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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LESSON - 15

**McGREGORS' THEORY X AND THEORY Y,
JOB ENLARGEMENT AND JOB ENRICHMENT**

LESSON PLAN :

- 15.1 OBJECTIVES**
- 15.2 THEORY X AND THEORY Y**
- 15.3 UNDERSTANDING QUALITY OF WORKLIFE**
- 15.4 OPTIONS AVAILABLE TO MANAGEMENT**
- 15.5 HUMANISED JOBS**
- 15.6 JOB ENRICHMENT**
- 15.7 APPLYING JOB ENRICHMENT**
- 15.8 CORE DIMENSIONS OF JOBS**
 - 15.8.1 VARIETY
 - 15.8.2 TASK IDENTITY
 - 15.8.3 TASK SIGNIFICANCE
 - 15.8.4 AUTONOMY
 - 15.8.5 FEED BACK
- 15.9 LIMITATIONS OF JOB ENRICHMENT**
- 15.10 CONCLUSION**
- 15.11 MODEL QUESTIONS**
- 15.12 SUGGESTED READINGS**

15.1 OBJECTIVES :

The lesson tells very clearly about McGregors motivation theory and also the factors that bring quality in the work.

15.2 THEORY X AND THEORY Y :

The work of Mayo and particularly his idea of the Rabble Hypothesis may have paved the way for the development of the now classic "Theory X-Theory Y" by Douglas Mc Gregor. According to Mc Gregor, the traditional organisation - with its centralised decision making, hierarchical pyramid, and external control of work is based upon certain assumptions about human nature and human motivation. These assumptions, which Mc Gregor called Theory X, are very similar to the view of people defined by Mayo in the Rabble Hypothesis. Theory X assumes that most people prefer to be directed, are not interested in assuming responsibility, and want safety above all. Accompanying this

philosophy is the belief that people are motivated by money, fringe benefits, and the threat of punishment.

Managers who accept Theory X assumptions attempt to structure, control, and closely supervise their employees. These managers feel that external control is clearly appropriate for dealing with unreliable and irresponsible people.

After describing Theory X, McGregor questioned whether this view of human nature is correct and if management practices based upon it are appropriate in many situations today: Are not people in a democratic society, with its increasing level of education and standard of living, capable of more responsible behaviour? Drawing heavily on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Mc Gregor concluded that Theory X assumptions about human nature, when universally applied, are often inaccurate and management approaches that develop from these assumptions may fail to motivate many individuals to work toward organisational goals. Management by direction and control may not succeed, according to Mc Gregor, because it is a questionable method for motivating people whose physiological and safety needs are reasonably satisfied and whose social, esteem, and self-actualisation needs are becoming predominant.

McGregor felt that management needed process based on a more accurate understanding of human nature and motivation. As a result of his feeling, Mc Gregor developed an alternate theory of human behavior called Theory Y. This theory assumes that people are not, by nature, lazy and unreliable. It postulates that people can be basically self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated. Therefore, it should be an essential task of management to unleash this potential in individuals. Properly motivated people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward accomplishing organisational goals.

The impression that one might get from this discussion of Theory X-Theory Y is that managers who accept Theory X assumptions about human nature usually direct, control, and closely supervise people, while Theory Y managers are supportive and facilitating. We want to caution against drawing this conclusion because it could lead to the trap of thinking that Theory X is "bad" and Theory Y is "good" and that everyone is independent and self-motivated rather than, as Mc Gregor implies, that most people have the potential to be independent and self-motivated. This assumption of the potential self-motivation of people necessitates a recognition of the difference between attitude and behavior.

Theory X and Theory Y are attitudes, or predispositions, toward people. Thus, although the "best" assumptions for a manager to have may be Theory Y, it may not be appropriate to behave consistently with those assumptions all the time. Managers may have Theory Y assumptions about human nature, but they may find it necessary to behave in a very directive, controlling manner (as if they had Theory X assumptions) with some people in the short run to help them "grow up" in a developmental sense, until they are truly Theory Y acting people.

Chris Argyris recognises the difference between attitude and behaviour when he identifies and discusses behaviour patterns A and B in addition to Theory X and Y. Pattern A represents the interpersonal behaviour, group dynamics, and organisational norms that Argyris has found in his research to be associated with Theory X; pattern B represents the same phenomena found to be associated with Theory Y. In pattern A, individuals do not own up to feelings, are not open, reject experimenting, and do not help others to engage in these behaviours. Their behaviour tends to be characterised by close supervision and a high degree of structure. On the other hand, pattern B finds individuals owning up to feelings, open, experimenting, and helping others to engage in these

behaviours. Their behaviour tends to be more supportive and facilitating. The result is norms of trust, concern, and individuality.

As Argyris emphasises, "although XA and YB are usually associated with each other in everyday life, they do not have to be. Under certain conditions pattern A could go with Theory Y or pattern B with Theory X." Thus, XA and YB are the most frequent combinations, but some managers, at times, may be XB or YA. Although XB managers have negative assumptions about people, they seem to behave in supportive and facilitating ways. We have found that this XB combination tends to occur for two reasons. These managers (although they think most people are lazy and unreliable) engage in supportive and facilitating behaviours either because they have been told or have learned from experience that such behaviour will increase productivity or because they work for people who have created a supportive environment and if they want to maintain their jobs they are expected to behave accordingly. On the other hand, YA managers (although they think people are generally independent and self-motivated) control and closely supervise people either because they work for controlling people who demand similar behaviour from them or because they find it necessary to behave in a directive, controlling manner for a period of time. When they use pattern A behaviour, these managers usually are attempting to help people develop the skills and abilities necessary for self-direction and thus are creating an environment in which they can become YB managers.

The latter type of Y manager attempts to help employees develop by exposing them to progressively less external control, allowing them to assume more and more self-control. Employees are able to achieve the satisfaction of social, esteem, and self-actualisation needs within this kind of environment - one that is often neglected on the job. To the extent that the job does not provide satisfaction at every level, today's employee will usually look elsewhere for significant need satisfaction. This helps explain some of the current problems management is facing in such areas as turnover and absenteeism. Mc Gregor argues that this does not have to be the case.

Management is interested in work, and Mc Gregor feels that work is as natural and can be as satisfying for people as play. After all, both work and play are physical and mental activities; consequently, there is no inherent difference between work and play. In reality, however, particularly under Theory X management, a distinct difference in need satisfaction is discernible. Whereas play is internally controlled by the individuals (they decide what they want to do), work is externally controlled by others (people have no control over their jobs). Thus, management and its assumptions about the nature of people have built in a difference between work and play that seems unnatural. As a result, people are stifled at work, hence look for excuses to spend more and more time away from the job in order to satisfy their esteem and self-actualisation needs (provided they have enough money to satisfy their physiological and safety needs). Because of their conditioning to Theory X management, most employees consider work a necessary evil rather than a source of personal challenge and satisfaction.

Does work really have to be a necessary evil? No-especially in organisations where cohesive work teams have developed and where the team's goals parallel organisational goals. In such organisations there is high productivity and people come to work gladly because work is inherently satisfying.

15.3 UNDERSTANDING QUALITY OF WORK LIFE :

Quality of work life (QWL) refers to the favourableness or unfavourableness of a job environment for people. The basic purpose is to develop jobs that are excellent for people as well as

for production. QWL is a large step forward from the traditional job design of scientific management, which focused mostly on specialisation and efficiency for the performance of narrow tasks. As it evolved, it used full division of labor, that could be trained easily to do a small part of the job. Job performance was controlled by a large hierarchy that strictly enforced the one best way of work as defined by technical people.

Since classical design gave inadequate attention to quality of work life, many difficulties developed.

Employers now had two reasons for redesigning jobs and organisations for a better QWL:

1. Classical design originally gave inadequate attention to human needs.
2. The needs and aspirations of workers themselves were changing.

15.4 OPTIONS AVAILABLE TO MANAGEMENT :

Several options for solving these problems were available to management.

1. Leave the job as it is, and employ only workers who like the rigid environment and routine specialization of classical design. Not all workers object to this form of work. Some may even relish it because of the security and task support that it provides.

2. Leave the job as it is, but pay workers more so that they will accept the situation better. Since classical design usually produces economic gain management can afford to share the gain with workers.

3. Mechanize and automate routine jobs so that the labour that is unhappy with the job is no longer needed. Let machines do the routine work.

4. Redesign jobs to have the attributes desired by people, and redesign organisations to have the environment desired by people. This approach seeks to improve QWL.

Although all four options have usefulness in certain situations, the one that has captured the interest of people is option number 4. There is a need to give workers more of a whole task, more opportunity to use advanced skills, more opportunity for growth, and more chance to contribute their ideas, jobs are required to fit people as well as technology. This is a new set of values and a new way of thinking that focuses on QWL.

15.5 HUMANISED JOBS :

QWL produces more humanised jobs. It attempts to serve the higher-order needs of workers as well as their more basic needs. It seeks to employ the higher skills of workers and to provide an environment that encourages them to improve their skills. The idea is that workers are human resources they are to be developed rather than simply used. Further, the work should not have excessively negative conditions. It should not put workers under undue stress. It should not damage or degrade their humanness. It should not be threatening or unduly dangerous. Finally, it should contribute to, or at least leave unimpaired, workers' abilities to perform in other life roles, such as citizen, spouse, and parent. That is work should contribute to general social advancement.

The basic assumption of humanised work is that work is most advantageous when it provides a "best fit" among workers, jobs, technology, and the environment.

15.6 JOB ENRICHMENT :

The modern interest in quality of work life developed through an emphasis on job enrichment. The term was coined by Frederick Herzberg based on his research with motivators and maintenance factors. Strictly speaking, job enrichment means that additional motivators are added to a job to make it more rewarding, although the term has come to apply to almost any effort to humanise jobs. Job enrichment is an expansion of an earlier concept of job enlargement, which sought to give workers a wider variety of duties in order to reduce monotony.

Job enrichment brings many benefits, . Its general result is a role enrichment that encourages growth and self-actualization. The job is built in such a way that intrinsic motivation is encouraged. Because motivation is increased, performance should improve, thus providing both a more human and a more productive job. Negative effects, also tend to be reduced, such as turnover, absence grievances and idle time. In this manner both the worker and society benefit. The worker performs better, has more job satisfaction, and is more self-actualised, thus being able to participate in all life roles more effectively. Society benefits from the more effectively functioning person as well as better job performance. Following are examples of both quality and quantity improvements with job enrichment. Both an office and a factory situation have been chosen to illustrate its wide application.

In the Treasury Department of American Telephone and Telegraph Company, educated and intelligent employees handled correspondence with stockholders. They worked in a highly structured environment under close supervision in order to assure a suitable quality of correspondence. Under these conditions, quality of work was low and turnover was high.

A control group and a test group were set up, and the jobs of the test group were enriched as follows: (1) The employees were permitted to sign their own names to the letters they prepared; (2) they were held responsible for the quality of their work; (3) they were encouraged to become experts in the kinds of problems that appealed to them; and (4) subject-matter experts were provided for consultation regarding problems.

The control group remained unchanged after six months, but the test group improved by all measurements used. These measurements included turnover, productivity, absences, promotions, from the group, costs, quality, and attitudes.

15.7 APPLYING JOB ENRICHMENT :

Viewed in terms of Herzberg's motivational factors, job enrichment occurs when the work itself is more challenging, when achievement is encouraged, when there is opportunity for growth, and when responsibility, advancement, and recognition are provided. However, employees are the final judges of what enriches their jobs. All that management can do is make judgements about what tends to enrich jobs and then try these changes to determine whether employees feel that enrichment has occurred.

In trying to build motivational factors, management also gives attention to maintenance factors. It attempts to keep maintenance factors constant or higher as the motivational factors are increased. If maintenance factors are allowed to decline during an enrichment program, then employees may be less responsive to the enrichment program because of inadequate maintenance.

Since job enrichment must occur from each employee's personal viewpoint, not all employees will choose enriched jobs if they have an option. A contingency relationship exists in terms of different job needs, and some employees may prefer the simplicity and security of more routine jobs.

15.8 CORE DIMENSIONS OF JOBS :

Lawler and Hackmen have identified five core dimensions that especially provide enrichment for jobs. It is desirable for a job have all five of these dimensions. If one is missing, workers are psychologically deprived and motivation tends to be reduced. The core dimensions tend to improve motivation, satisfaction, and quality of work and reduce turnover and absenteeism. Their effect on quality of work is less dependable, managerial and white-collar jobs , as well as blue-collar jobs, often are deficient in some core dimensions. Admittedly these are large individual differences in how employees react to core dimensions, but the typical employee finds them to be basic for internal motivation.

15.8.1 VARIETY :

The first core dimension is variety in the job. Variety allows employees to perform different operations that often require different skills. It is illustrated by the following anecdote:

A tourist in Mexico stopped at a woodcarver's shop to inquire about the price of a chair that was hand-carved. The woodcarver replied, "Fifty pesos".

The tourist said that she liked the chair and wanted three more exactly like it. Hoping to receive a quality discount, she asked, "How much for four chairs?"

The woodcarver replied, " Two hundred fifty pesos for four chairs".

Shocked that the price per unit for four chairs was more than for one chair, the tourist asked why. The woodcarver replied. "But senorita , it is very boring to carve four chairs that exactly alike".

Jobs that are high in variety are seen by employees as more challenging because of the range of skills involved. These jobs also relieve monotony that develops from any repetitive activity. If the work is physical, different muscles are used, so that one muscular area is not so overworked and tired at the end of the day. Variety gives employees a greater sense of competence, because they can perform different kinds of work in different ways.

15.8.2 TASK IDENTITY :

A second core job dimension is task identity, which allows employees to perform a complete piece of the work. Other examples are a radio factory where each worker assembles a pocket radio and an office where a single employee prepares a major report rather than a part of it.

When a person performs a complete cycle of work to make a whole product or a subunit of it, then that person is performing a natural work module. The work flows naturally from start to finish.

15.8.3 TASK SIGNIFICANCE :

A third core dimension is task significance. It refers to the amount of impact, as perceived by the worker, that the work has on the other people. The impact can be on others in the organisation, as when the worker helps to make a lifesaving medical instrument. The key points is that workers believe they are doing some thing important in their organisation and/or society.

15.8.4 AUTONOMY :

A fourth core dimension is autonomy . It is the job characteristic that gives employees some control over their own affairs, and it appears to be fundamental in building a sense of responsibility

in workers. Although they are willing to work within the board constraints of an organization, they also insist on a degree of freedom. The popular practice of management by objectives (MBO) is one way of establishing more autonomy because it provides a greater role for workers in setting their own goals.

15.8.5 FEEDBACK :

A fifth core dimension is feedback. Feedback refers to information that tells workers how well they are performing. It comes from both the job itself and management. The idea of feedback is a simple one, but it is of much significance to people at work, since they are investing a substantial part of their life in their work, hence, they want to know how well they are doing. Monthly outputs and daily outputs refers to the feedback of the employees on their progress.

15.9 LIMITATIONS OF JOB ENRICHMENT :

Job enrichment has a number of limitations, it is more appropriate for some situations than for others, and in certain situations it may not be appropriate at all. Some workers do not want increased responsibility, and other workers do not adapt to the group interaction that is sometimes required. In other words, enrichment is contingent on attitudes of employees and their capability to handle enriched tasks.

Situational factors : Job enrichment does not apply to all types of situations. It appears to apply more easily to higher level jobs, compared with lower-level ones, particularly if the lower-level jobs are dictated by the technological process.

Pay relationships : Job enrichment also may upset pay relationships. Management typically assumes that the intrinsic rewards of the enriched job are sufficient. Employees, however, may become unhappy because they think they are not paid in proportion to their increased duties. They want more money, but a pay increase adds to costs and may upset comparative pay relationships.

Other costs : There are other costs in addition to pay. Equipment and floor space may need to be redesigned. In some instances more space and tools will be needed so that teams can work independently.

Union attitudes : An additional contingency factor is union attitudes. Job enrichment may upset existing job classifications, thereby causing union resistance. In some instances enrichment may create jurisdictional disputes between the territories of two unions. Likely places for this problem are maintenance work and construction work. Distinctions between jobs may be so narrow and rules so rigid that unions will not tolerate some changes.

15.10 CONCLUSION :

The limitations and difficulties with job enrichment lead to three conclusions. First, job-enrichment and QWL programs generally are desirable for both human and performance needs. They help both employees and the firm. Second, there is a contingency relationship. QWL improvements work better in some situations than others. They are not the best for every situation. A third conclusion is that QWL programs bring costs as well as benefits. Both must be evaluated to determine the desirability of a change.

15.11 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Explain Theory X and Theory Y proposed by McGregor ?
2. What is job enrichment ? Explain with suitable examples ?
3. Narrate the differences between job enrichment and job enlargement
4. Explain five core dimensions that provide enrichment for jobs.

15.12 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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LESSON - 16

LEADERSHIP, CLASSICAL STUDIES ON LEADERSHIP

LESSON PLAN :

- 16.1 OBJECTIVES
- 16.2 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION
- 16.3. WHAT A LEADER DOES
- 16.4 CLASSICAL STUDIES ON LEADERSHIP
- 16.5 LOWA LEADERSHIP STUDIES
- 16.6 MODEL QUESTIONS
- 16.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

16.1 OBJECTIVES :

The lesson explains the concept leadership and also the classical study on leadership.

16.2 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION :

Leadership is a value-loaded term. To many persons, it has a dictatorial ring, associated with the 'further' concept and connotes people being driven a way by a hypnotic influence. Early notions about leadership dealt with it almost in terms of personal abilities. Leaders were credited with supernatural powers such as the ability to see through men's minds, to tell the future and to compel obedience hypnotically. Leadership is viewed as a characteristic of the individual. In recent times such supernatural explanations have given way to more rational explanations. The irony that permeates the existing literature is the lack of a structural and universally acceptable definition of leadership. Perhaps the closest thing to a consensus on a definition for leadership is that it is a social-influence process. Leadership is defined as the Process of Influencing Group Activities Toward the Accomplishment of Goals in a given situation. In this context the leader is viewed as the person in the group who is capable of influencing group activities with regard to goal formation and goal accomplishment.

The above definition contains many important points :

1. Leadership is a relationship between two or more people in which influence and power are unevenly distributed.
2. Leaders do not flourish in vacuum. The essence of leadership is followership. Leadership implies that followers must consent to being influenced. They must suspend their judgment and allow another person to make decisions in specific situations. This leader relationship involves psychological or economic exchange. Leaders gain their authority over a group by group consensus alone.

3. Leadership is a function of the leader, the follower and other situational variables. It is a matter of removing barriers in a situation so that subordinates work with freedom and independence.
4. Leadership is essentially a continuous process of influencing behaviour. A leader breathes life into the group and motivates it toward goals. The lukewarm desires for achievement are transformed into a burning passion for accomplishment.
5. Leadership is something a person does, not something he has, Leadership is something that emerges, that grows and that is achieved.

16.3 WHAT A LEADER DOES :

Leader is not a lay-figure. He has much to do; such as, help groups in achieving their objectives, initiate changes, help make decisions and resolve differences among the employees. The functions may be relatively straight-forward such as choosing the group goal, supervising performance, making plans. The functions may also be much more complex at times, such as serving to integrate the groups needs with outside realities, satisfying interpersonal needs within the groups, creating an atmosphere free of conflict for group members. In the wake of vast, rapid technological changes leader has to perform multifarious functions. The list of these functions could go on and on. Some of the important functions the leader performs are given as under.

Leader develops team work : The three vital determinants of team-work are the leader, subordinates and the environment. These factors are interdependent. It is the leader's responsibility to make the environment conducive to work. He studies the employees individually and instils interest in them. By encouraging the inquisitive employees and by prohibiting insidious elements he creates hygienic environment. He inculcates the sense of collectivism in employees to work as a team. The resultant output will then be efficiency.

Leader is a representative of subordinates : He is an intermediary between the work groups and top management. They are called linking pins by Rensis Likert. As linking pins they serve to integrate the entire organisation and the effectiveness depends on the strength of these linking pins. Leader shows personal consideration for the employees. As representatives they carry the voice of the subordinates to the top management.

Leader is an appropriate counsellor : Quite often people in the work place need counselling to eliminate the emotional disequilibrium that is created sometimes in them. Leader removes barriers and stumbling blocks to effective performance. For instance, frustration that result from blocked need drive keeps an employee derailed of the working track. It is here comes in, renders wise counsel, releases the employee of the emotional tension and restores equilibrium.

Uses power properly : If a leader is to effectively achieve the goals expected of him, he must have power and authority to act in a way that will stimulate a positive response from the workers. A leader, depending on the situation exercises different types of power, viz., reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power and expert power. Besides the formal basis the informal basis of power also have a more powerful impact on organisational effectiveness. No leader is effective unless the subordinates obey his orders. Therefore, the leader uses appropriate power so that subordinates willingly obey the orders and come forward with commitment.

Leader Manages the time well : Time is precious and vital but often overlooked in management. There are, three dimensions of time, boss-imposed-time, system-imposed-time and

self-imposed-time, that are prominent in literature. Because the leader has through knowledge of the principles of time management such as time preparing charts, scheduling techniques etc., he is in a position to utilise the time productivity in the organisations.

Strives for effectiveness : Quite frequently the managers are work-abolic and too busy with petty things to address to major details of effectiveness. To fill the gap, sometimes leader throws hi concerned effort to bring effectiveness by encouraging and nurturing teamwork, by better time management and by the proper use of power. Further, leader provides an adequate reward structure to encourage performance of employees. Leader delegates authority where needed and invites participation wherever possible to achieve the better results. He also provides the workers with necessary resources. By communicating to workers what is expected of them leader brings effectiveness to organisation. The above functions of the leader are by no means comprehensive but they do suggest as what leaders do generally.

MANAGING AND LEADING :

Leading and managing are not synonymous. One popular way of distinguishing between managing and leading is brought out by French terms dux and rex. Dux is a leader and an activist, innovator and often an inspirational type; and rex is a stabiliser or broker of manager. But mor realistically, effective management requires good leadership. Bennis had once commented "there are many institution I know are very well managed but very poorly led". This statement crystall-clearly demonstrates that the difference between managing and leading is indeed a lot. Though a layman considers managing as a broad term including leading function, a behaviourist advances the following points to marshal the difference between these two terms 'leading' and 'managing'.

1. Relationships : Managerial behaviour implies the existence of a manager-managed relationships. This relationship arises within organisational context. Whereas, leadership can occur anywhere, for example a mob can have a leader but cannot have a manager. Further, in an organisation, informal groups have leaders-not managers.

2. Sources of influence : Another potential difference between leader and manager lies in their sources of influence. Authority is attached to the managerial position in the case of a manager; whereas a leader may not have authority but can receive power directly from his followers. In other words, managers obtain authority from the organisation and the leader gets power from his followers. In rather pure terms, this is the difference between the formal authority theory and the acceptance theory of authority.

3. Sanctions : A manager has command over the allocation and distributions of sanctions. For example, manager has control over the positive sanctions such as promotion and awards for high task performance and the contribution to organisational objectives. Manager is also in a position to exercise the negative sanctions such as withholding promotions, or increments, demotion in some cases of extreme default or mistakes, etc. In a sharp contrast, a leader has altogether different types of sanctions to exercise and grant. He can grant or withhold access to satisfying the very purpose of joining the groups-social satisfaction and related task rewards. These sanctions are essentially informal in nature. These informal sanctions are relevant to the individual with belongingness or ego needs; whereas the organisational sanctions granted or exercised by the manager are geared to the physiological and security needs of individual.

4. Role continuance : Another fundamental difference between managing and leading is the role continuance. A manager may continue in office as long as his performance is satisfactory and acceptable to the organisation. In a sharp contrast, a leader maintains his position only through the day-to-day wish of the followers i.e., how well he facilitates his group in accomplishing their objectives.

5. Reasons for following : Though in both managing and leading followers become involved, the reasons may be different. People follow managers because their job description, supported by a system of rewards and sanctions, requires them to follow. Whereas, people follow leaders on voluntary basis. Further, if there are no followers, leader no more exists. But, even if there are no followers a manager may be there.

6. Accountability : Managers are accountable for the job behaviours of those managed as well as their own behaviour. Leaders are not accountable for the behaviour of their followers in the similar fashion of the manager's accountability. Thus, managership implies a clear-cut accountability relationship whereas leadership implies no accountability relationship between himself and the followers and to the organisation.

The concept of Managerial Leadership :

Actually it is not always possible to segregate the behavioural functions of managership and leadership. It is because "every act of influence on a matter of organisational relevance is in some degree an act of leadership". The implication is that every instance of managerial behaviour has a leadership component in it and how much of this represents leadership is difficult to determine. Therefore, instead of indulging in separating and determining what behaviour is associated with the leadership and what is associated with essentials of managerial leadership. The concept of managerial leadership is important because the term itself suggests the necessity of bringing together the managerial and leadership roles for the more effective task performance, organisational effectiveness and human satisfactions. The managerial leader, then, is generally evaluated on both formal task accomplishment and informal basis of personal and group goal accomplishment. Finally, organisational performance is closely related to quality of leadership. A bungling leader can wreck the morale and destroy efficiency. Strong leadership, on the other hand, can transform a lacklustre group into a strong, aggressive, successful organisation.

16.4 CLASSIC STUDIES ON LEADERSHIP :

Unlike many other topics in the field of organizational behavior, there are a number of studies and a considerable body of knowledge on leadership. A review of the better-known classic studies can help set the stage for the established and emerging theories of leadership.

16.5 THE IOWA LEADERSHIP STUDIES :

A series of pioneering leadership studies conducted in the late 1930s by Ronald Lippitt and Ralph K. White under the general direction of Kurt Lewin at the University of Iowa have had a lasting impact. Lewin is recognized as the father of group dynamics and as an important cognitive theorist. In the initial studies, hobby clubs for ten-year-old boys were formed. Each club was submitted to three different styles of leadership-authoritarian, democratic, and laissez faire. The authoritarian leader was very directive and allowed no participation. This leader tended to give individual attention when praising and criticizing but tried to be friendly or impersonal rather than openly hostile. The democratic leader encouraged group discussion and decision making. He tried to be "objective" in his praise or

criticism and to be one of the group in spirit. The laissez faire leader gave complete freedom to the group; he essentially provided no leadership.

Under experimental conditions, the three leadership styles were manipulated to show their effects on variables such as satisfaction and frustration / aggression. Some of the results were clear-cut and others were not. One definite finding was the boys' overwhelming preference for the democratic leader. In individual interviews, nineteen of the twenty boys stated they liked the democratic leader better than the authoritarian leader. The boys also chose the laissez faire leader over the autocratic one in seven out of ten cases. For most of the boys, even confusion and disorder were preferable to strictness and rigidity.

Unfortunately, the effects that styles of leadership had on productivity were not directly examined. The experiments were designed primarily to examine patterns of aggressive behavior. However, an important by-product was the insight that was gained into the productive behavior of a group. For example, the researchers found that the boys subjected to the autocratic leaders reacted in one of two ways; either aggressively or apathetically. Both the aggressive and apathetic behaviors were deemed to be reactions to the frustration caused by the autocratic leader. The researchers also pointed out that the apathetic groups exhibited outbursts of aggression when the autocratic leader left the room or when a transition was made to a freer leadership atmosphere. The laissez faire leadership climate actually produced the greatest number of aggressive acts from the group. The democratically led group fell between the one extremely aggressive group and the four apathetic groups under the autocratic leaders.

16.6 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Define Leadership with suitable examples ?
2. Describe classical study on leadership ?

16.7 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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LESSON - 17

THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

LESSON PLAN :

- 17.1 OBJECTIVES
- 17.2 CONCEPT
- 17.3 TRAIT THEORY
- 17.4 BEHAVIOURAL THEORY
 - 17.4.1 THE MICHIGAN STUDIES
 - 17.4.2 THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY STUDIES
 - 17.4.3 SIMILARITIES BETWEEN MICHIGAN AND OHIO STATE STUDIES
- 17.5 MANAGERIAL GRID
- 17.6 FIEDLERS' CONTINGENCY MODEL
 - 17.6.1 THE SITUATIONAL FACTORS
 - 17.6.2 LEADER MEMBERS RELATIONS
 - 17.6.3 TASK STRUCTURE
 - 17.6.4 LEADER POSITION POWER
 - 17.6.5 FAVOURABLENESS OF THE SITUATION
- 17.7 MODEL QUESTIONS
- 17.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

17.1 OBJECTIVES :

The lesson narrates the various theories of leadership. Trait theory, Behavioural theories, Managerial grid and Situational leadership theories are discussed elaborately.

17.2 CONCEPT :

Leadership is complex and multidimensional in character and as such no one can afford to jump prematurely to prescriptions and generalisations from the leadership research. Though researchers have attempted to study it a lot, there has been surprisingly a narrow preoccupation with the tone or style of leaders and their interpersonal relations with the subordinates. Indeed a great bulk of leadership studies have been directed at this single issue-what is the style of leadership?

Leadership is crucial ingredient in organisational effectiveness. It is a complex interpersonal process of influencing behaviour. There are three theories of leadership-trait theory, behavioural theory and situational theory.

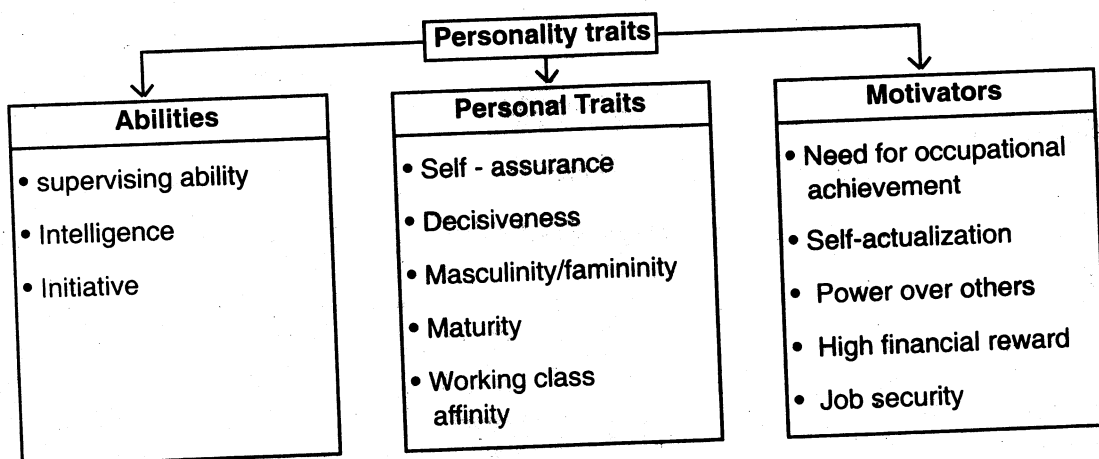
17.3 TRAIT THEORY :

In an attempt to develop a quick and easy test for assessing leadership potential, early writers concluded that leadership is largely matter of personality, a function of specific traits. Trait theorists suggest that leaders differ from followers with respect to a small number of key traits and these traits remain unchanged across time.

The trait theory attempts to isolate the attributes of successful and unsuccessful leaders and, using this list of traits, predict the success or failure of potential leaders. If traits can be measured in some way, most of the organisations can easily select for leadership only persons well suited by their personality or temperament for such roles.

Why it failed? Attempts to determine exactly the traits of a leader have resulted in complete failure. Unfortunately "fifty years of study has failed to produce one personality trait or set of traits than can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders". Many agreed that the use of traits had not proved useful for selecting leaders. Byrd analysed over 100 trait studies upto 1940 and found that only 5 per cent of the traits appeared in four or more studies. But why the trait theory failed? The answer lies in the simple fact that different situations demand different characteristics, styles and skills for effective leadership. In some situations, directive actions by the leader work. In other such behaviour is resented, and a more participative approach may be better. In the words of Charles R. Melton "the trait theory failed because it is the leadership situation - the nature of the subordinates and task - that determines what leader traits are essential for effective leadership. Such traits differ some what from situation to situation.

General consensus on traits, In one study as many as 17,953 individual traits have been identified. Again, one researcher isolated 171 surface traits but concluded that they were superficial and lacking in descriptive power. However, Ghiselli has provided a less exhaustive and generally accepted list of traits that contribute to leader effectiveness.



Keith Davis had pulled together the following four traits that are shared by most successful leaders :

- a) Intelligence Leaders tend to have somewhat higher intelligence than their follower.

- b) Social maturity and breadth, Leaders tend to be emotionally mature and have a broad interest range. They are neither crushed by defeat nor over-elected by victory. They have high frustration tolerance.
- c) Inner motivation and achievement drive. Leaders want to achieve things; when they achieve one thing, they seek out another.
- d) Human relation attitudes, Leaders develop a healthy respect for people and realise that to accomplish tasks, they must be considerate of others.

17.4 BEHAVIOURAL THEORIES :

In contrast with trait theory, behavioural theory attempts to describe leadership in terms of what leaders do, while trait theory seeks to explain leadership on the basis of what leaders are. Leadership according to this approach is the result of effective role behaviour. Leadership is shown by a person's acts more than by his traits. This is an appropriate new research strategy adopted by Michigan Researchers in the sense that the emphasis on the traits is replaced by the emphasis on leader behaviour(which could be measured).

17.4.1 THE MICHIGAN STUDIES :

After studying numerous industrial situations, the Michigan researchers identified two leadership styles - employee-centred and production-centred-influencing employee performance and productivity.

<i>Employee-centred leader</i>	<i>Production-centred leader</i>
Treats subordinates as human beings. Shows concern for their well being. Encourages and involves them in goal setting.	Emphasizes technical aspects of job. Emphasis on work standards Close supervision Employee seen as a tool in the
production process.	

They prescribed employee-oriented style of leadership to increase productivity. They contended that supervisory controls and production-centred leadership styles will be frustrating to the employees, affects their morale leading to unsatisfactory performance on the job.

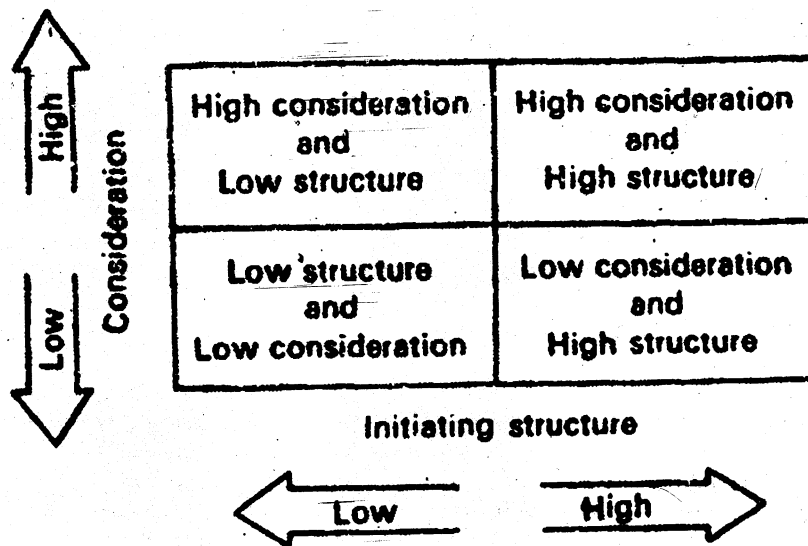
Evaluation : The Michigan studies were more compatible with the prevailing system in 'post-Hawthorne America' and as such became very popular. Researchers were able to identify specific behaviours that influenced employee behaviour and productivity and advised scrupulously that a people orientation should come before a work orientation. These findings led to the widespread belief in the 1950s that the employee-oriented leadership style was always superior.

17.4.2 THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY STUDIES:

The Ohio State University studies identified two leadership behaviours - Initiating structure and Consideration-after analysing actual leadership behaviour in a wide variety of situations. Consideration (C) refers to the ability of the leader to establish rapport, mutual respect and two-way communication with employees. The leader is friendly, approachable and listens to the problem of employees and allow them to suggest. Initiating Structure (IS) refers to the extent to which the leaders structure and define the activities of subordinates so that organisational goals are accomplished.

During research, the Ohio State scholars have developed the leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (IBDQ) that contains 15 items regarding the consideration and an equal number referring initiating structure, to describe the activities displayed by the leader. Research Staff also developed a Leader Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) that reflects the self-perceptions that the leaders have about their style of leadership.

The researchers found that IS and C were independent and distinct dimensions. A high score on one dimension does not necessitate a low score on the other (orthogonal). Leader behaviour was plotted, for the first time, on two separate axes rather than on a single continuum. Four quadrants were developed to show IS and C in varying combinations.



Four Quadrants to show IS and C in varying combinations

Evaluation : The two-dimensional model became a 'best-seller' overnight and made an epoch-making contribution to leadership studies afterwards. It has caught the imagination of the managers throughout the world due to its simple but powerful reasoning. The influence of the Ohio State studies has been extensive. The concepts of consideration and initiating structure have had a high intuitive appeal to the practicing managers so that many training programmes have made use of them. It is easy to understand the intricacies of the model and practice the leader behaviours. The logic behind the model appears quite reasonable and appealing. Nevertheless, it has been subjected to troubling criticisms from time to time. It has been criticised because of simplicity, lack of generalisability, and exclusive reliance on controversial-paper-and-pencil-questionnaire responses to measure leadership effectiveness.

17.4.3 SIMILARITIES OF MICHIGAN AND OHIO STATE STUDIES :

1. Both have accepted that leader behaviour is more complex than the oversimplified dichotomy of task and maintenance oriented behaviour.
2. Both identified and stressed on performance-production emphasis at Ohio and goal emphasis or high standards of production performance at Michigan.
3. Both found that the pattern of effective leader behaviour definitely varied with the situation.

17.5 THE MANAGERIAL GRID :

The most significant and practical contribution to more effective management principles and organisation development to appear in many years is the Managerial Grid. The concept is created and developed by US Industrial Psychologists R. R. Blake and Jane. S. Mouton.

The managerial grid is based on massive practical research into behavioural sciences in the industrial setting. Managerial grid is more than just a theory in human behaviour. It is a tested science of management theory in human behaviour. It is a tested science of management theory employing systematic principles which can be taught and which may then be applied in the day to day situations. The exciting aspect of the managerial grid is its effectiveness in improving people's attitudes and behaviour throughout an entire organisation to the benefit of the organisation. It promises to turn the 'art' of managing into a 'science'. It has been successfully applied in industry and has contributed greatly to increased profits and union-management relations.

Behavioural scientists have, for a painfully long time separated, isolated and frequently misconstrued the two concerns; the concern for production and the concern for people. According to the Blake and Mouton these concerns are two side of the same coin and should be utilised with maximum and integrated concern to achieve the objectives of the organisation. It is Blake and Mouton's assumption that people and production are complementary rather than mutually exclusive.

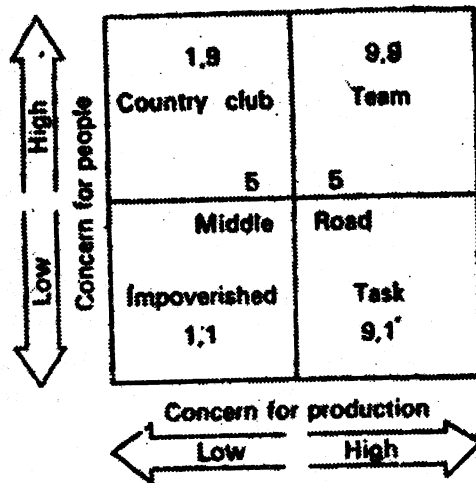
1. *Concern for production* : This is not limited to things only. Production may be assessed through the number of creative ideas that applied research turns into useful products, procedures or processes: quality and thoroughness of staff services, work load and efficiency and measurements as well as units of output.

2. *Concern for people* : It is not confined to narrow considerations of interpersonal warmth and friendliness. It covers a variety of concerns which can include concern for degree of personal commitment to completing a job for which one is responsible; accountability based on trust rather than force; self esteem, desire for a sense of security in work; friendships with co-workers leading to a healthy working climate.

Certainly, the managerial grid has introduced a golden page in the management literature. The managerial grid is based on the exciting idea of applying educational techniques under the concepts of full and adequate concern for production and concern for people to bring an entire organisation to a higher level of development and functioning.

The two terms 'concern for people' and 'concern for production' are attitudinal when compared to the Ohio's behavioural concepts of consideration and the initiating structure.

The visual aspect of the managerial grid is portrayed in the accompanying graph.



The graph shows the degrees of concerns for production and people and possible interactions between them. The horizontal axis represents concern for production while the vertical axis indicates concern for people. Each is expressed as a nine-point scale of concern. The number 1 in each instance represents minimum concern. The number 9 represents maximum concern.

- Impoverished. Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organisation relationship.
- Country club, Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable, friendly organisation atmosphere and work temple.
- Middle road. Adequate organisation performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get work with maintaining morale of people at satisfactory level.
- Task. Efficiency in organisations result from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.
- Team. Work accomplishment is from committed people and interdependence through a common stake in organisation that leads to relationships of trust and respect.

Theoretically speaking there are eighty one possible positions in the grid, reflecting as many leadership styles, but the focus usually centers around five basic styles. The 9,1 leader is mainly concerned with production and has little concern for people. This person wants to meet production schedules and get the task done at all costs. The 1,9 style reflects a minimal concern for production coupled with a maximum concern for people. The 1,1 leader has little concern for both production. The 5,5 style reflects a moderate concern for both. The 9,9 style is viewed as the ideal leadership style: it exhibits a maximum concern for both production and people.

According to the managerial grid, of all, the 9,9 style is the optimum leadership approach, often called 'super leader style' and many organisations have used training programmes to develop 9,9 managers. Blake and Mouton assert that this is one best style of exercising most effective leadership; what changes with the situation is the tactics of application.

Evaluation : Grid approach is attractive, instructive and has a commonsense appeal. The grid helps managers to identify their own leadership styles. It serves as a useful framework for the

leaders to use in assessing their styles before undertaking a rigorous training programme that is cared to move them to the 9.9 style. The evidence from other sources such as Fiedler, does not square with the notion that the best leaders invariably tend toward an intense concern for both people and work. In fact, Bernardin and Alvares point out "a 9.9 orientation applied to the organisation as a whole will foster a kind of corporate Darwinism.

Though the grid programme is popular among practitioners, it is highly controversial among theorists and researchers because of its lack of empirical evidence.

17.6 FIEDLER'S CONTINGENCY MODEL :

Fiedler's contingency model is one of the most serious and elaborate situational theories in leadership literature. Fiedler is probably the first researcher who recognized the need for a broader explanation of leadership phenomena anchored on situational variables. The major problem with the earlier Trait and Behavioral approaches is that they are universalistic approaches; they search for a magic key to leadership that is devoid of situational context and follower behaviour and personality. The contingency model attempts to rectify these inherent deficiencies in behavioural theories. The research undertaken by Fiedler and his associates over a considerable span of time involving dozens of studies under a wide variety of conditions, is an excellent example of needed refocusing. Fiedler sought to characterize important, measurable environmental variables. Those factors that were sought were features of the situation that were thought to exert a strong influence on alternative leader approaches and possible situational outcomes.

17.6.1 THE SITUATIONAL FACTORS :

Fiedler's model is called a 'contingency' model because the leader's effectiveness is partially contingent upon three major situational variables. These variables are viewed as attributes (low-high, present absent) rather than continuous. They are (1) leader-member relations (2) the task structure and (3) the leader's position power.

17.6.2 LEADER MEMBER RELATIONS :

It refers to the degree of confidence, trust and respect followers have in the leader. It indicates the degree to which group members like the leader and are willing to accept the leader's behaviour, as an influence on them. If followers are willing to follow because of charisma, expertise, competence or mutual respect, the leader has little need to depend on task structure or position power. If, on the other hand, the leader is not trusted and is viewed negatively by followers the situation is considered less favourable.

17.6.3 TASK STRUCTURE :

It measures the extent to which the task performed by subordinates is routine or non-routine. Task structure refers to the degree to which the task requirements are clearly defined, (clarity of goals) the correctness of a decision can be easily verified (verifiability of decisions made) and there are alternative solutions to task problems (multiplicity of options to solve problems). In other words, task structure refers to how routine and predictable the work group's task is.

17.6.4 LEADER POSITION POWER :

The most obvious manner in which the leader secures power is by accepting and performing the leadership role. Position power in the contingency model refers to the power inherent in the leader's organisational position.

It refers to the degree to which the leader has at his disposal various rewards and sanctions, his authority over group's members, and the degree to which this authority is supported by the organisation.

17.6.5 FAVOURABLENESS OF THE SITUATION :

Thus, depending on the 'high' and 'low' categories of these situational variables, Fiedler developed eight possible combinations ranging from highly favourable to unfavourable situations.

A favourable situation is where the leader-member relations are good, the task is highly structured and the leader has enormous power to exert influence on the subordinates. The first cell in the table is identified with this high degree of favourableness. At the other extreme, an unfavourable situation is where the leader's power is weak, relations with members are poor and the task is unstructured and unpredictable. The last cell represents this situation. Between these two extremes lies the situation of intermediate difficulty. Fiedler argues that a permissive, relationship-oriented style is best when the situation is moderately favourable or moderately unfavourable. When the situation is highly favourable or highly unfavourable a task-oriented style produces the desired performance.

17.7 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Explain trait theory of leadership. Describe the leadership traits which are always associated with successful leader ?
2. What are the two critical leader behaviours identified at Ohio State studies of leadership ?
3. Explain in detail managerial grid. Is it useful for modern managers ?
4. Critically examine the Fiedler's contingency model of leadership effectiveness ?

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LESSON - 18

LEADERSHIP STYLES

LESSON PLAN :

18.1 OBJECTIVES

18.2 CONCEPT

18.3 AUTOCRATIC / AUTHORITATIVE / DIRECTIVE STYLE

18.4 DEMOCRATIC / PARTICIPATIVE STYLE

18.5 FREE-REIN STYLE

18.6 MODEL QUESTIONS

18.7 SUGGESTED READINGS

18.1 OBJECTIVES :

The lesson explains different leadership styles. The leader also use particular leadership style as per the situation.

18.2 CONCEPT :

The behaviour exhibited by a leader during supervision of subordinates is known as leadership style. There are probably as many different styles of leadership as there are different styles of leaders. Basically three styles are listed out-autocratic, democratic, and free-rein.

18.3 AUTOCRATIC/AUTHORITATIVE/DIRECTIVE STYLE :

An autocratic leader centralises power and decision-making in himself and exercises complete control over the subordinates. He holds over the head of his subordinates the threat of penalties and punishment. He sets the group goals and structures the work. He runs his own show. The leader gives orders and the subordinates are to follow them ungrudgingly and unquestioningly. The problem with this style is that subordinates are made aware of what to do but not why. It may be satisfying for the leader to dictate terms to others continuously but for subordinates this may be totally frustrating. He breathes so closely down the necks of his subordinates that he makes effective action impossible. Subordinates are compelled to follow the leader's directions to the letter even though they may be wrong. Later when errors creep in, subordinates will avoid responsibility since they were merely obeying. In autocratic situations, frustration, low morale and conflict develop easily. Subordinates are induced to avoid responsibility, initiative and innovative behaviour. Moreover autocratic leadership can be only as good as the leader is. If the leader is weak and incompetent, the followers will be weak and incompetent.

Autocratic style permits quick decision-making and hence can be applied with success in situations where:

- (i) the subordinates lack knowledge of company goals,

- (ii) the subordinates are inexperienced or lack in training,
- (iii) the company endorses fear and punishment as accepted disciplinary techniques,
- (iv) the leader prefers to be active and dominant in decision-making, and
- (v) there is a little room for error in final accomplishment.

18.4 DEMOCRATIC/PARTICIPATIVE STYLE :

In contrast to the autocrat, the democratic leader practices leadership by consultation. He is like a Theory Y leader and invites decision sharing. Here authority is decentralised. Decisions are arrived at after consultation with followers and participation by them. The subordinates are also encouraged to exploit their potential and assume greater challenging responsibilities. The participative leader attaches high importance to both work and people. This style improves job satisfaction and morale of employees. It helps in gaining the services from a more satisfied and cohesive group. In fact, no managers can perform effectively over an extended period of time without some degree of employee participation.

- (i) The organisation has communicated its goals and the objectives to the subordinates and the subordinates have accepted them.
- (ii) Rewards and involvement are used as the primary means of motivation and control.
- (iii) The leader truly desires to hear the ideas of his employees before making decisions.
- (iv) The leader wishes to develop analytical and self-control abilities in his subordinates.
- (v) The workers are reasonably knowledgeable and experienced.
- (vi) The subordinates desire active and true involvement in matters that affect them.
- (vii) The time for task completion allows for the participation.

Participative style is appreciated on the groups that :

- (i) The leader cultivates the decision-making abilities of his subordinates.
- (ii) The leader seriously listens to and thoroughly reviews the ideas of his subordinates and accept their contributions wherever possible and practical.
- (iii) Participative leadership style is not always a bed of roses. It is attacked on the following grounds :
 - (a) Participative style is a misleading term. There is always a danger of misinterpretation of decision sharing. Subordinates may view the leader as incompetent to handle crisis independently. Participation may also be interpreted as a sign of inefficiency on the part of the leader to deal with the problems and taking decisions.
 - (b) Participative leadership is time consuming. It is a tough job for the leader to provide a relaxed atmosphere to the subordinates so that they actively participate in decision-making.
 - (c) For some leaders, participative style is an effective way of passing the buck to others. It is a means of abdication of the responsibility for them.

18.5 FREE-REIN LEADERSHIP STYLE :

Free-rein leadership is a rather complete delegation of authority into the hands of the subordinates so that they must plan, motivate, control and otherwise be responsible for their own actions. The free-rein manager avoids power and relinquishes the leadership position. Then the question arises as to why certain leaders opt out of the leadership role? In a general sense we can state that leader perceives that the costs associated with leading are greater than the benefits. More specifically the reasons may be lack of self confidence, fear of failure etc.

Free-rein style would seem to be appropriate under the condition where:

- (i) The organisational goals have been communicated well and are acceptable to the subordinates.
- (ii) The leader is interested in delegating decision-making fully.
- (iii) The subordinates themselves are well-trained and highly knowledgeable concerning their tasks and are ready to assume responsibilities.

The problem with this abdicatoric style is that it tends to permit various units of an organisation to proceed at cross purposes and can degenerate into chaos. Hence it should be the rare exception not a general rule.

18.6 MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. What do you understand by 'leadership style' ?
2. What are the major differences between autocratic, democratic and free-rein styles of a leader ?
3. Which leadership style is best ? Explain.

18.7 SUGGESTED READINGS :

Gangadhara Rao M. et al : Organisational Behaviour, Konark Publishers Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, 1997.

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LESSON - 19

ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

LESSON PLAN :

- 19.1 OBJECTIVES
- 19.2 CONCEPT
- 19.3 DEFINITION
- 19.4 FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE
 - 19.4.1 ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT
 - 19.4.2 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE
 - 19.4.3 PROCESS
 - 19.4.4 PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT
 - 19.4.5 SYSTEM VALUES AND NORMS
- 19.5 MEASUREMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE
- 19.6 CHANGING ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE
- 19.7 SUMMARY
- 19.8 MODEL QUESTIONS
- 19.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

19.1 OBJECTIVES :

In this lesson the concept of organisational climate is thoroughly discussed and organisational climate is also defined. The factors that determine organisational climate are also presented. The measurement and change of organisational climate is also discussed.

19.2 ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE :

A concept that management can ill afford to ignore is "Organisational climate". All organisational theoreticians and researchers unanimously agree that a sound climate is extremely important for the ultimate achievement of organisational goals. Organisational climate, though abstract in concept, is normally associated with job performance, job satisfaction and morale of the employees. Climate is a commonly experienced phenomenon and often referred to by many expressions as atmosphere, surrounding milieu, environment and culture etc. Organisations like finger prints and snowflakes are always unique. Each has its own traditions, methods of action, culture which in their totality comprise its climate for people.

Organisational climate is very important factor to be considered in studying and analysing organisations because it has a profound influence on the outlook, well being and attitudes of organisational members and, thus, on their total performance. It affects the behaviour of people in three ways.

- (i) Defining the stimuli that confronts the individual.
- (ii) Placing constraints upon the individual's freedom of choice.
- (iii) Providing source of reward and punishment.

Organisational climate, furthermore, provides a useful platform for understanding such characteristics of organisations as stability, creativity and innovation, communication, and effectiveness etc.

19.3 CLIMATE DEFINED :

Although intangible, organisational climate is a real phenomenon. While a precise definition of climate may be lacking, this does not preclude its existence. In the literature of organisational behaviour several different definitions have been advanced and almost all have a greater degree of commonality. Organisational climate is :

1. A relatively enduring quality of the internal environment that is experienced by its members, influences their behaviour, and can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics of the organisation.
2. A set of characteristics that describe an organisation and that (a) distinguish one organisation from another (b) are relatively enduring over a period of time, and (c) influence the behaviour of people in the organisation.

Organisational climate is the summary perception which people have about an organisation. It is, thus a global expression of what the organisation is.

Organisational climate is, thus the manifestation of the attitudes of organisational members toward the organisation itself. An organisation tends to attract and keep people who fit its climate, so that its patterns are perpetuated at least to some extent.

Organisational climate should be viewed from total system point of view. Some theorists may be of the opinion that "there are as many climates as there are people in organisations". There may exist different climates within different departments (or subsystems) in the organisation, and these sub-climates will be integrated in the similar fashion of integrating attitudes of employees, so as to form the organisational climate. In organisations, there may be differences in climates in different work units, as we commonly observe. It is because one type of climate may be suitable to one particular unit and the same may be unsuitable for another unit. It has been pointed out by Hellreigel and Slocum that an effective climate in a simple and static environment may prove to be dysfunctional in a dynamic and complex environment. At the same time it should be noted that the climates of different organisational subsystems are seldom radically different. Therefore, instead of taking a fragmented view of climate in a particular subsystem, the total system may be more meaningful to study and analyse.

19.4 FACTORS AFFECTING ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE :

In every organisation there exist certain elements that exert profound influence on the existing climate. In some organisations certain factors like structure, or process plays a major role, whereas in others the level of technology may be the major influential factor in climate. Lawrance James and Allan Jones have tried to identify the factors influencing climate and the grouped these factors under five heads :

- (i) Organisational context.
- (ii) Organisational structure.
- (iii) Process
- (iv) Physical environment.
- (v) System values and norms.

19.4.1 ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT :

The first and foremost influential factor that affects the climate is the management philosophy. If the company is wedded to such a policy that it effectively utilises its resources both human as well as non-human, then it can be concluded that the climate is good. The manpower philosophy is generally expressed by rules, regulations and policies etc. The point here is that the reactions of the employees and the degrees to which they welcome and accept the managerial philosophy is very crucial to the development of sound and favourable organisational climate. The climate is said to be highly favourable when the existing management techniques are such that employees goals are perfectly matched to the ideals of organisation.

19.4.2 STRUCTURE :

Structure of the organisation represents another variable that affects climate. It needs no reiteration that structure is a framework that establishes formal relationships and delineate authority and functional responsibility. Further, the actual arrangement of hierarchy is also to be considered, for it affects climate. Highly decentralised structure results in sound climate when the management feels the necessity of high degree of employee input in the total output. In other words, a management that has a strong belief in participative decision-making will promote decentralisation. In a sharp contrast, if the management feels the necessity of maintaining greater degree of consistency in operations regarding decision-making it will be wedded to centralised structure. Thus structure also affects the climate of organisation.

19.4.3 PROCESS :

In every organisation certain processes are vital so that it runs. Communication, decision-making, motivation and leadership are some of the very important processes through which the management carries out its objectives. In all these processes, the relationship between superior and subordinate is visible and therefore the supervisor cannot afford to ignore this visible interface. For instance, if we consider leader-follower relationship in leadership process, it is the leader's choice whether to allow subordinates in decision-making, give assignments, does performance appraisals etc. A leader has to be aware of the possible influence of his actions on the climate when deciding about the most appropriate supervisory technique for a given situation. It should be noted that failure to give consideration to the affect on climate would be monumental error that could be reflected adversely on the performance of employees. Further more, when a leader mismatches his style to the situation it might abort any hope of attaining organisational objectives.

19.4.4 PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT :

The external conditions of environment, the size and location of the building in which an employee works, the size of the city, weather or the place-all affect the organisational climate. An employee performing his job in a relatively clean, quiet and safe environment will undoubtedly have a favourable perception of the organisational climate. Office decor, size and space a person has in doing the work are the important factors to be borne in mind, for these affect the climate. Noise has also been considered instrumental in influencing the climate of organisations. High levels of noise brings a bad feeling and leads to frustration, nervousness and aggression and will have a negative effect upon organisational climate. Loud, intermittent noise converts an organisation into a market place.

19.4.5 SYSTEM VALUES AND NORMS :

Every organisation has discernible and fairly evident formal value system where certain kinds of behaviours are rewarded and encouraged and certain kinds of behaviour forces an individual to formal sanctions. The formal value system is communicated to employees through rules, regulations and policies. Although in every organisation informal organisation also exists, the value system of informal organisation is very difficult to ascertain. But from the point of view of organisational climate, both formal and informal groups are very powerful in exerting influence on climate. For instance, the organisation that treats employees with respect to understanding will have certainly a different climate then one which is very cold and impersonal.

19.5 MEASUREMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE :

Trying to measure organisational climate is an attempt to capture the essence, environment, order, and pattern of an organisation or a submit. There are many questionnaires designed to measure climate. These structured survey questionnaire, containing usually fewer than twenty five items (questions), are given to employees to respond. Usually the questions are answered on some form of scale which may vary from one point to six points or from one to ten point scale. The numerical scale is normally accompanied by certain descriptive terms for each point on the scale. An example of the type of questions and the scale that might be used is presented as under :

Example of two questionnaire items designed to measure the "risk" property of organisational climate.

- Decision-making in this organisation is too cautious for maximum effectiveness:

Definitely Disagree	Inclined to Disagree	Neutral	Inclined to Agree	Definitely Agree
1	2	3	4	5

- You won't get ahead in this organisation unless you stick your neck out and take a change now and then.

Definitely Disagree	Inclined to Disagree	Neutral	Inclined to Agree	Definitely Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Almost all questionnaires use slightly different terminology but all are very closely related in terms of "concept" and "dimensions". Generally, the dimensions studied will be the confirmity, responsibility standards, rewards, organisational clarity, warmth and support, and leadership. it is possible that organisation may have than one climate. For instance, if perceptions are measured

then different groups may have different perceptions. Johnston in his research found two climates in a study of professionals in a small consulting firm. He noticed that long term employees deemed the climate flexible, supportive, non-authoritarian, concerned with integrating individual with organisational goals, and generally organise, adaptive in its environment. Whereas, newer employees saw as rigid, procedural, strongly based on hierarchy, and authority more impersonal, and emphasising organisational goals. In some other studies it has been found that climates also can differ with respect to hierarchy and to the degree of environmental uncertainty.

Though the rigor of research varies significantly among different studies of organisational climate, there is enough evidence to warrant practical interest in the application of the concept to organisations.

19.6 CHANGING ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE :

Can organisational climate be changed? The answer is positively yes. While fundamental changes in organisation climate re easily or immediately made, research evidence demonstrates the fact that change in climate is possible and has occurred. In one study by McClelland and Burnham it has been found that by making the managers aware of the climate they had created, significant changes in climate that can be successfully accomplished at group level.

The pertinent question is when to change climate? If in the view of top management the effectiveness of the organisation can be improved by an alteration in the climate, steps will be definitely taken to bring about the desired change. Sometimes when there is something wrong with the existing climate, a change in climate is called for. For instance, in one study by Robert Rock it has been found that to overcome serious problems at International Harvester a change in climate was suggested in terms of change in structure, design, planning system, management development and reward systems. The changes were implemented and follow up studies indicated definite improvements in some areas with problems remaining in some other areas. Thus, changes in climate are possible but they are gradual rather than overnight occurrence. Since climate in the manifestation of the attitudes of organisational members it certainly takes some time - (i) to change the managerial philosophy, (ii) change the rules regulations and procedure, and (iii) to observe the reaction of human resources to change.

19.7 SUMMARY :

A sound organisational climate is essential for the achievement of organisational goals. Organisational climate is normally associated with job performance, job satisfaction and morale of the employees. Organisational climate is defined as "A relatively enduring quality of the internal environment that is experienced by its members, influences their behaviour and can be described in terms of values of a particular set of characteristics of the organisation." Organisational climate should be viewed from total system point of view. The factors that affective organisational climate are (1) Organisational context, (2) Organisational structure, (3) Process, (4) Physical environment and (5) System values and norms. Organisational climate can be measured by five point scale ranging from definitely disagree to definitely agree. Organisational climate can also be changed. Robert Rocks has been found that to overcome serious problems at International Harvester a change in climate was suggested in terms of change in structure, design, planning system, management development and reward systems.

19.8S MODEL QUESTIONS :

1. Explain the concept of organisational climate.

2. Narrate several definitions of organisational climate.
3. What are the factors affecting organisational climate ?
4. How organisational climate can be changed ?

19.7 SUGGESTED READINGS :

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