ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
UNIT – I

ORGANIZATION:

Definition :

According to, Louis Allen, "Organization is the process of identifying and grouping work to be performed, defining and delegating responsibility and authority and establishing relationships for the purpose of enabling people to work most effectively together in accomplishing objectives."

➢ **Organization -** When two or more individual are interacting with each other within a deliberately structured set up and working in an independent way to achieve goals and objective or Organization is an institution.

➢ **Behavior** - Behavior is a way how people react to certain situation.

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR:

Meaning : Organizational behavior can be defined as it is an interdisciplinary subject which covers the study of workers or employees related behavior inside a organization.

Definition :

✓ According to Keith Davis quoted as "Organizational Behavior is the study and application of knowledge about how people act within organization."

✓ Fred Luthans "Organisationalbehaviour is directly concerned with the understanding, production and control of human behaviour in organisations."

NATURE AND SCOPE (FEATURES) OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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

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

2. **An Interdisciplinary Approach**

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

3. **An Applied Science**

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

4. **A Normative Science**

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

by individuals and society engaged in an organization. Yes, it is not that O.B. is not normative at all. In fact, O.B. is normative as well that is well underscored by the proliferation of management theories.

5. **A Humanistic and Optimistic Approach**

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

6. **A Total System Approach**

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

SCOPE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The three internal organizational elements viz., people, technology and structure and the fourth element, i.e., external social systems may be taken as the scope of O.B.

1. **People**

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

2. **Structure**

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

3. **Technology**

    Technology imparts the physical and economic conditions within which people work. With their bare hands people can do nothing so they are given assistance of buildings, machines, tools, processes and resources. The nature of technology depends very much on the nature of the

organization and influences the work or working conditions. Thus, technology brings effectiveness and at the same restricts people in various ways.

4. **Social System**

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

O.B. is the study of human behaviour at work in organizations. Accordingly, the scope of O.B. includes the study of individuals, groups and organization/structure. Let us briefly reflect on what aspects each of these three cover.

Individuals

Organizations are the associations of individuals. Individuals differ in many respects. The study of individuals, therefore, includes aspects such as personality, perception, attitudes, values, job satisfaction, learning and motivation.

Groups of Individuals

Groups include aspects such as group dynamics, group conflicts, communication, leadership, power and politics and the like.

CONTRIBUTING DISCIPLINES TO THE ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR FIELD

Organizational behavior is an applied behavioral science that is built upon contributions from a number of behavioral disciplines. The predominant areas are psychology, sociology, social psychology, anthropology and political science.

Psychology

Psychology is the science that seeks to measure, explain and sometimes change the behavior of humans and other animals. Valuable contributions are made by psychologists to the field of Organisationalbehaviour. Many of the theories dealing with personality, attitude, learning, motivation and stress have been applied in OrganisationalBehaviour to understand work related phenomena such as job satisfaction, commitment, absenteeism, turnover and worker well being. Understanding the psychological principles helps in gaining the knowledge of determinants of Individual behaviour such as learning process, motivation techniques, personality determinants and personality development, perceptual process and its implications, training process, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction , individual decision making , performance appraisal, attitude measurement, employee selection, job design and work stress.

Sociology

Sociologists study the social system in which individuals fill their roles; that is, sociology studies people in relation to their fellow human beings. Sociologists studying the structure and function of small groups within a society have contributed greatly to a more complete understanding of behaviour within organisations. They focus on studying the social systems in which individual fill their roles. The focus of attention is centred on group dynamics. Sociologists concepts, theories, models and techniques help

significantly to understand better the group dynamics, organisational culture, formal organisation theory and structure, organisational technology, bureaucracy, communications , power, conflict and inter-group behaviour.

Social Psychology

An area within psychology that blends concepts from psychology and sociology and that focuses on the influence of people on one another.Social psychologists contribute to measuring, understanding and changing attitudes ; identifying communication patterns ; and building trust. They have also made important contributions to the study of group behaviour, power and conflict.

Anthropology

The study of societies to learn about human beings and their activities.Anthropologists work on cultures and environments has helped to understand the differences in fundamental values, attitudes and behaviour between peoplein different countries and within different organisations.Much of the current understanding of organisational culture, organisational environments and differences among national cultures is a result of the work of anthropologists or those using their methods.

Political Sciences

Contributions of political scientist are significant to the understanding of behavior in organizations. Political scientists study the behavior of individuals and groups within a political environment.They contribute to understanding the dynamics of power centers, structuring of conflict and conflict resolutions tactics, allocation of power and how people manipulate power for individual self-interest.

In a business field, organizations wanted to attain supremacy in their field and indulge in politicking activities to gain maximum advantages by following certain tasks like Machiavellianism, coalition formation, malpractices, etc.The knowledge of political science can be utilized in the study the behavior of employees, executives at micro as well as macro level.

LEVELS OF ANALYSIS IN OB:

Individual Level :

Individual Level In individual level, organizational behavior involves the study of learning, perception, creativity, motivation, personality, turnover, task performance, cooperative behavior , deviant behavior , ethics, and cognition. At this level of analysis, organizational behavior draws heavily upon psychology, engineering, and medicine. A study of organizational behavior at the individual level of analysis might focus on the impact of different types of overhead lighting on such factors as productivity and absenteeism.

Group Level :

Group Level At the group level of analysis, organizational behavior involves the study of group dynamics, intra- and inter group conflict and cohesion, leadership, power, norms, interpersonal communication, networks, and roles. At this level of analysis, organizational behavior draws upon the sociological and socio-psychological sciences A study of how different personality types correspond to different leadership styles and levels of results operates at the group level of analysis.

Organizational Level :

Organizational Level At the organization level of analysis, organizational behavior involves the study of topics, such as, organizational culture, organizational structure, cultural diversity, inter-organizational cooperation and conflict, change, technology, and external environmental forces. At this level of analysis, organizational behavior draws upon anthropology and political science. The study on organizational cultures, by William Ouchi's classic Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge (1981) is example of organizational behavior conducted at the organization level of analysis.

MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

The five models of organisationalbehaviour are the:

- autocratic model,
- custodial model,
- supportive model,
- collegial model and
- system model.

Autocratic model

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

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

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

Custodial model

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

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

Supportive model

Unlike the two earlier approaches, the supportive model is focused around aspiring leadership. It is not based upon control and authority (the autocratic model) or upon incentives (the custodial model), but instead tries to motivate staff through the manager-employee relationship and how employees are treated on a day-to-day basis.

Quite opposite to the autocratic model, this approach states that employees are self-motivated and have value and insight to contribute to the organisation, beyond just their day-to-day role.The intent of this model is to motivate employees through a positive workplace where their ideas are encouraged and often adapted. Therefore, the employees have some form of "buy-in" to the organisation and its direction.

Collegial model

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

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

System model

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

The intent of the system model is to try and balance the goals of the individual with the goals of the organisation. Individuals obviously want good remuneration, job security, but also want to work in a positive work environment where the organisation adds value to the community and/or its customers.

The system of model should be an overall partnership of managers and employees with a common goal, and where everybody feels that they have a stake in the organisation.

	Autocratic	Custodial	Supportive	Collegial
Basis of Model	Power	Economic sources	Leadership	Partnership
Managerial orientation	Authority	Money	Support	Teamwork
Employee orientation	Obedience	Security and benefits	Job performance	Responsible behaviour
Employee Psychological result	Dependence on boss	Dependence on organization	Participation	Self-discipline
Employee needs met	Subsistence	Security	Status and recognition	Self-actualization
Performance result	Minimum	Passive co-operation	Awakened drives	Moderate enthusiasm

APPROACHES TO ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

There are four approaches to Organizational Behavior

Approaches to Organizational Behavior Studies

Human Resources Approach

Contingency Approach

Productivity Approach

Systems Approach

iEduNote.com

1. Human resources approach.
2. Contingency approach.
3. Productivity approach.
4. Systems approach.

And one more approach to study organizational behavior is Interdisciplinary Approach.

Human Resources Approach

This approach recognizes the fact that people are the central resource in any organization and that they should be developed towards higher levels of competency, creativity, and fulfillment.
People thus contribute to the success of the organization.

`   The human resources approach is also called as the supportive approach in the sense that the manager's role changes from control of employee to active support of their growth and performance.

The supportive approach contrasts with the traditional management approach.

In the traditional approach, managers decided what employees should do and closely monitored their performance to ensure task accomplishment.

In the human resources approach, the role of managers changes from structuring and controlling to supporting.

Contingency Approach

The contingency approach (sometimes called the situational approach) is based on the premise that methods or behaviors which work effectively in One situation fail in another.

For example; Organization Development (OD) programs, way work brilliantly in one situation but fail miserably in another situation.

Results differ because situations differ, the manager's task, therefore, is to identify which method will, in a particular situation, under particular circumstances, and at a particular time, best contribute to the attainment of organization's goals.

The strength of the contingency approach lies in the fact it encourages analysis of each situation prior to action while at the same time discourages the habitual practice of universal assumptions about methods and people.

The contingency approach is also more interdisciplinary, more system – oriented and more research-oriented titan any other approach.

Productivity Approach

Productivity which is the ratio of output to input is a measure of an organization's effectiveness. It also reveals the manager's efficiency in optimizing resource utilization.

The higher the numerical value of this ratio, the greater the efficiency.

Productivity is generally measured in terms of economic inputs and outputs, but human and social inputs and outputs also are important.

For example, if better organizational behavior can improve job satisfaction, a human output or benefit occurs.

In the same manner, when employee development programs lead to better citizens in a community, a valuable social output occurs.

Organizational behavior decisions typically involve human, social, and/or economic issues, and so productivity usually a significant part of these decisions is recognized and discusses extensively in the literature on OB.

Systems Approach

The Systems Approach to OB views the organization as a united, purposeful system composed of interrelated parts.

This approach gives managers a way of looking at the organization as a whole, whole, person, whole group, and the whole social system.

In so doing, the systems approach tells us that the activity of any segment of an organization affects, in varying degrees the activity of every other segment. A systems view should be the concern of every person in an organization.

The clerk at a service counter, the machinist, and the manager all work with the people and thereby influence the behavioral quality of life in an organization and its inputs.

Managers, however, tend to have a larger responsibility, because they are the ones who make the majority are people oriented.

The role of managers, then, is to use organizational behavior to help build an organizational culture in which talents are utilized and further developed, people are motivated, teams become productive, organizations achieve their goals and society reaps the reward.

Inter-Disciplinary Approach

Organizational behavior is an integration of all other social sciences and disciplines such as psychology, sociology, organizational theories etc.

They all are interdependent and influence each other. The man is studied as a whole and therefore, all disciplines concerning man are integrated.

HAWTHORNE EXPERIMENTS

The Hawthorne studies were conducted on workers at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company by Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger in the 1920s. The Hawthorne studies were part of a refocus on managerial strategy incorporating the socio-psychological aspects of human behavior in organizations.

The studies originally looked into whether workers were more responsive and worked more efficiently under certain environmental conditions, such as improved lighting. The results were surprising: Mayo and Roethlisberger found that workers were more responsive to social factors—such as the people they worked with on a team and the amount of interest their manager had in their work— than the factors (lighting, etc.) the researchers had gone in to inspect.

The Hawthorne studies discovered that workers were highly responsive to additional attention from their managers and the feeling that their managers actually cared about, and were interested in, their work. The studies also found that although financial motives are important, social issues are equally important factors in worker productivity.

Definition of hawthorne studies

F.W. Taylor through his experiments increased production by rationalizing it. Elton Mayo and his followers sought to increase production by humanizing it through behavioural experiments popularly known as Hawthorne Experiments/Studies. The fact remains that an exposure to the study of organizational behaviour will remain incomplete without a mention of Hawthorne studies/experiments.

In November 1924, a team of researcher-professors from the renowned Harward Business School of the U.S.A. began investigating into the human aspects of work and working condition at the Hawthrone plant of Western Electric Company, Chicago. The company was producing bells and other electric equipments for telephone industry. Prominent professors included in the research team were Elton Mayo (Psychologist), Roethlisberger and Whilehead (Sociologists) and William Dickson (company representative). The team conducted four separate experimental and behavioural studies over a seven-year period. These were:

1. Illumination Experiments (1924-27) to find out the effect of illumination on worker productivity.

2. **Relay Assembly Test Room Experiments** (1927-28) to find out the effects of changes in number of work hours and related working conditions on worker productivity.

2. Experiments in Interviewing Workers (1928-30) to find out workers attitudes and sentiments towards work.

3. Bank Wiring Room Experiments (1931-32) to find out social system of an organization. More details on each of these four experiments follow:

Part I - Illumination Experiments (1924-27)

These experiments were performed to find out the effect of different levels of illumination (lighting) on productivity of labour. The brightness of the light was increased and decreased to find out the effect on the productivity of the test group. Surprisingly, the productivity increased even when the level of illumination was decreased. It was concluded that factors other than light were also important.

Part II - Relay Assembly Test Room Study (1927-1929)

Under these test two small groups of six female telephone relay assemblers were selected. Each group was kept in separate rooms. From time to time, changes were made in working hours, rest periods, lunch breaks, etc. They were allowed to choose their own rest periods and to give suggestions. Output increased in both the control rooms. It was concluded that social relationship among workers, participation in decision-making, etc. had a greater effect on productivity than working conditions.

Part III - Mass Interviewing Programme (1928-1930)

21,000 employees were interviewed over a period of three years to find out reasons for increased productivity. It was concluded that productivity can be increased if workers are allowed to talk freely about matters that are important to them.

Part IV - Bank Wiring Observation Room Experiment (1932)

A group of 14 male workers in the bank wiring room were placed under observation for six months. A worker's pay depended on the performance of the group as a whole. The researchers thought that the efficient workers would put pressure on the less efficient workers to complete the work. However, it was found that the group established its own standards of output, and social pressure was used to achieve the standards of output.

Conclusions of Hawthorne Studies / Experiments

The conclusions derived from the Hawthorne Studies were as follows:-

1. The social and psychological factors are responsible for workers' productivity and job satisfaction. Only good physical working conditions are not enough to increase productivity.
2. The informal relations among workers influence the workers' behaviour and performance more than the formal relations in the organisation.
3. Employees will perform better if they are allowed to participate in decision-making affecting their interests.
4. Employees will also work more efficiently, when they believe that the management is interested in their welfare.
5. When employees are treated with respect and dignity, their performance will improve.
6. Financial incentives alone cannot increase the performance. Social and Psychological needs must also be satisfied in order to increase productivity.

7. Good communication between the superiors and subordinates can improve the relations and the productivity of the subordinates.

8. Special attention and freedom to express their views will improve the performance of the workers.

Criticism of Hawthorne Studies / Experiments

The Hawthorne Experiments are mainly criticised on the following grounds:-

1. **Lacks Validity:**The Hawthorne experiments were conducted under controlled situations. These findings will not work in real setting. The workers under observation knew about the experiments. Therefore, they may have improved their performance only for the experiments.

2. **More Importance to Human Aspects:**The Hawthorne experiments gives too much importance to human aspects. Human aspects alone cannot improve production. Production also depends on technological and other factors.

3. **More Emphasis on Group Decision-making:**The Hawthorne experiments placed too much emphasis on group decision-making. In real situation, individual decision-making cannot be totally neglected especially when quick decisions are required and there is no time to consult others.

4. **Over Importance to Freedom of Workers:**The Hawthorne experiments gives a lot of importance to freedom of the workers. It does not give importance to the constructive role of the supervisors. In reality too much of freedom to the workers can lower down their performance or productivity.

<div align="center">

Unit – II
PERCEPTION
</div>

MEANING OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

•Individual behaviour means some concrete action by a person.

•It means how an individual behaves, reacts or responds in a given environment.

•The behaviour of an individual is influenced by various factors.

•Individual behaviour is the function of person, environment and organization

FOUNDATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR

Managers need to know individual behavior (actions) in the context of an organization. Four of the utmost important elements of individual behavior are: biographical characteristics, ability,personality,andlearning.

BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS:

Out of many physical or personal characteristics, some are especially significant and can be traced from employees' curriculum vitae (CVs) and personal records.

AGE:

Age of an employee has a significant impact and performance. It is envisaged that younger people are more energetic, skilful and talented than older people. The belief is true but this is not always true because in many cases, older people are highly skilled, regularly updating their skills, well-experienced, persistent, and even physically and mentally fit.

SEX/ GENDER:

Do males perform better than females? The research reveals, no. Females do not perform less then males, if they are equally trained or having similar capabilities.

MARTIAL STATUS:

The scientific studies undercover that married people are more responsible, persistent in nature and undergo less absence and turnover and are more satisfied from their jobs because marriages cause them to accept new responsibilities.

NUMBER OF DEPENDANTS:

The greater the children or other dependents a person has, the lesser is the concentration on work. It has been observed in most cases, that many times, employees especially females with huge children or other persons, such as relatives as dependants make leaves to take care of the schooling and hospitalization needs of their dependants.

TENURE:

Switching jobs or companies is not a big deal/ problem, rather it may be a result of serious need to leave a problematic company or to avail a better opportunity. But the persons that show greater stay (of years) on a job show their persistent nature and an indication of their satisfactory performance.

ABILITY

Ability is the capacity to perform a work or action. A lawyer has the ability to defend legal suits in the court. A swimmer has the ability to swim in the oceans.

PERSONALITY

Personality is a set of distinct characteristics of an individual. Some people tend to be emotional, others intellectual, bold or timid, hesitant or confident, reserved or social, etc. Personality is shaped from heredity and culture and environment, which lead to personality traits.

LEARNING

Learning is defined as many permanent change in behavior as a result of observation and experience. The student who learns their courses and soon after exams, forget the courses is not learning. From OB point of view, learning is permanent and it changes behavior. For example, a typist can type fifty words a minute, after training, he can type eighty five words a minute, is learning. Some of the theories of learning are depicted below:

FACTORS INFLUENCING INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR

The way an individual addresses a situation single-handedly or say in a group is influenced by many factors. The key factors influencing an individual's attitude in personal as well as social life are

- Abilities
- Gender
- Race and culture
- Attribution
- Perception
- Attitude

PERCEPTION - Meaning:

- Perception is an intellectual process of transforming sensory stimuli to meaningful information. It is the process of interpreting something that we see or hear in our mind and use it later to judge and give a verdict on a situation, person, group etc.
- Perception means perceiving, i.e., giving meaning to the environment around us. It can be defined as a process which involves seeing, receiving, selecting, organising, interpreting and giving meaning to the environment.

Definition

"Perception may be defined as a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment."

According to Joseph Reitz, "Perception includes all those processes by which an individual receives information about his environment—seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling. The study of these perpetual processes shows that their functioning is affected by three classes of variables—the objects or events being perceived, the environment in which perception occurs and the individual doing the perceiving."

It can be divided into six types −

- **Of sound** − The ability to receive sound by identifying vibrations.
- **Of speech** − The competence of interpreting and understanding the sounds of language heard.
- **Touch** − Identifying objects through patterns of its surface by touching it.
- **Taste** − The ability to receive flavor of substances by tasting it through sensory organs known as taste buds.
- **Other senses** − They approve perception through body, like balance, acceleration, pain, time, sensation felt in throat and lungs etc.
- **Of the social world** − It permits people to understand other individuals and groups of their social world. **Example** − Priya goes to a restaurant and likes their customer service, so she will perceive that it is a good place to hang out and will recommend it to her friends, who may or may not like it. Priya's perception about the restaurant is good.

PERCEPTUAL PROCESS
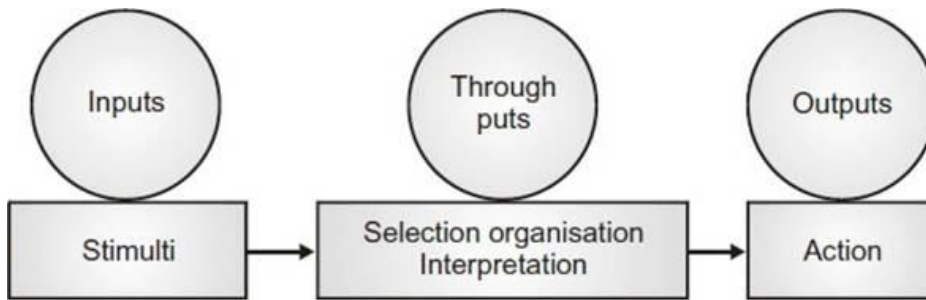
Perceptual process are the different stages of perception we go through. The different stages are

- Receiving
- Selecting
- Organizing
- Interpreting

Receiving

Receiving is the first and most important stage in the process of perception. It is the initial stage in which a person collects all information and receives the information through the sense organs.

Selecting

Selecting is the second stage in the process. Here a person doesn't receive the data randomly but selectively. A person selects some information out of all in accordance with his interest or needs. The selection of data is dominated by various external and internal factors.

- **External factors** − The factors that influence the perception of an individual externally are intensity, size, contrast, movement, repetition, familiarity, and novelty.
- **Internal factors** − The factors that influence the perception of an individual internally are psychological requirements, learning, background, experience, self-acceptance, and interest.

Organizing

Keeping things in order or say in a synchronized way is organizing. In order to make sense of the data received, it is important to organize them.

We can organize the data by −

- Grouping them on the basis of their similarity, proximity, closure, continuity.
- Establishing a figure ground is the basic process in perception. Here by figure we mean what is kept as main focus and by ground we mean background stimuli, which are not given attention.
- Perceptual constancy that is the tendency to stabilize perception so that contextual changes don't affect them.

Interpreting

Finally, we have the process of interpreting which means forming an idea about a particular object depending upon the need or interest. Interpretation means that the information

we have sensed and organized, is finally given a meaning by turning it into something that can be categorized. It includes stereotyping, halo effect etc..

FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

EXTERNAL FACTORS:
1. Size: Bigger size attracts the attention of the perceiver

2. Intensity:A loud sound, strong odor or bright light is noticed more as compared to a soft sound, weak odour or dimlight.

3. Repetition:A repeated external stimulus is more attention getting than a single one. Advertisers use this principle.

4. Novelty and Familiarity:A novel or a familiar external situation can serve as attention getter.

5. Contrast: It is a kind of uniqueness which can be used for attention getting. Letters of bold types, persons dressed differently than others, etc., get more attention.

6. Motion:A moving object draws more attention as compared to a stationary object. Advertisers use this principle.

INTERNAL FACTORS
Self-concept: The way a person views the world depends a great deal on the concept or image he has about himself. The concept plays an internal role in perceptual selectivity.

Beliefs:A person's beliefs have profound influence on his perception. Thus, a fact is conceived not on what it is but what a person believes it to be.

Expectations: These affect what a person perceives. A technical manager may expect ignorance about the technical features of a product from non-technical people.

Inner Needs: The need is a feeling of tension or discomfort, when one thinks he is missing something. People with different needs experience different stimuli. According to Freud, wishful thinking is the means by which the Id attempts to achieve tension reduction.

DISTORTION IN PERCEPTION:
Distortion in perception results in creating communication gap. It is a serious barrier to communication and a reason for communication failure. H Joseph Reitz has rightly pointed out that "communication may fail because of the communicate perceptually ready to receive certain communication actually receives different communication.

1. Selective Perception:
People selectively interpret what they see based on their attitude, interest, background and experience. An individual might have been appointed on a key position on the day of the visit of CEO and the appointment may be incidental but we may perceive appointments as a consequence of CEO's visit. In an organization so many things keep happening but different people will perceive one fact differently based on individuals selectivity in perceiving which is generally based on his past experience

and attitude towards work. It is important that when we read others, we make a mistake reading with speed and putting seal of what has been selectively seen by a perceiver. For correct perception an individual must be observed, studied, tried and later perceived without an individual bias.

2. Halo Effect:

Halo effect refers to judging an individual based on single characteristics, such as intellectual ability, sociability and appearance. Sales Manager's visit to sales territory and consequent increase in sales volume may be attributed to the visit of the sales manager to a particular sales territory. Perceiver in this situation did not notice the cause of increased sales to probably higher demand, change in market forces, subordinate sales employees past efforts to woo customers to buy the product and host of other factors that go with increase in the sales volume. This type of perception is quite common in any organization, which is called halo effect in perceiving an individual or situation. A rater may rate a subordinate based on dominance of a single trait of the subordinate. The halo effect has been very frequently noticed in performance appraisal.

3. Projection:

You assume a person based on your own traits and not what he actually possesses. If you were hard working and dependable you would expect others to be so. If a person projects the above characteristics in his dealings he is rated high or perceived in a different way than what he actually is. It is commonly found that subordinates do or exhibit the same behaviour as desired by the boss. This phenomenon is called the 'projection', an error that is common in any organization.

4. Contrast Effect:

We do not evaluate a person in isolation. Our reaction to one person is relative to the other. During selection process, interviewer selects a particular person for a particular job not because he fulfils all requirements but he is generally selected in relation to the other candidates. Individual selected may be academically, skill wise, experience wise better than those not selected. So it is a comparative or contrast phenomenon of perception. We generally hear, people say that Mr. X presentation was good thereby meaning it was better in relation to other people who would have made presentations in a particular session.

5. Stereotyping:

In order to simplify matters, we often tend to classify people and events into already known categories. For example we generally perceive man as executive and woman as secretary even if the situation may be different. For police person, it is generally believed that they are generally tough and law abiding which may not be true. In our mind we have established certain categories with certain attributes. For example, category of teenagers would generally be independent, indiscipline and so on. In reality this may not be true. Similarly we attach positive attribute to judges, professors and doctors and negative attributes to school dropouts, addicts although they may not be really so.

LEARNING

Meaning and Definition

Learning is a key process in human behaviour. All living is learning. If we compare the simple, crude ways in which a child feels and behaves, with the complex modes of adult behaviour, his skills, habits, thought, sentiments and the like- we will know what difference learning has made to the individual.

- Learning is defined as "a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of prior experience."
- Learning is defined as "any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of practice and experience".

FEATURES OF LEARNING ORGANIZATION:

(1) Learning is a continuous process. Acquisition of knowledge from various sources continues. Knowledge can be acquired by employees as individuals, as groups and the organisation as a whole.

(2) It stimulates people to learn, to do their jobs excellently to obtain the sense of achievement.

(3) It encourages the employees to attain peak of proficiency through knowledge.

(4) It facilitates development of fresh organisational efficiencies at all times.

(5) It provides climate conducive to learning skills.

(6) It helps to increase ability to conceptualize, nurtures innovative patterns of learning and obtains feedback on progress.

(7) It develops competitive advantage through learning.

(8) It has a broad vision.

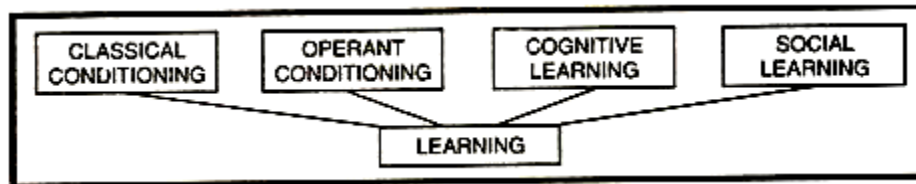(9) It makes use of TQM to guide decisions in learning.

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING:

(1) Learning needs a purposeful activity.

(2) Knowledge of results facilitates learning.

(3) Reinforcement principle helps in learning effectively to achieve improvement in performance.

(4) Problems can be solved through learning. Challenges stimulate learning.

(5) Competition stimulates learning.

(6) Logical and orderly teaching must for learning.

(7) Effective learning needs continuous evaluation.

(8) Transfer of application of knowledge stimulates learning.

(9) Appreciation and credit provide strong base for learning.

(10) Learning is a process so knowledge can be acquired gradually and the rate of learning can be plotted graphically. Learning curve reveals the pace of process of learning.

THEORIES OF LEARNING
1. Classical conditioning, 2. Operant conditioning, 3. Cognitive learning, and 4. Social learning.

```
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  │
│  │  CLASSICAL   │  │   OPERANT    │  │  COGNITIVE   │  │    SOCIAL    │  │
│  │ CONDITIONING │  │ CONDITIONING │  │   LEARNING   │  │   LEARNING   │  │
│  └──────────────┘  └──────────────┘  └──────────────┘  └──────────────┘  │
│                          ┌──────────────┐                               │
│                          │   LEARNING   │                               │
│                          └──────────────┘                               │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

1. Classical Conditioning:
Classical conditioning is the association of one event with another desired event resulting in a behaviour. The most well-known experiments on classical conditioning were conducted by Ivan Pavlov, the Russian psychologist, who won the Nobel Prize for his experiments on this subject. Pavlov conducted an experiment on dogs and tried to establish a Stimulus-Response (S-R) connection. He tried to relate the dog's salivation and the ringing of the bell. In his experiments, he put some meat in front of dogs.

```
1. BEFORE CONDITIONING
  ┌──────────────┐                      ┌──────────────┐
  │ UNCONDITIONED│                      │ UNCONDITIONED│
  │   STIMULUS   │  ─────────────────▶  │   RESPONSE   │
  │    (MEAT)    │                      │ (SALIVATION) │
  └──────────────┘                      └──────────────┘

  ┌──────────────┐                      ┌──────────────┐
  │  CONDITIONED │                      │              │
  │   STIMULUS   │  ─────────────────▶  │ NO RESPONSE  │
  │    (BELL)    │                      │              │
  └──────────────┘                      └──────────────┘

2. DURING CONDITIONING
  ┌──────────────┐
  │ UNCONDITIONED│
  │   STIMULUS   │ ─────┐
  │    (MEAT)    │      │                ┌──────────────┐
  └──────────────┘      │                │ UNCONDITIONED│
                        ├──────────────▶ │   RESPONSE   │
  ┌──────────────┐      │                │ (SALIVATION) │
  │  CONDITIONED │      │                └──────────────┘
  │   STIMULUS   │ ─────┘
  │    (BELL)    │
  └──────────────┘

3. AFTER CONDITIONING
  ┌──────────────┐                      ┌──────────────┐
  │  CONDITIONED │                      │  CONDITIONED │
  │   STIMULUS   │  ─────────────────▶  │   RESPONSE   │
  │    (BELL)    │                      │ (SALIVATION) │
  └──────────────┘                      └──────────────┘

            CLASSICAL CONDITIONING
```
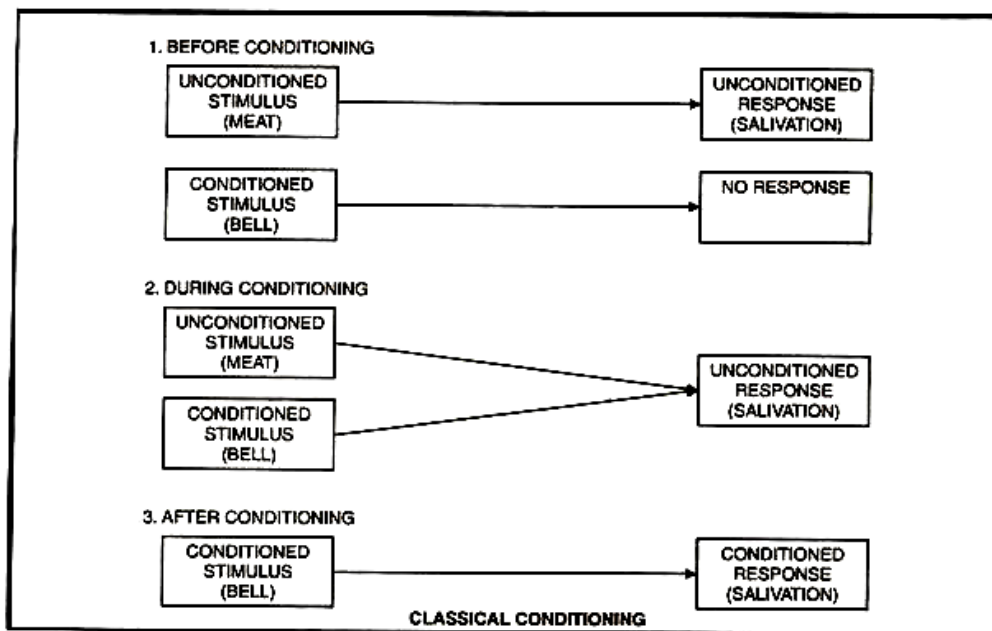
The dogs responded to this stimulus by salivating. This response was instinctive or unconditioned. Pavlov next began to ring a bell at the same time as the meat was presented. Ringing the bell in itself, without the presentation of meat, was not connected to any responses. But by ringing the bell at the same time as presentation of meat, Pavlov established a relationship between the two stimuli- the bell and the meat- in the mind of the dogs. By continuing this process, the ringing of bell alone was

sufficient stimulus to elicit a response of salivating, even when no meat was presented. Thus, the bell became a conditioned stimulus, resulting in conditioned or learned response.

The above diagram explains that the meat was an unconditioned stimulus. It caused the dog to react in a certain way i.e. noticeable increase in salivation. This reaction is called the unconditioned response. The bell was an artificial stimulus or conditioned stimulus. But when the bell was paired with the meat (an unconditioned stimulus), it eventually produced a response. After conditioning, the dog started salivating in response to the ringing of the bell alone. Thus, conditioned stimulus led to conditioned response.

2. Operant Conditioning:

Operant is defined as behaviour that produces effect. Operant conditioning is based on the work of B.F. Skinner who advocated that individuals emit responses that are rewarded and will not emit responses that are either not rewarded or are punished. Operant conditioning argues that behaviour is a function of its consequences. Behaviour is likely to be repeated if the consequences are favourable. Behaviour is not likely to be repeated if the consequences are unfavorable. Thus the relationship between behaviour and consequences is the essence of the operant conditioning.

Based upon this direct relationship between the consequences and the behaviour, the management can study and identify this relationship and try to modify and control behaviour. Hence, certain types of consequences can be used to increase the occurrence of a desired behaviour and other types of consequences can be used to decrease the occurrence of undesired behaviour.

3. Cognitive Learning:

The pioneer of cognitive learning theory is Edward Tolman. He developed and tested this theory through controlled experiments. Using rats in his laboratory, he showed that they learnt to run through a complicated maze towards their goal of food. It was observed that rats developed expectations at every choice point in the maze. Thus, they learnt to expect that certain cognitive cues related to the choice point could ultimately lead to food. The learning took place when the relationship between the cues and expectancy was strengthened because the cues led to expected goals.

The cognitive theory recognizes the role of an organism in receiving, memorizing, retrieving and interpreting the stimulus and reacting to it. The cognitive explanation of learning differs from classical conditioning (stimulus response learning) and operant conditioning (response stimulus learning). According to Tolman, cognitive approach could be termed as stimulus approach i.e. one stimulus leads to another.

Cognitive learning is achieved by thinking about the perceived relationship between events and individual goals and expectations. Cognitive theory of learning assumes that the organism learns the meaning of various objects and events and learned responses depend upon the meaning assigned to stimuli.

4. Social Learning:

Individuals can also learn by observing what happens to other people and just by being told about something, as well as by direct experiences. Much of what we have learned comes from observing and imitating models-parents, teachers, peers, superiors, film stars etc. This view that we can learn through both observation and direct experience has called social learning theory.

This theory assumes that learning is not a case of environmental determinism (classical and operant views) or of individual determinism (The cognitive view). Rather it is a blending of both. Thus, social learning theory emphasizes the interactive nature of cognitive, behavioural and environmental determinants.

a. Attention Process:
People learn from a model only when they recognize and pay attention to its critical features. We tend to be most influenced by models that are attractive, repeatedly available, important to us or similar to use in our estimation.

b. Retention Processes:
A model's influence will depend upon how well the individual remembers the model's action after the model is no longer readily available.

c. Motor Reproduction Processes:
After a person has seen a new behaviour by observing the model, the watching must be converted to doing. This process then demonstrates that the individual can perform the modelled activities.

d. Reinforcement Processes:
Individuals will be motivated to exhibit the modeled behaviour if positive incentives or rewards are provided. Behaviours that are positively reinforced will be given more attention, learned better and performed more often.
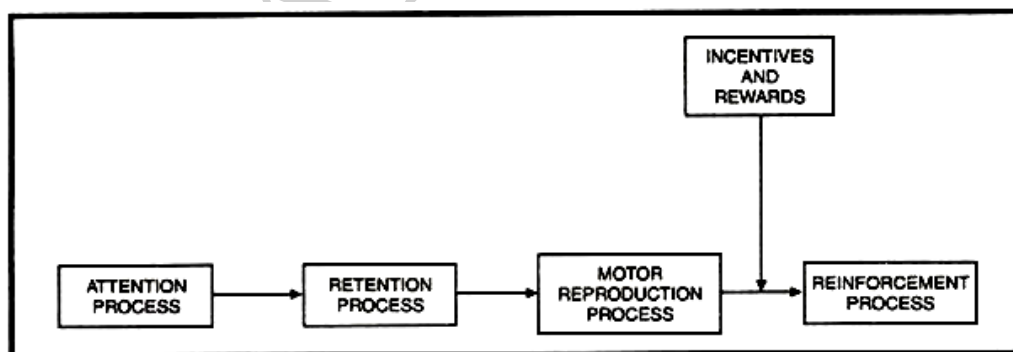
ATTITUDE
Definition: An attitude is a way of thinking or feeling about something, a certain state of mind at the time.
Meaning: Attitude denotes a functional state of readiness which determines the organism to react in a characteristics way to certain stimuli or stimulus situations.
There are said to be three components of an attitude, which can easily be remembered using 'ACB'. These three components are;

- **Affective Component** – feelings of an attitude – For example if a person is scared of spiders or dogs.
- **Behavioural Component** – Predispositions to act towards an attitude. – For example if the person scared of spiders sees one, they will react and scream.
- **Cognitive Component** – Thoughts about an attitude. – For example this is why they justify their actions against the spider, believing it to be dangerous in some way.

The main point about the ABC model is that we believe a person will be consistent with the attitudes towards things that they have. For example a person will always be scared when they see a spider. However, this is not always true, most people have the attitude that drinking excessively will be damaging to their health, yet despite this their behaviour around alcohol is to carry on drinking.

ATTITUDE IN THE WORKPLACE
Attitudes come into the workplace under four different headings, these are;
- **Work Situation** – Attitude towards the actual job; pay, co-workers, working conditions, etc. – This will influence how the culture is in the company, how people see the work situation will change their behaviours. If they believe they are not being paid enough, they may well act out behaviourally.
- **Personality** – The way someone attitude is in the first place. – Completely dependant on the actual employee and a reason why the hiring process can be such a big part of a business, to ensure that they hire the right personality, the right person whose attitudes and behaviours fit in with those already working in the organisation.
- **Values** – What comes out of the work? – The attitude towards the standard of work.
- **Social Influences** – What co-workers, managers etc. attitudes are like. – If fellow co-workers are lazy, then the attitude is likely to by 'well why I should work harder?' and this will cause the behaviour of not working hard enough just because others are.

TYPES OF ATTITUDE
There are three types of attitudes. These are job related attitudes. They are:

1. **Job Satisfaction**: It refers to individual's general attitudes towards his/her job. A person with high job satisfaction holds positive attitude about his job.

2. **Job Involvement**: It is the degree to which a person participates in his job and considers his involvement is important. People with high job involvement care about what kind of work they do.

3. **Organizational Commitment**: The degree to which an employee identifies with an organization and its goals and wishes to maintain the membership in the organization.

FUNCTIONS OF ATTITUDE:
Attitudes function as a source of motivation which helps in the adjustment to the environment. According to Katz (1960), four different personality functions are served by the maintenance and modifications of social attitudes. They are adjustment, value expression, knowledge and ego defence.

(i) Adjustment Function:

The holding of a particular attitude leads to reward or the avoidance of punishment. It is the utilitarian or instrumental function of attitude which motivates the person to adjust with the environment to gain social approval and support of family, friends and neighbours.

In case of certain social issues like marriage, death, democracy, religion, sacrifice and helping others, he holds opinions similar to his parents and relations and friends. Further favourable attitudes are developed towards those stimuli which satisfy one's needs and unfavourable attitudes towards those which stand on the fulfilment of his needs and motives.

(ii) Value Expression Function:

On the basis of identification with parents and other relatives the child develops certain personal values and self-concepts. These values are integrated in the form of different attitudes. Attitudes help in expressing these values. The individual gets satisfaction by expression of attitudes appropriate to his personal values.

Religious, ideological and patriotic beliefs and values normally are based on this function. People get self-satisfaction by engaging themselves in social work, care for the aged persons, by helping at the time of flood and famines, by taking care of the orphans or by raising their voice against corruption and social injustice.

(iii) Knowledge Function:

According to Mann this function of attitude is based on the need to understand, make sense and give adequate structure to the universe. Attitudes have a cognitive function in the sense that they help in understanding things properly for the sake of quick adjustment.

Attitudes which prove inadequate dealing with new and changing situations are discarded because, otherwise, they lead to contradictions and inconsistency. The need for cognitive consistency, meaning and clarity is fulfilled by the knowledge function of attitude.

(iv) Ego Defensive Function:

The ego defensive function of attitude provides protection against the knowledge and acceptance of basic unpleasant truths about disease, death, weakness, insecurity, frustration, unemployment, illness and various other harsh realities of life.

By rationalizing and distorting attitudes on the above harsh realities of life the ego tries to defend itself and lead a happy life by avoiding unpleasantness arising out of these unpleasant truths. All these facts lead to believe the tremendous significance of the functions of attitude in human life.

FACTORS INFLUENCING ATTITUTE

Among the various factors that influence the formation of attitudes are:

1. **Personal experience**. In order to be the basis of attitudes, personal experiences have left a strong impression. Therefore, the attitude will be more easily formed when personal experience involves emotional factors. In situations involving emotions, appreciation will be more in-depth experience and longer trace.

2. **Culture**. B.F. Skinner (in, Azwar 2005) emphasized the influence of the environment (including culture) in shaping one's personality. No other personality than a consistent pattern of behavior that illustrate the history of reinforcement (reinforcement, reward) owned. The pattern of

reinforcement from the public to the attitude and behavior, rather than to the attitudes and behavior of others.

3. **Other people are considered important**. In general, the individual being conformist or the direction of the attitude of the people it deems important. The trend is partly motivated by a desire for affiliation and the desire to avoid conflict with the people considered important.

4. **Media**. As a means of communication, the mass media such as television, radio, has a major influence in shaping people's opinions and beliefs. There is new information on something that provides the foundation for the emergence of new cognitive attitudes towards it. Suggestive messages that carry information, if strong enough, will provide basic affective in assessing something emepersiapkan and forming attitudes toward certain.

5. **Educational Institutions and Religious**. As a system, educational and religious institutions have a strong influence in shaping attitudes because they lay the foundation of understanding and moral concepts within the individual. Understanding the good and the bad, the dividing line between something that can and cannot do, is obtained from the center of the educational and religious activities and teachings.

6. **Emotional factors in themselves**. Not all forms of attitude is determined by environmental circumstances and personal experiences. Sometimes, a form of attitude is a statement that is based on emotion which serves as a sort of channeling frustration or transfer form ego defense mechanisms. Such an attitude is temporary and goes away so frustrating was lost but could also be more persistent attitude and more durable. Example form attitudes based on emotional factors are prejudice.

<div align="center">

Unit – III

</div>

PERSONALITY

Meaning: The word personality is derived from a Greek word "persona" which means "to speak through." It is the combination of an individual thoughts, characteristics, behaviors, attitude, idea and habits.

DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY

- Macionis define as "It is the constant pattern of thinking, feeling and acting."
- Ogburn and Nimkoff define it as the totality of sentiments, attitudes, idea, habits, skills and behaviors of an individual."

TYPES OF PERSONALITY

1. Extrovert Personality

This type has the tendency to live mostly outside the like to live with others. Those individuals are highly socialized and have contact with outside people in the society. They want to join other groups who are more in number. These type of people are drivers, excessive drinkers, smokers, robbers, thieves, wicked persons etc. The extrovert is a friendly person who is quick to establish relationships

with others. Extroverts are gregarious and display a high level of social engagement. They enjoy being with people and like to be in the company of large groups. Extroverts are active and tend to get involved in many activities. At the opposite end of the spectrum, people with low levels of extroversion feel a greater desire for privacy, avoid large group situations and generally live a more leisurely life.

2. Introvert Personality

Introvert is opposite to extrovert. Those people are always live alone in their rooms and do not want to go outside. They have their own imaginary world. They are teachers, scientists, thinkers and philosophers.

3. Ambivert Personality

Between extrovert and introvert personalities there is a third one type called ambivert. People belonging to this type enjoy both the groups and attend them. They have middle mind and want to live in both parties. Sometimes they join outside people but sometimes they live in their own rooms.

4. Agreeable Personality

The agreeable person can cooperate well with other people by putting aside personal needs while getting along with peers. These people trust others and rely on their integrity, character and abilities. Often the agreeable personality feels the need to help other people, and can derive fulfillment by offering support.

5. Conscientious Personality

Conscientious people exude confidence and feel capable of accomplishing goals. They may be overachievers who want to be viewed as successful.

6. Cautious Personality

Cautious people will look at problems from every angle before acting or making a decision, while those who are not cautious often act or speak before they think things through.

7. Self-Conscious Personality

Self-conscious people are highly sensitive to what others think and say about them. They dislike criticism and are sensitive to rejection, while those who are not all that self-conscious are not bothered by being judged by other people.

8. Adventurous Personality

People with an adventurous personality seek out new experiences and dislike routine. They may be unafraid to challenge authority and conventions, while those who are less adventurous may have traditional values and prefer security over adventurousness. Those with an adventurous personality enjoy having power and may be more amenable to taking risks.

Personality Development Tips

1. Should be a better listener
2. Good conversation
3. Be positive in outlook and attitude
4. More reading and building interest
5. Should be a good courteous
6. Interaction with new people
7. Helpful to other people
8. Give respect if you want respect
9. Confident about yourself

DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY

1. Heredity: Human behaviour is partly affected by heredity. The parent's qualities are passed on to the children through the molecular structure of genes located in the chromosomes. In our day to day life, so many times we use the term "Like father like son" as "Like Mother like daughter".

2. Environment: All personality traits are not determined by heredity. Environment also plays a very important role in the development of personality of a person. Environment comprises of culture, family, social and situational factors.

(a) **Culture:**Culture is sum total of learned believes, values and customs. Cultural factors determine now a person acts whether independently or dependently. Culture establishes norms, attitudes and values that are passed along from generation to generation.

(b) **Family:**Families influence the behaviour of a person especially in the early stages. The nature of such influence will depend upon the following factors:

(i) Socio-economic level of the family

(ii) Family size, (iii) Birth order, (iv) Race, (v) Religion

(vi) Parent's educational level and Geographic location.

(c) **Social:**Socialization is a process by which an infant acquires customary and acceptable behaviour. Social life has a considerable impact on the individual's behaviour. A man is known by the company he keeps. Social groups influence the behaviour of the individuals.

(d) **Situational:**Situational factors also play a very important role in determining the personality of a person. Life is a collection of experiences. Some of the events and experiences can serve as important determinants of his personality.

PERSONALITY THEORIES

TRAITS THEORY:

The traditional approach of understanding personality was to identify and describe personality in terms of traits. In other words, it viewed personality as revolving around attempts to identify and label permanent characteristics that describe an individual's behavior. Popular characteristics or traits include shyness, aggressiveness, submissiveness, laziness, ambition, loyalty, and timidity. This distinctiveness, when they are exhibited in a large number of situations, are called personality traits. The more consistent the characteristic and the more frequently it occurs in diverse situations, the more important that trait is in describing the individual.

FREUDIAN STAGES OR PSYCHOANALYTICAL THEORY:

Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytical theory of personality has been based primarily on his concept of unconscious nature of personality. It is based on the notion that man is motivated more by unseen forces than by conscious and rational thoughts. Freud noted that his patient's behaviour could not always be consciously explained. It was a clinical finding which led him to conclude that the major force which motivates a human being is his unconscious framework. This framework includes three conflicting psychoanalytic concepts the Id, the ego and the super ego.

Their brief description is as follows:

(i) The ID: ID is the foundation of the unconscious behaviour and is the base of libido drives. In simple words Id is the sources of psychic energy and seeks immediate satisfaction of biological or instinctual needs. These needs include sexual pleasure and other biological pleasures. Id has animalistic instincts of aggression, power and domination. It demands immediate pleasure at whatever cost. As an individual matures he learns to control the Id, but even then it remains a driving force throughout life and an important source of thinking and behaviour.

(ii) The EGO: The Ego is associated with the realities of life. Just as the Id is the unconscious part of human personality. Ego is the conscious and logical part because it is concerned about the realities of external environment. The ego of a person keeps the Id in check whenever it demands immediate pleasure. With its logic and intellect, ego controls the Id so that the pleasures unconsciously demanded by the human beings are granted at an appropriate time and place and in an appropriate manner.

(iii) The Super EGO: The Super Ego is the higher level force to restrain the Id and is described as the conscious of a person. The super ego represents the norms of the individual, his family and the society and is an ethical constraint on the behaviour. The conscious of a person is continuously telling him what is right and what is wrong. A person may not be aware of the working of the super ego, because conscious is developed by the cultural values inculcated in a person by the norms of society.

All these three elements are interred related. In order to create a normal personality, there must be a proper balance in the relationship among these forces. For example, if the super ego is overdeveloped, a man will become very impractical and irrational. He will feel guilty over trivial matters. Such a person cannot exist in the modern life.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a vital element of a successful business. In this lesson, we will look at exactly what EI is, how it shapes a workplace, and how managers and employees can learn to improve their EI skills.

Emotional Intelligence at Work

Successful companies are multi-dimensional. There are many factors that make a company stand out above the competition and perform well. One element is having management with good **emotional intelligence**, or EI for short.   It is sometimes called EQ, to contrast with IQ or intellectual skill.

EI is the ability to understand and facilitate emotion. Bosses with good EI skills know how to display the correct type of emotions to their employees. They treat their employees fairly and behave maturely and responsibly.

A manager with poor EI may be intelligent and have the technical skills for the job, but he or she often makes poor decisions because of difficulty regulating their emotions. Managers with emotional intelligence are compassionate, empathetic, and excellent motivators. They do not overreact to issues, and they are calm in the face of turmoil.

Management with good EI skills have an influence throughout their workplace. They attract employees who also have good emotional intelligence, who in turn interact well with each other, with customers, and with other businesses they have to deal with in the course of work.

Elements of Emotional Intelligence

Most thinkers on the subject note these factors:

- **Empathy**, the ability to note and respond to other people's motivations and needs
- **Self-awareness**, the recognition of one's own strengths and weaknesses
- **Self-regulation**, the ability to manage emotion and express it appropriately and usefully
- **Motivation**, being driven internally, rather than just working for a paycheck
- **People skills**, the ability to win others' respect and build rapport

These elements fall into one of two groupings, **interpersonal intelligence** (turned outward, interacting with others) and **intrapersonal intelligence** (turned inward, understanding and managing oneself).

GROUP DYNAMICS

Group dynamics deals with the attitudes and behavioral patterns of a group. Group dynamics concern how groups are formed, what is their structure and which processes are followed in their functioning. Thus, it is concerned with the interactions and forces operating between groups.Group dynamics is relevant to groups of all kinds – both formal and informal.

GROUP

Every organization is a group unto itself. A group refers to two or more people who share a common meaning and evaluation of themselves and come together to achieve common goals. In other words, a group is a collection of people who interact with one another; accept rights and obligations as members and who share a common identity.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GROUP:

Regardless of the size or the purpose, every group has similar characteristics:

(a) 2 or more persons (if it is one person, it is not a group)

(b) Formal social structure (the rules of the game are defined)

(c) Common fate (they will swim together)

(d) Common goals (the destiny is the same and emotionally connected)

(e) Face-to-face interaction (they will talk with each other)

(f) Interdependence (each one is complimentary to the other)

(g) Self-definition as group members (what one is who belongs to the group)

(h) Recognition by others (yes, you belong to the group).

TYPES OF GROUPS

There can be different types of groups that might exist, the most common way of distinguishing between groups is to categorizing the groups into formal or informal groups.

- ❖ **Formal groups** are deliberately created by the organization in order to help the organizational members achieve some of the important the organizational goals.
- ❖ **Informal groups**, in contrast, develop rather spontaneously among an organization's members without any direction from the organizational authorities.

There are various types of FORMAL GROUPS that are found in an organization. These are:

1. Command group which is determined by the organizational chart depicting the approved formal connections between individuals in an organization. Examples of command group are Director and the faculty members in a business school, school principal and teachers, production manager and supervisors, etc.

2. Task groups, comprising some individuals with special interest or expertise, are created by the organizational authorities to work together in order to complete a specific task. Task groups are often not restricted to the organizational hierarchy and can be cross functional in nature. Examples of task group might be people working on a particular project.

3. Standing committee is a permanent committee in an organization to deal with some specific types of problems that may arise more or less on a regular basis. Examples of standing committees include the standing committee in a university to discuss various academic and administrative issues.

4. Task force / ad hoc committee, in contrast, is a temporary committee formed by organizational members from across various functional areas for a special purpose. Meetings can also come under this category.

Various types of INFORMAL GROUPS are:

1. Interest groups are formed when a group of employees band together to seek some common objectives, like protesting some organizational policy or joining the union to achieve a higher amount of bonus.

2. Friendship groups develop among the organizational members when they share some common interest like participating in some sports activities or staging the office drama, etc.

3. Reference groups are the groups, with which individuals identify and compare themselves. These could be within the organization when a middle level executive compares himself with the higher level executive and longs for the perks and benefits enjoyed by the latter. The reference group might

exist outside the organization as well when an individual compares himself with his batch mates working in other organizations or an ideal group of people he likes to become.

GROUP COHESIVENESS

Cohesion can be more specifically defined as the tendency for a group to be in unity while working towards a goal or to satisfy the emotional needs of its members

Group cohesiveness can be defined as a group session where in which, group of people connects them with the help of similar interest and program. Moreover, it is a process where a group of people for a group or a team consider their similar interest and ability.

IMPORTANT FACTORS OF GROUP COHESIVENESS:

To understand the importance of group cohesiveness, one should well understand the group cohesiveness definition and cohesiveness meaning. Therefore, with this additional info about group cohesiveness one can have a better clarity on it.

1. Equal mindset:

As people join some group with a thinking that they can be a part of that particular group as they share a similar kind of interest, then they definitely should go ahead with their decision and join such team or a group.

2. Communication:

As it is explained earlier that communication between the team and its team members is very much necessary. If there is any sort of mis-communication between the team and its members, then it is quite clear to everyone that there will be all sorts of doubts between the team members.

3. Trust:

Sometimes trust holds all the main activity between people, whether it is a company, organization and the team. And that is why all the people who are in connection with the team or a group need to maintain a positive trust on their team and their decision. Therefore, it is very much necessary to understand all the factors of trust in the team and their decision and moreover handling all the facts relating to that.

ADVANTAGES OF GROUP COHESIVENESS:

All the factors and study elements relating to the group cohesive behavior is a cover up for all sorts of benefits of group cohesiveness. Therefore, these advantages or benefits can clear out all the fogs surrounded and can show a ray of sunshine.

1. Motivational elements:

As it is explained earlier that all the elements which help a person to join or to be part of the group are the motivational elements which can be bought from the members of the team and moreover these members can create some sort differentiation between their improvement and courage in terms of their motivating behavior.

2. Better cooperation:

If it is a group of members who share similar interest and attraction as compared to each other, then it is quite clear that all the things which can be delivered with the help of group cohesiveness behavior can definitely produce better cooperation between the team and their members. Therefore,

because of group cohesive behavior the group can embrace better cooperation with their rest of the team members.

3. Time saving:

A work or a task allotted to a group of persons instead of work allotted to an individual, can definitely approach a positive side of the work. For instance, when it comes to an individual person, then the person might take a little longer time to solve the issues, but when it comes to group of people, then the solution can be better and quicker as compared to the individual doing the work.

4. Improves communication:

As it is a task of a group or a team, then the team leader might be aware of all the consequences of work assigned to a person. And because of the group cohesiveness, the whole team can experience some sort of change in their communication levels. These communication levels create a difference in their personal and professional life as usual. Moreover, it also provides good confidence to all the members of the team.

DISADVANTAGES OF GROUP COHESIVENESS:

Most parts of the study material with the subject line group cohesiveness can clear all the doubts among its readers and with their team. Therefore, it is necessary to know more about the disadvantages of group cohesiveness, and then these disadvantages can help a group of people with all the growth and success of their daily work.

1. Low level of productivity:

Most of the time, working in a group cannot favor a company or an organization with the help of their own group, and that is because all the teams own their own thinking. And in this case of production a group cohesiveness brings it down to a low level because most of the team members available in the team are from the same field of work. Moreover, it is a fast moving generation and that is why it's necessary to understand the, low level of productivity among the team members.

2. Lack of creativity:

As most of the members of the team share a single and simple interest and eventually this type of similar interest can deliver same sort of results each and every time. Therefore, because of group cohesive behavior the company can lack behind with their creative elements. Moreover, all the elements in the group cohesiveness provide a lower level of creativity among their group or a team.

3. Lack of innovation:

It is quite similar to the topic that one can understand better. At most of the time people involved in a group can come up with a low level of innovation and that eventually lacks creativity in their field of work. Therefore, it is necessary to understand all the things within this group cohesiveness. Moreover, this creates a lack of innovation among their members.

4. Domination:

The domination can be experienced because of the team leaders of each and every group. Most of the type of group leader domination can never benefit the company, moreover, it can damage the unity of the group. Therefore, all the team leaders need to understand that if they need and want their team members work according to their direction, then they need to treat as equals in the group.

Finally the bottom line is that at the end of the discussion about group cohesiveness, a person can understand all the definition, factors, importance, advantages or benefits and disadvantages or cons of the study material stated above about group cohesiveness. Therefore, it is advisable to all the interested people that if anyone need to know more about the group cohesiveness, then they can follow and read all the above mentioned discussion and find all the answers to their questions.

UNIT III

Stress Management: Causes and Effects of Stress – Coping strategies for stress.

STRESS MANAGEMENT

MEANING

Modern life is full of stress. Stress on individuals ranges from personal day to day life to their organizational activities. Urbanization, individualization and increase in scale of operation in the society are causing increasing stresses

CONCEPT OF STRESS

Stress is defined as an adoptive response to an external factor that results in physical, psychological or behavioural deviations in an individual.

FEATURES OF STRESS MANAGEMENT

1. Stress may be in result in any kind of deviation – physical, psychological or behavioural in the person.
2. Stress may be result of individual's interaction with environment stimuli.
3. It is not necessary that stress is always dysfunctional.
4. Stress can be either temporary or long term, mild or severe, depending mostly on how long its causes continue, how powerful they are, and how strong the individual's powers are.

FORMS OF STRESS MANAGEMENT

The forms of stress, if temporary and mild, cannot be distressing. Once can recover from its easily. Many employees find stress merely superfluous but they suffer temporarily with such strenuous work. When an employee finds himself under a new and unknown situation with a different environment, he faces mild stress. He is unable to cope with the new situation. Conflicts take place and he became restless. When he becomes accustomed with the new situation and adjusts to it, the stress diminishes gradually. The forms of stress are mild, stiffer and chronic.

1. Milder form

The milder form of stress is visible in digestive problems, high blood pressure, nervousness and inability to relax and insomnia.

2. Stiffer form

If the stress is not prevented at the initial milder stage, it becomes the stiffer form.

3. Chronic form

Chronic worry, insomnia, frustration, instability and uncooperative attitude are developed if stress is not checked initially. If high intensity stress continues for an extended duration, problems arise. An individual suffering from high intensity stress cannot cope with problems, as the human body cannot rebuild its strength for a longer period. Stress is removed by the body as it has the capacity of homeostasis. Long stressed body weakens people psychologically. This is known as Burn – out.

♣ **Burnout:-**

Burnout is the result of rigorous stress over a period. It usually results in physical and mental fatigue. It arises due to either the excessive demands thrust upon an individual by himself / herself or his / his environment.   Stress occurs over short term and burnout is long term. Burnout is an impending danger and requires immediate attention. It is more critical where a person feels his /her inner resources are inadequate to meet demands burnout is related to the workplace where a person feels overworked, underpaid, unrecognized, and contused and ever changing technologies.

♣ **Trauma:-**

The most serious form of stress in "Trauma". It occurs in a hostile atmosphere wherein employees do not find adjusting easy with the continuous stress. The workplace contributes significantly in the development of trauma – the work strains, social reactions to jobs, acute insecurity at workplace and beyond. The increasing incidence of terrorism and extortion has caused trauma to highly placed employees. Any hazardous occupation creates trauma at work as well as after work. Post – traumatic stress disorder is equally disturbing. The workplace trauma is often visible in the form of harassment, wrongful termination, biased attitudes and discrimination. Many times, employees assume

responsibilities and find themselves in an emotional tailspin. Organizations witnessing the symptoms of trauma take serious steps to prevent its recurrence. Satisfaction, clarification and mutual help avoid trauma.

STAGES OF STRESS MANAGEMENT

There are three stages of Stress: Alarm, Resistance and Exhaustion.

♣ **Alarm**

The first stage of stress is alarm wherein the stress mobilizes the internal stress system. Many physiological and chemical reactions are observed during the alarm stage. Increased pituitary adrenaline secretions, increased respiration, heart trouble and high blood pressure are observed during the alarm stage. Many employees prevent themselves from becoming more stressed through physiological and psychological treatment.

♣ **Resistance**

If the alarm stage is not prevented, resistance develops. The body organs become resistant but it paves the ways for the development of other stressors. Nervousness and tension are increased making individuals unable to relax. Individuals develop conflicts, frustration and uneasiness. Illness and diseases attached with stress are developed under resistance. Apparently, individuals feel free from stress, but serious disease develops stealthily. It is essential to know the causes of stress and avoid them at the beginning stage.

♣ **Exhaustion**

Resistance or resistant stress creates exhaustion. The immunity of the body is reduced. Individual feel fatigue and inability. Exhaustion develops moodiness, negative emotions and helplessness. The impact of stress is visible in physics, psychology and the behaviour of the employees in an organization wherein stress has reached the state of exhaustion. Health and psychological depression reduces the effectiveness of employees. Consequently, the success of an organization is adversely affected. Stressed employees cannot contribute significantly. A large number of organizations have started stress education to prevent stress from negatively affecting the employees.

CAUSES OF STRESS MANAGEMENT

There may be numerous conditions in which people may feel stress conditions that tend to cause stress are called stressors. Although even a single stressor may cause major stress. Like death or near one usually stressors combine to an individual in variety or ways until stress develops the various stressors can be grouped into four categories ie., individual, group, organizational, extra organizational.

I. Individual stressors

♣ **Life and career changes**

Stress is produced by several changes in life and career. Research studies show that in general, every transition or change produces stress. People in newer places experience such state of transition of stress. Young adults between 20 to 30 years of age have been found to report twice as many stressful events, compared to older people. Any change in life of an individual puts him in disequilibrium state of affairs and he is required to bring a new equilibrium. Life changes may be slow and gradual (getting older) or sudden (death of spouse). In both these cases, intensity of stress would be different. Like life

changes, there may be changes in career, in the form of promotion, transfer, separation. With each change, some kid of stress is experienced.

♣ **Personality Type**

Personality characteristics such as authoritarianisms, rigidity, masculinity, femininity, extroversion, supportiveness, spontaneity, emotionality, tolerance for ambiguity, locus of control anxiety, and need for achievement are particularly relevant to individual stress.

♣ **Role characteristics**

There may be role of stress either because of role conflict or role ambiguity. Role conflict arises because of incompatibility of two or more roles. When people become members of several systems like family, club, voluntary organization, work organization etc. they are expected to fulfill certain obligation to each system and to fit into defined place in that system. In many situations, the various roles may have conflicting demands and people experience stress as they are not able to fulfill the conflicting role requirements.

II. Group stressors

♣ **Lack Of Group Cohesiveness:-**

Group cohesiveness is important for the satisfaction of individuals in group interaction. When they are denied the opportunity for this cohesiveness, it becomes very stressing for them as they get negative reaction from group members.

♣ **Lack Of Social Support:-**

When individual gets social support from members of the group, they are able to satisfy their social needs and they are better off. When this social support does not come, it becomes stressing for them.

♣ **Conflict:-**

Any conflict arising out of group interaction may become stressing for the individuals, be it interpersonal conflict among the group members or intergroup conflict.

III. Organizational stressors

♣ **Organizational polices:-**

Organizational policies provide guidelines for action. Unfavourable and ambiguous policies may affect the functioning of the individuals adversely and they may experience stress. Thus, unfair and arbitrary performance evaluation, unrealistic job description, frequent reallocation of activities, rotating work shifts, ambiguous procedures, inflexible rules, inequality of incentives, etc. work as stressors.

♣ **Organization structure:-**

Organization structure provides formal relationship among individuals in an organization. Any defect in organization structure like lack of opportunity of participation in decision making, lack of opportunity for advancement, high degree of specialization, excessive interdependence of various departments, line and staff conflict etc., works as stressors as relationship among individual and groups do not work effectively.

♣ **Organizational processes:-**

Organizational processes also affect individual behaviour at work. Faulty organizational processes like poor communication, poor and inadequate feedback of work performance, ambiguous and conflicting roles, unfair control systems, inadequate information flow cause stress for people in the organization.

♣ **Physical conditions:-**

Organizational physical conditions affect work performance. Thus, poor physical conditions like crowding and lack of privacy, excessive noise, excessive heat or cold, pressure of toxic chemicals and radiation, air pollution, safety hazards, poor lighting etc. produce stress on people.

IV. Extra organizational stressors

Since an organization interacts continuously with its environment, events happening outside the organization also work as stressors. Thus social and technical changes, economic and financial conditions, social calm conflicts, community conditions etc., work as stressors.

EFFECTS OF STRESS MANAGEMENT
Physiological effects:-

The impact of stress is mostly visible on one's body. Stress affects metabolism, increases heart beats and breathing rates, causes headache and high blood pressure. These symptoms do not directly influence an individual's performance on his job. They reduce the performance till it becomes chronic and acute. There is no direct link between job stress and physical problems because extraordinary factors also influence the stress level. Many researchers have concluded that ulcers, arthritis, cancer and heart diseases are the result of stress. Serious physical ailments have drastic effects on individuals. Efforts should be made to avoid stress to keep employees healthy and active for achieving the organizational goals.

1. **Psychological effects:-**

Stress affects the body as well as the mind of a person. Physical and mental health is adversely affected by stress. It has observed that physical problems due to stress are possible only through mental tension. Stress directly affects the mind and the mental pressure creates several physiological problems. Mental health is adversely affected due to constant and chronic stress. It can be stated that stress influences the mind which weakens the body as a weak mind creates a weak body. High blood pressure is caused by mental tension. Cancer is the after – effect of secretion of negative liquids of glands, which are directly affected by the mind. A sound mind secretes positive juices from the glands which make the body healthy and happy.

2. **Behavioural Impacts:-**

The Impacts of stress have an ultimate impact on the behaviour of people, although it has a direct impact on the mind and body. A distressed mind and disease – prone body cannot have proper behaviour. A sound mind and healthy body behaves properly. Stressed people are unable to control their mind and body. They become moody, lazy and irritable. Sometimes, they resort to bad practices to avoid the pressure of stress. Alcoholism, speculation fidgeting, increased smoking, aloofness and inaction are the visible behaviour of stressful employees. While at work, they talk about stress and leave work

uncompleted. Drinking alcohol during work time is a great problem. Many stressful employee drink too much. It reduces their working capacity.

STRESS BUSTORS

Stress Bustors means how to get out of stress. Stress bustors is also known as stress relief. Some of the ways to get out of stress has been given below.

- ❖ Do the work with involvement to avoid stress.
- ❖ Proper meditation and relaxation
- ❖ Play games to get relax
- ❖ Read good books
- ❖ Early to bed and Get up early in the morning.
- ❖ Workship the god.
- ❖ Go for picnic.
- ❖ Avoid quarrel
- ❖ Listen to mild music
- ❖ Create positive thoughts
- ❖ Proper time management
- ❖ Planning the work and work as the plan.

COPING STRATEGIES FOR STRESS

Work stress is increasing with time. The concern about the manner in which stress is affecting the lives of employees is also increasing. One cannot deny that the kind of life style, working culture, growing individualism, the race of being the best in every situation at all times causing all time stress, in individual's life and within the organizational life too.

From an organization's point of view, low or reasonable level of stress is necessary as it improves the performance of the employees. High level stress or constant low level of stress can influence the employee performance and therefore require management's attention. But from the employee's standpoint, even low level stress is undesirable. Therefore, the management and the employees do not have the same opinion on the matter.

Where management thinks that a moderate level of stress acts as a positive boost to the employees for working harder, the employees see it as an excessive pressure that distracts them from work. The difference of opinion regarding the condition of existence and quantum or degree of stress does not reduce the importance of stress handling strategies. They are required at all the levels of an organization-individual, group, and organization. The people do need to burst the stress by adopting a suitable mix of coping strategies. There are two categories as:

1. Individual coping strategies
2. Organizational coping strategies

INDIVIDUAL COPING STRATEGIES

Many studies have been conducted on strategies of coping with stress but an employee's personality and trust play the most important role in order to overcome stress. In today's world people are aware that they need to take care on their own to keep themselves fit. They are personally accountable for reducing the stress level and maintaining a balance in their life. Some of the strategies that an individual can use to reduce his stress level are discussed below:

1. Time management

A well-organized employee with good time management can achieve double than a poorly managed employee. The commonly known times management principles can be used are:

- Making a 'to-do' list on a daily basis
- Arrange and execute work according to its importance and urgency.
- Knowing your daily cycle and doing the most challenging work in the part of the day when you are most alert and energetic.

2. Physical exercise

Physicians recommend that physical exercise improves blood circulation increases heart capacity and deviates the person from the work stress. These exercises could be walking, jogging, swimming, or any other outdoor game. Although there is no guarantee that exercise would always lead to improved working of the heart but at least it diverts a person's mind from the work pressure and tensions he carries along with him from work to home. The mental fatigue can be well handled by physical work. They should alternate as far as possible.

3. Relaxation techniques

Relaxation techniques like meditation or biofeedback helps an individual detach himself from the immediate world. The person experiences deep relaxation which releases all his tensions and worries and gives him a peaceful state of mind. These techniques help in improving the health and reducing the stress level if done for 15-20 minutes on a daily basis.

4. Social network

Having social support at the work place is increasingly becoming important as the work stress is rising with days. Every employees goes through a stressful situation where he needs people to talk to who are good listeners and who can help them relax and overcome the stress. It is proved that increasing the social network helps reduce tension.

Social networks outside the organization also rejuvenate the mind and body. The people, in present scenario do organize social get-togethers within their large families, localities, and societies etc. which act as stress busters.

5. Self-control

Handling oneself in an adverse situation is the most important task that a person has to do. In order to seek help from outside world, when faced with a stressful situation the person should be able to handle himself first. Employees should keep patience while going through a stressful situation and recognize the fact that they are dealing well with such situations. These would encourage them to

appreciate their own work and make them capable of handling such situations in future more effectively. As said earlier, a person's own personality plays the most important role in coping with the work stress.

ORGANIZATIONAL COPING STRATEGIES

Most of the factors that cause stress in the organization are in the hands of the management. It depends on the management how does it keep a control and modify them. Also, the level of stress an employee experiences largely depends on the type of the job and the experience of the employee. Some jobs are more stressful than others. Likewise, more experienced employees can better handle a stressful situation then an inexperienced employee. Some of the strategies that can be used by the management to help the employees cope with work stress are discussed below:

1. Specific goals

While setting the goals for an employee, the manager should be as realistic and specific as possible. Employees can be expected to perform better if their goals are specific and they receive a regular feedback on their performance which acts as a motivator for achieving the goals by working in the right direction. This also helps in keeping their stress level low as the management is aware of what they are doing and the employee knows that he is on the right track.

2. Employee involvement

The organization can make the employee feel important by involving him in the organizational processes like assigning the role in the decision making process. This will help keep the stress level of the employees low as they themselves are the part of the decision making.This would make the environment conducive and acceptable to the employees. The employees would also be tuned to the levels at which the goals are set and the methods adopted for evaluation of job performance.

3. Strong communication

The management should try to maintain a strong and healthy communication with the employees of their organization in order to build a bond with the employees. This provides the employees an opportunity to put forward their demands or any role conflict they are facing thereby reducing the level of stress. Also, the management is able to mould the perceptions and views of its employees in the direction beneficial to the organization as a whole, if the management properly communicates with its employees.

4. Reward employees

Recognition is the greatest reward for the human beings. Employees should be recognized when they achieve their targets in time or exceed their targets. It provides a sense of satisfaction and self-confidence for the employees which ultimately reduces the level of stress and gives a jump to him in order to work more dedicatedly for achieving the next set goal.

5. Sabbatical

The provision of leave for a few weeks or months is another way of letting the employee takes a break from the routine stressful life and bringing his stress level low. Employees should sometimes be given an option to detach him from the routine and enjoy a vacation with family and friends; so that

once he is back he willingly joins his job back with a fresh mind and work with higher enthusiasm and energy.

6. Wellness programs

Another step taken by the organization could be organizing wellness programs for the employees. These programs target at the mental and physical health of the employees. For example, weight loss, exercise, quit alcohol or smoking, better eating habits, etc. such programs help the employees to concentrate on their own health and take steps for improving their life styles.

UNIT IV

Leadership: Theories and styles – Motivation – Theories of Motivation – Communication – Conflict Management: Role Conflict– Goal Conflictand inter personal conflict.

LEADERSHIP

Leader

A Leader is a Person who guides and directs others, called followers. He gives focus to the efforts of his followers.

Leadership

Effective leadership is of great importance in an enterprise to enable the enterprise in achieving its objectives. Leadership is the most important means of direction. It is a process by which an executive directs his subordinates and influence the work and behaviour of others for the common benefit of the organisation as well as its members. To lead means to guide, to direct and to integrate the efforts of people of an organisation towards a common goal. He motivates them to work more and better. The success of an enterprise largely depends upon the quality of its leadership.

Definition of Leadership

"Leadership is the ability of a manager to induce subordinates to work with confidence and zeal".**- Knootz and O'Donnell.**

"Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal." **--*P.G.* Northouse.**

CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP

1. Followers

The success of leadership depends upon the number of followers. Larger the number of followers, more successful will be the leadership. Leadership cannot be thought of in the absence of followers.

2. A Personal Quality

Leadership is a personal quality of character and behaviour, which enables him to influence his men to follow and the followers follow his order and direction.

3. A Common Goal

Leadership clusters around the achievement of common goals. There must be some common goals before the leader and his followers. All the activities must be oriented to achieve these goals.

4. Active Relations

Presence of active relations between a leader and his followers is essential for effective leader's hip. The leader must himself initiate the work as he wants it to be done by his followers.

5. Practical Approach

An effective leader is one who adopts practical approach towards the problems of enterprise. He should not be rigid. He should change his behaviour according to the need of time. He should follow the democratic method of leadership through wide and flexible approach.

6. It is a Process

Leadership is a continuous process of directing, guiding, presenting examples and influencing the people to make their best efforts for the attainment of pre-determined objectives.

IMPORTANCE / ESSENTIALS OF LEADERSHIP

Good leaders are driven towards a mission that everyone can get behind. They know how to motivate a team through honesty.

1. Determination of Goals

A leader performs the creative function of laying down goals and policies for the followers. He acts as a guide in interpreting the goals and policies.

2. Organisation of Activities

A good leader divides organization activities among the employees in a systematic manner. The relationships between them are clearly laid down. This reduces the chances of conflict between them.

3. Achieving Coordination

A leader integrates the goals of the individuals with the organisational goals and creates a community of interests. He keeps himself informed about the working of the group. He shares information with the group for the coordination of its efforts.

4. Representation of Workers

A leader is a representative of his group. He takes initiative in all matters of interest to the group. He also attempts to fulfill the psychological needs of his followers.

5. Providing Guidance

A leader guides the subordinates towards the achievement of organisational objectives. He is available for advice whenever a subordinate faces any problem.

6. Inspiration of Employees

A good leader inspires the subordinates for better performance. Motivation is necessary for getting the desired work from the subordinates. The leader motivates the employees by providing them economic and non- economic rewards.

7. Building Employees' Morale

Good leadership is indispensable for high employee morale. The leader shapes the thinking and altitudes of the group. He develops good human relations and facilitates interactions among the members of the group. He maintains voluntary cooperation and discipline among followers.

8. Facilitating Change

Leadership is the mechanism to convince workers about the need for change. Dynamic leadership is the comer-stone of organisational change. An effective leader is able to overcome resistance to change on the part of workers and thus facilitates change.

Thus, leadership is a part of management, but not all of it. This implies that a strong leader can be a weak manager because he is weak in planning or some other managerial duty.

Reverse to this, manager can be a weak leader and still be an acceptable manager, especially if he happens to be managing people who have strong inner achievement drives.

FUNCTIONS OF A LEADER

(i) Setting Goals

A leader provides guidance to the group by setting goals to his subordinates. He acts as a guide of his followers by setting objectives of the group.

(ii) Representation

A leader represents the group to his superiors. A good leader is the guardian of the interests of the subordinates. He is the personal embodiment of the impersonal organisation inside and outside the organisation.

(iii) As a Counselor

A leader may render advice and tries to overcome barrier, real or imaginary and instills confidence in the employees. Leadership creates a cooperative attitude among the employees.

(iv) Develops Team Spirit

A leader develops a sense of collectivism in the employees to work as a team. Individuals within the group may be shown varied interests and multiple goals. A leader has to reconcile their conflicting goals and restore equilibrium.

(v) Strives for Effectiveness

A leader provides an adequate regard structure to improve the performance of employees. He delegates authority and invites participation from the employees to achieve better results. He provides imagination, foresight and initiative to group members and forces them to have an identity of interests, outlook and action.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MANAGER AND LEADERSHIP

Manager is not the same as leader.

The main differences between manager and leader are follows

As a manager works with his organisation, his choice of leaders is governed by certain forces. These are

(1) Forces Acting on the Manager

In any given situation, the behaviour of the manager is influenced by his own personality; that is, leadership is perceived on the basis of his background, knowledge and experience. The important forces affecting him are:

(a)His value system; that is, the relative importance he attaches toorganisational efficiency, the personal growth of his subordinates, and company profits.

(b)His confidence in his subordinates, which is influenced by the knowledge and competence they have.

(c)His own leadership inclination; that is, whether he can function comfortably and naturally or whether he is uncomfortable when operating in a team.

(d)His feeling of security in an uncertain situation. In other words, his tolerance of ambiguity is taken as an important variable in his dealing with problems.

(2) Forces Acting on the Subordinates

The leader needs a knowledge of the factors which influence' his employees'personality. The manager may grant greater freedom to his subordinate if he is assured that:

(a) The subordinate has a relatively high need for independence;

(b) He is ready to assume responsibility for decisions;

(c) He is interested in the problem which is important;

(d) He has a relatively high tolerance of ambiguity;

(e) He understands, and identifies himself with, the goals of the organisation;

(f) He has the necessary knowledge and experience to deal with problems; and

(g) He has learnt to expect that he would share in the decision- making process.

LEADERSHIP STYLE

The term 'leadership style' refers to the pattern of behaviour which a leader adopts in directing the behaviour of the followers towards the attainment of organisational goals.

The nature and form of leadership style is affected by the following factors: existing circumstances, time-period, and personality of the leader, his experience, attitude and orientation, nature of followers, externalenvironment and so on. Most of the managers use several styles at one or the other point of time, but in which category a manager falls, is decided by the style that is mostly used by him.

There are three important leadership styles as follows:

1. Autocratic or Authoritarian Styles

This is a traditional method of leadership. Autocratic style of leadership is also known as '**Leader-centered Style**'or '**Authoritarian Style**'. Under this style, leader concentrates all authority in himself, instructs subordinates as to what to do, when to do it; how to do it, etc. He also exercises close supervision and control over his subordinates. Subordinates are expected to do what they are told.The autocratic leader accomplishes the results through the use of authority, fear of deprivation, punishment and such other negative rewards. As it is negative in character, authoritarian approach will succeed only in the short run.

Advantages of Autocratic Style of leadership

Advantages of autocratic style of leadership are:

1. It provides for quick decision-making because here only one person i.e., the leader takes decisions.
2. Mostly subordinates like to work under centralized authority and strict supervision.
3. As there is no consultation with subordinates, confidential matters can be kept secretly.
4. Leadership gives strong motivation and satisfaction to the leader who dictates terms.
5. At lower levels, only less competent subordinates are required.
6. This style may yield positive outcome if great speed is needed.

Disadvantages of Autocratic Style of Leadership

1. The basic problem with the autocratic style of leadership is that subordinates are not informed about why they are asked to do a particular work i.e., the purpose for which the work is required to be performed.
2. Jobs are assigned, facilities provided, instructions issued without consulting the person who is performing the job.
3. Subordinates are forced to follow the directions given by the leader blindly though the directions given may not be of proper one. This will ultimately produce feelings of helplessness and frustration among the employees.
4. The success of this type of leadership depends entirely upon the efficiency of the leader.
5. Full potential of subordinates and their creative ideas are not utilized.
6. Organizational continuity is threatened in the absence of the leader. This is because; subordinates get no opportunity for their development.

2. Democratic or Participative Style

The democratic leader decentralises power. He involves subordinates in the decision making. Decisions are made in consultation and participation with the subordinates. This style emphasises group-discussion and group decision making. The democratic leader shares power with subordinates, delegate

adequate authority to them, keep them well informed about matters of their interest and concern, and allow adequate freedom for thinking, discussing, expressing and making suggestions.

Benefits of a democratic leadership style

1. Invites discussion, opinions and views
2. Builds a consensus
3. Encourages the ideas and creativity of others
4. Recognises that people other than the leader may well have ideas about a better way forward
5. creates a shared vision and goals
6. Builds commitment as individuals agree together what needs to be done.

Limitations of the style

1. Can caused difficulties when quick decision are needed in a crisis
2. Confusion if communication is not clear about what or whether anything has been decided
3. When people are in-experienced or don't feel confident they may struggle with being asked to participate
4. Some people may regard being asked as a sign that a leader isn't leading – "I'm not paid to do this – you are!"

3. Free-rein or Laissez-faire or Permissive Style

There are several forms of this style. For example, in some cases the subordinates are given a goal to achieve in their own way, where as in some other cases, they themselves decide their group goals. In fact, there is almost complete delegation of authority; and the path leading to the goals is decided by the subordinates themselves.The leader behaves primarily as a member of the group and plays the role of a member only. He gives his opinion or suggestion only when it is demanded from him. Under this style, the group members are educated and motivated by themselves; the leader is not required to educate but he acts, as a link primarily for arranging adequate resources needed for attaining the goals, for establishing contact between employees and the outside world, for collectingnecessary information from external sources, and for establishing coordination.

Some of the primary characteristics of Free-rein leadership include:

➢ Very little guidance from leaders
➢ Complete freedom for followers to make decisions
➢ Leaders provide the tools and resources needed
➢ Group members are expected to solve problems on their own

Advantages ofLaissez-faire Style of leadership

1. When team members have the skills to succeed.
2. When group members are experts.

44

3. When independence is valued.

Disadvantages of Laissez-faire Style of leadership

1. Lack of role awareness.
2. Poor involvement with the group
3. Low accountability.

MOTIVATION

Motivation is the willingness to exert efforts in order to achieve a desired outcome or goal which will satisfy someone's needs.

Motivation - Meaning

The word 'motivation' has been derived from the word 'motive' which means any idea, need or emotion that prompts a man into action. Whatever may be the behaviour of a man, there is some stimulus behind it. Stimulus is dependent upon the motive of the person concerned. Motive can be known by studying his needs and desires. Generally, different motives operate at different times among different people and influence their behaviour. The management should try to understand the motives of individuals which cause different types of behaviour.

Definition of Motivation

The term motivation has been defined by many authors.

According to Stanley Vence, motivation implies "any emotion or desire which so conditions one's will that the individual is propelled into action".

Carroll Shartle,"Motivation is a reported urge or intention to move in a given direction or to achieve a certain goal".

Edwin B. Flippo, "Motivation is a process of attempting to influence others to do their work through the possibility of getting reward".

On the basis of analytical study of above definitions it may be concluded that motivation is a process which inspires the human efforts of an organisation to perform their duties in the best possible manner so that the pre-determined objectives of the enterprise may be achieved. Motivation is the emotion or desire of an employee that inspires him to act or not to act in certain ways.

Positive vs. Negative Motivation

Motivation may be either **Positive or Negative.**

Positive motivation

Takes place when management recognizes the employee's efforts towards the achievement of organizational goals. It is positive because, this kind of motivation increases the level of performance, promotes team spirit, a sense of cooperation and generates a feeling of belongingness and happiness. The positive motivational factors are:

➢ Praise and reward for good performance.
➢ Concern for the well being of an employee.

- ➢ Confidence reposed in the employee.
- ➢ Delegation of authority
- ➢ Scope of participation given in the decision making.

Negative motivation

On the other hand, results from the use of force, pressure, fear or threat. You may note that fear of punishment also affects motivation and thereby the behaviour of a person. In the organizations, negative motivation may come from the fear of being transferred, demoted or removed. This fear of punishment prompts the person to work hard and achieve the goals. It may, however, be realized that negative motivation is not desirable because employees do not like to be punished. Hence, it is desirable to motivate the employees by positive means.

CHARACTERISTICS OF MOTIVATION

1. Incentive

Motivation is the incentive of employees. It is a personal and natural feeling of the mind of the employees. This feeling arise in the mind of an individual. In fact an individual is inspired to make his efforts to satisfy the needs of his life.

2. Unending Process

Motivation is an unending process. Human needs are unlimited and a person always feel a need. To satisfy these needs, the person must always be inspired with the incentives for work. Satisfaction of one need leads to the feeling of another one and this process never ends.

3. Psychological Concept

Motivation is a psychological concept. It develops the mental and motivation power of an individual and motivates him to do more and better.

4. Power to Act

Motivation is a power to act. It inspires an individual to work. Feeling of a need creates tension and a person wants to work to satisfy his need. When the need is satisfied, the persons feel motivated to work for the achievement of common goals.

5. Increase in Efficiency

Motivation increases the efficiency of an individual. He uses his ability and efficiency to the best possible extent which increases his efficiency. Motivation increases the quantity and quality of production.

6. Increase in Morale

Morale is a group felling. Motivation motivates the employees to work with the co-operation of others.Thus, motivation is helpful in increasing the morale of the employees.

AIMS OR OBJECTIVES OF MOTIVATION

The aims and objectives of motivation may be described as under:

1. To motivate the employees to do more work.

2. To satisfy the economic, social and psychological needs of the employees.

3. To develop human relations in the enterprise.

4. To increase the morale of employees.

5. To increase the efficiency of employees.

6. To get the co-operation of employees.

7. To establish sweet relations between labour and capital.

8. To get the maximum exploitation of human resources.

9. To achieve the objectives of enterprise.

FACTORS AFFECTING MOTIVATION

Factors affecting motivation may be divided into following parts:

1. Monetary Incentives

Monetary incentives are direct incentives provided to the employees of an enterprise. It includes the following incentives:

- ➢ Proper wage or salary,
- ➢ Bonus,
- ➢ Overtime,
- ➢ Monetary rewards and
- ➢ Interests on investments.

Monetary incentives satisfy the basic needs of employees.

2. Non-Monetary Incentives

Monetary incentives are not sufficient to ensure more and better work by employees. Non-Monetary incentives are also provided to them to motivate them in the right direction. Such incentives motivate them to do more and more work. Following factors are included under this category:

- ➢ Safety of work,
- ➢ Appraisal of work,
- ➢ Honour of Employees,
- ➢ Behaviour with employees,
- ➢ Opportunities of promotion,
- ➢ Delegation of authorities,
- ➢ To increase the feelings and suggestions of employees,
- ➢ To launch welfare schemes for the employees like housing facilities, medical facilities, recreation facilities, education facilities, insurance etc.

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

1. Maslow's Theory
2. McGregor's Theory

3. McClelland's Theory
4. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory
5. Vroom's Expectancy Theory

(a) Maslow's Theory

Maslow's need priority model in one of the most widely referred to theories of motivation. Abraham Maslow, a clinical psychologist, thought (1943) that a person's motivational needs could be arranged in a hierarchical manner, starting in an ascending order from the lowest to the highest needs, and concluded that once a given level of needs (set of needs) was satisfied, if ceased to be a motivator. The next higher level of need to be activated in order to motivate the individual. Although the hierarchical aspects of Maslow's theory are subject to question and often not accepted, his identification of basic needs has been fairly popular. The Following Figure explainsMaslow's Hierarchy of Needs:
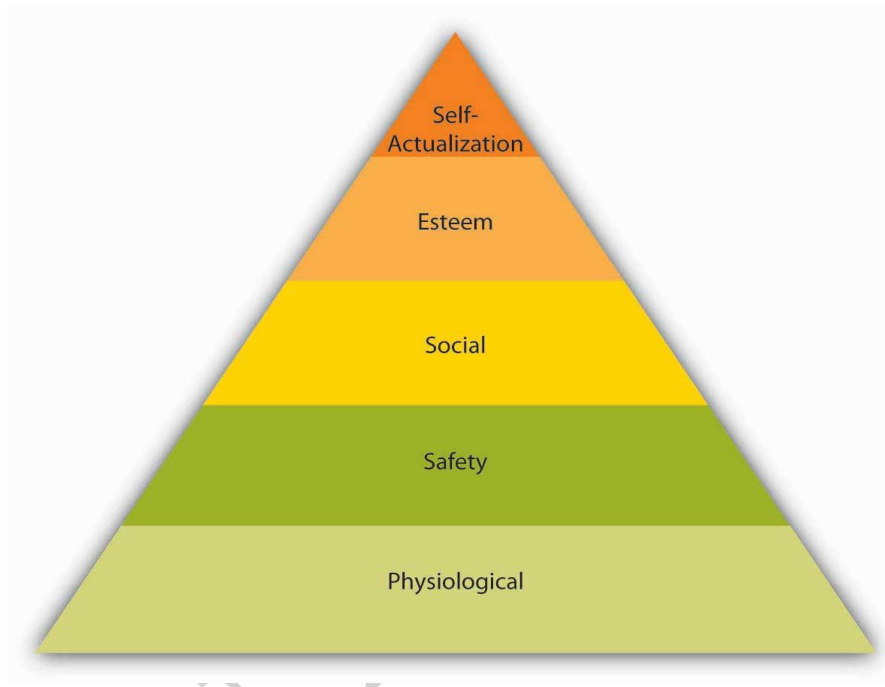
Maslow identified five levels in his need hierarchy in an ascending order of importance. The five categories of needs may be described as follows:

1. Physiological Needs

These are the basic needs for sustaining human life itself : needs for food, drink, shelter, clothing, sleep, sex, etc. But once these basic needs are satisfied, they no longer motivate.

2. Safety Needs

Safety or securing needs are concerned with freedom from physical or psychological (mental) harm, danger, deprivation, or threat, such as loss of job, property, food, clothing or shelter.

3. Social or Affiliation or Acceptance Needs

These are belongingness needs emanating from human instinct of affiliation or association with others. These include owners, love and affection, needs of mutual relations, identification with some group, etc. These are the needs more have mind and spirit than of physique.

4. Esteem Needs

This set of needs represents higher level needs. These needs represent needs for self-respect, respect of others, a general feeling of being worthwhile, competence, achievement, knowledge, independence, reputation, status and recognition.

5. Self-actualisation Needs

This set of higher order needs concerns with reaching one's potential as a total human being. It is the desire to become what one is capable of becoming i.e., to maximum one's capacity and abilities in order to accomplish something appreciable and self-fulfilling. It is a need for being creative or innovative, for transforming self into reality.

Characteristics or Salient Features of Maslow's Needs Model

1. The urge to fulfill needs is a prime factor in motivation of people at work. Human needs are multiple, complex and interrelated.
2. Human needs form a particular hierarchy or priority structure in order of importance.
3. Lower-live needs must be at least partially satisfied before higher-level needs emerge. In other words, a higher-level need does not become an active motivating force until the preceding lower-order needs are satisfied.
4. As soon as one need is satisfied, the individual discovers another need which is still unfulfilled.
5. A satisfied need ceases to be a motivator, i.e., does not influence human behaviour. Unsatisfied needs are motivators, i.e., they influence human behaviour.
6. Various need levels are independent and overlapping. Each higher-level need emerges before the lower-level need is completely satisfied.
7. All people, to a greater or lesser extent, have the identified needs.

Criticisms or Maslow's Model
Maslow's theory has been criticised on several grounds

1. Human needs cannot be classified into clear and only specifies categories, i.e., their hierarchy cannot be definitely specified. The determination of higher and lower levels is dependent on people's cultural values, personalities and desires.
2. It is not necessary that at a time only one need is satisfied. In other words, needs of more than one levels may be fulfilled jointly, for example, physical and esteem needs. Maslow' model does not explain this multi-motivation fact.
3. Some of the assumptions of Maslow's theory are not always found in practice.
4. It has been found by some scholars like Lawler and Suttle that physical and safety needs may be probably satisfied, but high - level needs do not appear to be rather satisfiable.

(b) McClelland's Theory

McClelland (1961) studied using personality tests, the characteristics of people whom he identified as being achievement oriented. According to him high need achievers were always exhibiting behaviour designed to better themselves, working harder in order to accomplish their goals. They shared a number of common characteristics:
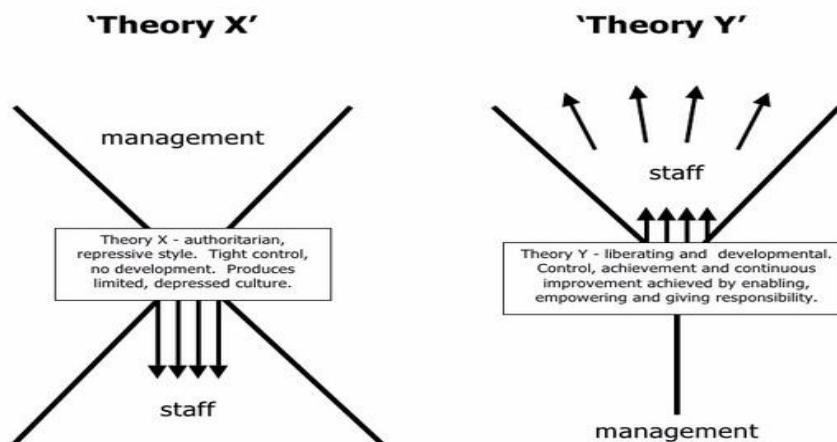
1. Preference for performing tasks over which they had sole responsibility, to enable them to identify closely with the successful outcomes of their actions.
2. They were moderate risk takers, and to maximise their chances of success they set themselves moderate goals. This does not mean to say that they avoided challenging situations, but simply that their goals were within an attainable range.
3. They needed continual feedback, since it is only from the knowledge of success that satisfaction can be derived.

McClelland tried to identify why some people were low achievers and concluded that the major reasons for this lie in parental influences, education, cultural background and the value systems dominant in society. According to him, organisationstherefore may be concerned with selecting high achievers as managers. However, low achievers can be trained to develop a greater urge to achieve.

(c) McGregor's Theory X and Y

We know that there are two types of motivation viz., internal motivation and external motivation. Internal motivation is made up of the forces which exist within an individual, i.e., his needs, wants and desires. External motivation includes the forces which exist inside the individuals as well as the factors controlled by the manager, including job context items, such as salaries, working conditions, company policy and job content items, such as recognition, advancement and responsibility.

Douglas McGregor's theory incorporates both internal and external motivation McGregor sets forth two alternative views (at opposite extremes) of human nature - the first view is called 'Theory X' and the second view is called 'Theory Y'.

'Theory X'   'Theory Y'

management   staff

Theory X - authoritarian, repressive style. Tight control, no development. Produces limited, depressed culture.

Theory Y - liberating and developmental. Control, achievement and continuous improvement achieved by enabling, empowering and giving responsibility.

staff   management

© 2002 alan chapman   Based on Douglas McGregor's XY-Theory.   www.businessballs.com

This diagram was developed by alan chapman consultancy and you may use it personally or within your organisation provided copyright and www.businessballs.com is acknowledged. Publication in any form or use in provision of business services to a third party is not allowed without permission from alan chapman. Support and advice on using this system is available from alan chapman via email advice@alanchapman.com. More free online training resources are at www.businessballs.com.

Theory X

According to Theory X there are following assumptions about the human nature, on which the manager has to base his motivation efforts:

1. Average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organisational objectives.
3. Average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

McGregor felt that Theory X assumptions were used in most industrial organisation of his time, but they were generally in correct.Thus, the management approaches that develop from these assumptions will be inadequate for the full utilisation of each worker's potential because they will often fail to motivate people to work for the realisation of organisational objectives. Hence he felt the need to revise and correct these assumptions to conform to the present day organisation set up and ever-developing personality of the employee.

Theory Y

Theory Y is McGregor's modern view of the nature of man. It contains assumptions which he believed could lead to greater motivation and better fulfillment of both individual needs and organisational goals. The Theory Y assumptions are:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort towards organisational objectives.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the reward associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of organisational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilised.

It may be noted that the main foundation of Theory Y is 'integration', i.e., the establishment of an environment in which employees can best achieve their own goals by committing themselves to the organisation's objectives. In doing so, employees are expected to exercise a large degree of internal motivation.

Differences between Theory X and Theory Y

The points given below are substantial, so far as the difference between Theory X and Theory Y is concerned:

1. Theory X is propounded by McGregor, which indicates a set of assumptions that an average worker is motivated to satisfy their own needs and not to contribute to the fulfillment of organisational goals. Conversely, Theory Y is based on the assumption that an average human being is motivated towards growth and development and they contribute to the achievement of organisational goals.
2. Theory X assumes that an employee dislikes work, while theory Y presupposes that work is natural for employees.
3. Theory X says that employees are unambitious, whereas the employees are highly ambitious says Theory Y.
4. As per theory X, it has been inferred that people do not like taking responsibilities and avoids it to the extent possible. On the other hand, theory Y infers that people accept and seek responsibility.
5. The leadership style adopted by the management, in the case of theory X is autocratic. As against, democratic leadership style is adopted in the case of theory Y.
6. In theory X, it is assumed that employees require constant supervision and direction. In contrast, in theory, Y, the assumption is that employees do not need much supervision for the completion of the task and also in the accomplishment of organisational objectives.
7. Theory X is characterised by tight external control on the employees, whereas theory Y features leniency in control.
8. According to theory X, there is complete centralization of authority, in the organisation, i.e. the power lies in the hands of the top executives. Unlike, decentralisation of authority is presumed in theory Y, which involves employee's participation in management and decision-making.
9. The element of self-motivation is absent, as per theory X, but present in theory Y.
10. On the basis of theory X, employees stresses on Psychological needs and Security needs. In contrast, based on theory Y, employees concentrates on Social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

It is also considered as expectancy/valence approach attempting at overcoming criticism of other motivational approaches. Expectancy approach aims at differentiating among individuals and situation. It deviates from the assumption that all employees are alike or all situations are alike and therefore there is only one way of motivating them. Expectancy approach advocates that the behaviour of individual is influenced by their expectations, perceptions and calculations regarding the relationship between performance and rewards. It specifies that the efforts to achieve high performance is a function of perceived likelihood that high performance can be achieved and will be rewarded if achieved and that the reward will be worth efforts made. This approach has three basic elements. The folloeing figure reflect this theory'
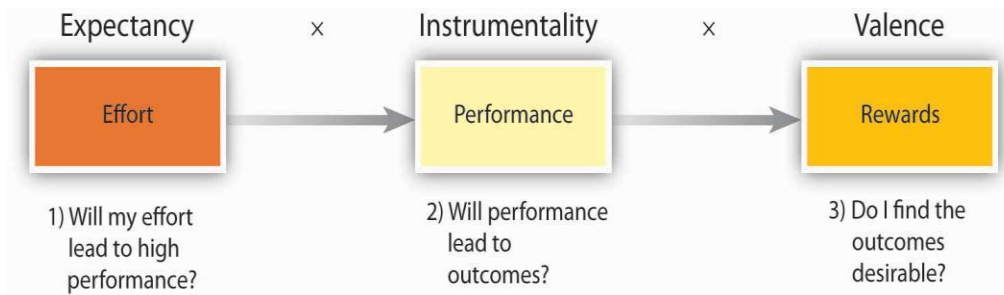
1. Performance Outcome Expectancy

In individuals expecting some consequences of their behaviour which in turn affects their decision to behave in a particular manner. For example, the salesexecutive who is thinking about exceeding his sales target may expect praise, a bonus or no reaction.

2. Valence

Outcome of a particular behaviour has a specific valence that is power to motivate which varies from individual to individual. For example, promotion to higher position may have somewhat different valence for the manager who gives too much importance to money as compared to the other manager whoattaches more significance to status, development and growth.

3. Efforts Performance Expectancy

Expectation of individual that how difficult it will be to perform successfully will affect their decision about behaviour. For example, if choices are giver, individual will select the level of performance which has the highest possibility of achieving outcome which they value.

Although this approach has been developed by Victor Vroom, it was further refined by Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler who made it more useful and practical. They base expectancy model of motivation on the following assumptions:

1. behaviour of an individual is determined by a combination of factors such as characteristics of individuals and characteristics of work environment;
2. individuals make decisions consciously and deliberately regarding their behaviour in organisation;
3. individuals have different needs, goals, devices to fulfill and
4. Individuals decide from alternative behaviour on the basis of their expectations that a given behaviour will lead to the desired outcome.

This model has highlighted that the people can differ greatly in how they size up their chances for success in different jobs. Therefore, to motivate people it is just not enough to offer them some rewards. They must also feel convinced that they have ability to get the reward.

COMMUNICATION

Meaning

The term 'communication' is derived from the Latin word 'communis' which means common. The term communication is used to signify the act of transferring ideas or receiving it by any means-word of mouth, the telephone, telegram, letter, message etc. In an organisation managers have to communicate constantly. If we observe the activities of any manager, we will find that he is busy writing a letter or receiving one, meeting a worker or a group of workers or his superior attending a conference or addressing one, telephoning or discussing a project with an expert, negotiating terms and so on.

Managerial functions are discharged through communication. Direction, guidance, delegation of authority, assignment of duties etc., are done through communication. Thus communication is not a one way process.

Definition of Communication

The term "communication" is freely used by everyone. It is one of the most frequently discussed subjects in the field of organisationalbehaviour.

"Communicationis the sum of all things, a person does when he wants to create an understanding in the mind of another. It involves a systematic and continuous process of telling, listening and understanding". -- **Louis Allen.**

"Communication is transfer of information from one person to another,whether or not it elicits confidence. But the information transferred must be understandable to the receiver".--**G.G. Brown.**

"Communication is the intercourse by words, letters or messages"--**Fred G. Meyer.**

"Communication is an intercourse by words, letters, symbols or messages; and is a way that one organisation member shares meaning and understanding with another." -- **Koontz and O'Donnell.**

CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNICATION

The following are the characteristics of communication.

1. Communication is a two-way process because orders, instructions, directions, guidelines, etc., are directed or communicated downwards while suggestions, complaints, grievances etc., are communicated upwards. This not only involves giving ideas but also receiving them.
2. No business organisation can exist without communication because it is necessary to have a congenial relationship between the different employees working at different levels and that is why it is a continuous process.
3. The communication process continues to the extent that ideas and messages are communicated and received.
4. It may be formal or informal and it may be in different mediums.

IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION

Civilization will cease without communication. Over the years, the importance of communication has increased tremendously thanks to the advent of various modern devices. The following points bring out the importance of communication in management.

1. Smooth Running of the Enterprise

Effective communication ensures the smooth running of an enterprise. Communication plays a vital role in all kinds of organisations. In the case of complex organisations, effective communication solves lot of problems. The work of the subordinates depends to a large extent upon the communication they receive from their superiors. Similarly, successful completion of the task by the superior depends upon the nature and flow of communication from the subordinates to the superiors.

2. Quick Decisions and Implementation

Communication greatly facilitates decision making. However intelligent the personnel may be, it would be of no use, if the top management cannot effectively communicate policies and decisions to them. Effective implementation of decisions depends upon the nature of communication. It is said that

communication acts as a lubricant and keeps all the individuals working in line with the expectations of top management.

3. Planning and co-ordination

Communication greatly helps in planning and co-ordination. Participation in planning is essential in order to successfully execute it and this is secured by communication. Similarly, co-ordination between various individuals and activities is brought out by communication.

4. Maximum Productivity

Maximum output with minimum input is the aim of all managers; this can be achieved by effective communication. Communication helps in minimizing costs and friction and maximizing production.

5. Morale Building and Democratic Management

When there is an effective system of communication, employees will have the opportunity to present their ideas, suggestions and complaints. If the grievances are not set right at the early stage, they will ultimately result in industrial unrest. It is pointed out that many conflicts arise because of lack of communication or mis-understood motives. Democratic management is possible only when there is an effective communication system.

THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Communication process contains the following elements:
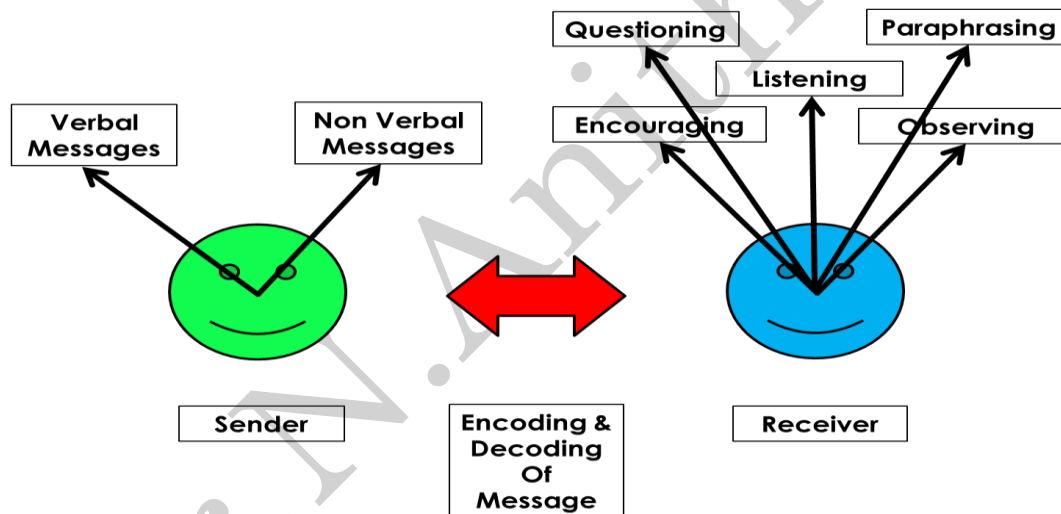
1. The Communicator / sender

Communication commences with the communicator. He is the sender of the message. He realizes the need for conveying something to someone else. A communicator or the sender is the source of communication. He has a purpose of communicating some information to one or more persons.

2. Encoding

Encoding means putting message into code. A message is initiated by encoding a thought. The communicator encodes the information to be transmitted. It is done by translating into a series of symbols or gestures.

Encoding is essential because information can be conveyed only through representations or symbols. The sender of the message should establish mutuality of meaning with the receiver. Coded messages may be oral or written words or gestures.

3. The message

A message is the output of encoding process. It is the physical form of the encoded message. The message may be in any form- oral, written or gesture. But it must be unambiguously understood by the receiver. Speech may be heard. Written words may be read. Gestures may be seen or felt. Message must be clear and precise.

4. The Medium

The communicator can communicate the message through a medium. The medium is the carrier of communication. The communication channel is the mode of transmission. Air is the medium for oral message. The medium is inseparable from the message. It links the sender with the receiver. The message may be conveyed through a memorandum, letter, telegram, the telephone, a computer or T.V., but the channel or the medium must be appropriate for the message. At times, multiple media are used for effective communication. A telephone talk may be confirmed by a letter later. Since the choices of channels are many, proper choice of the channel is vital for effective communication.

5. Decoding

Decoding refers to the finding of the meaning of something conveyed in code. It is the process by which the receiver interprets the message. It means translating the message that is significant and meaningful to the receiver. The recipint has to be ready for the message. Then only the message can be decoded into thought. In decoding, the receiver converts the message into thoughts. Decoding is affected by several factors such as the recipient's knowledge, past experience, personal interpretations of the symbols and gestures used expectations and mutuality of meaning. Thus, decoding is very important for understanding the message.

6. The Receiver

Communication requires at least a couple of people, the sender and the receiver. One "encodes" and the other "decodes" the message. It will be complete only when the receiver perceives the message intact. The receiver must decode the message without distortion. If the message does not reach a receiver, communication cannot be said to have taken place.

7. Feed Back

Feedback refers to the reaction of the receiver. It is a reversal of the communication process. Feedback enables the communicator to know whether his message is received and interpreted correctly or not.

Further, Feedback enables the communicator to know the reaction of the receiver so that future communication can be modified, if necessary. The importance of Feedback is incalculable. It helps to check the effectiveness of communication. It makes communication a two-way process.

8. Noise

"Noise" is the enemy of Feedback. It refers to any factor that interferes with communication. Interference may occur in all the above stages of the communication process. It hinders or blocks communication.

TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

We spend a great deal of our time in communication. No one can afford to waste time be indulging in unnecessary communication. It is often very difficult to determine which communication is necessary and which is not necessary. Again it is difficult to determine the extent of information to be passed on. The method of presentation is also to be decided - narrative, statistical or graphical form.

The following are some of the types of communication.

Verbal or Oral Communication

In this method of communication the two parties exchange their ideas or the message with the help of word of mouth. The message, instruction, order, directive etc., is conveyed through spoken words. Examples of verbal communications are – telephone talk, oral orders, face to face talks, counseling etc.

Some of the advantages of verbal communication are as follows:
- It saves time and money. No other device is so short, simple and quick.
- Because of the face contact or personal touch, it is effective.
- Oral communication is easily understood. Even when there are doubts they can be cleared on the spot.
- The effect of the communication or response to the communication can be easily measured.

However, oral communication is not suitable in the following cases:
- When the communicator and the recipient are far off, (beyond the telephone range) oral communication will not serve the purpose.
- If the message to be transmitted is lengthy and requires a thorough clarification, oral communication will not be suitable.
- Oral communication does not serve as a record or as evidence. It cannot be made use of in future.
- There are chances of misunderstanding and mis-interpreting the communication.

Written Communication

A written communication is conveyed through a letter, report, circular notes, memoranda, notice and communiqué. It is a very common form of communication in most of the organisations and is suitable for many situations.

The usual forms of written communication are:

Orders – given by the superiors to the sub- ordinates. These can be of three types.

    a.General
    b.Specific
    c.Definite

a. **General orders** are given by the top management,
b. **Specific orders** by the middle level management to lower level managers and,
c. **definite orders** by the supervisor to workers.

Written communications have the following advantages.

- They serve as permanent record and as a source or reference.
- More care is taken in drafting written communication (than is in the case of oral communications) and this saves the subsequent loss of time and money.
- When the communicator and recipient are far off, written communication is the best method.
- The recipient can ponder over the communication and request for changes, if necessary.

The disadvantages are listed below:
- As everything is to be translated into black and white, it consumes a lot of time and money.
- People do not care at all to pass the appropriate message. Consequently, poor messages are to be followed by clarifications and explanations.
- Sometimes it may not be possible to reduce everything into writing. Any omission will call for additional communication.
- Written communication is subject to delay.
- It is very difficult to keep some communications up to date.

Formal and Informal Communication

The formal organisation chart describes the formal lines of authority, power, responsibility and accountability of the organizational members. All these relationships involve communication. For instance, the delegation of authority involves the flow information from a superior to his subordinate. Formal communications are in black and white.

On the other hand, informal communication is free from all the formalities of formal communication. Informal communication is based on the informal relationship among the organisation members. It is conveyed by a simple gesture, glance, nod, smile or mere silence. For instance, when the worker approaches the manager and informs about the completion of the job entrusted to him, and if the manger simply nods his head or gives an approving smile, then it amounts to informal communication. The informal communication which supplements the formal organizational relationship is referred to as the "Grapevine". Though this relationship is structure less, it comes into existence when formal organizational members who know each other pass on information relating to the enterprise. It thrives on information not openly available to the entire work group. This may be due to the fact that information is regarded as confidential. The Grapevine may flourish, if formal lines of communication are inadequate. The Grape vine is inevitable and valuable, because all forms of informal organisation serve essential human communication needs. It is very effective for quick communication.

Downward, Upward or Horizontal Communication

Communications are classified as downward, upward or horizontal. Communication is said to be downward when it flows from the top to the bottom, it is upward when it flows from the sub-ordinates to the top management. It is horizontal when it flows between individuals at the same level (e.g. between two departmental or section heads). All these three kinds of communications may be either oral or written. The Classical theorists emphasized downward communication. Downward Communication is used by the superiors to convey their orders and directions to their sub-ordinates. The purposes of downward communication are:

a. To give job instructions

b. To create an understanding of the work and its relations with other tasks.

c.To inform about procedures.

d.To inform sub-ordinates about their performance.

e.To indoctrinate the workers to organizational goals.

BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

It is not possible that every time an order, instruction, guideline, direction, programme, information etc, transmitted by the superior is properly understood and assimilated by those for whom it is intended. Similarly suggestions, reports, advice, recommendations, complaints, etc., transmitted by the sub-ordinates to their superiors may be misunderstood or mis-interpreted. In any case, the objectives of communication are defeated.

As such, the process of communication is not always smooth. It is obstructed by many obstacles. These are referred to as barriers of communication. It refers to those factors which cause disturbance either in the mind of the communicator or the communicatee or in the process, which will create distortion of the message, leading to lack of the response, ignoring or mis-understanding. The important barriers to effective communication are:

Ineffective Expression

The first and the most common barrier in the process of communication is bad expression. This means that the messages suffer from omissions, uncertainty, inaccuracies, verbosity, repetitions, ambiguity, lack of clarity and precision. In order to remove this, the staff should be trained to draft various kinds of effective communication. This will save time because otherwise much time has to be devoted in giving subsequent clarifications.

Inaccurate Translation

Decisions are generally conveyed from the top to the lower level. The superiors are known for their specialised knowledge. They generally draft messages in a technical language which may not be clearly understood by those who have to implement the decisions. Even if they are able to understand, they may not be able to convey it further down the line in simple words.

In many such cases, it becomes necessary to translate the subject matter or the message into a simpler language, i.e., the language which the Communicate can understand easily. But the translation may be done inaccurately. Sometimes the translator is not in a position to find out the equivalent of many terms. With the result, the translation leads to further confusion. It becomes necessary that competent persons are appointed for the job and are provided the necessary equipment for the execution of the entrusted tasks.

CONFLICTS

The concept of conflict is supposed to be an outcome of behaviours and is an integral part of human life. The place where people interact there is every chance of conflict. Conflict can be defined or explain in many ways as an expression of hostility, negative attitudes, antagonism, aggression rivalry and misunderstanding.

This also involves situation that involve contradiction between two opposing groups. In other words, conflicts is basically a disagreement between two or more individuals or groups, with each

individual or group trying to gain acceptance of its own view on others. Sometimes intense conception among the groups leads to conflicts. But both competition and conflict should not be confused.

Competition is directed towards obtaining a goal while conflict is directed against another group and action to frustrate other group members towards goal achievement. Conflict can mean many different things to many different people and can range in intensity from a minor difference of opinion to war between nations. Argyrols holds that given the mature, adult human being and the nature of the formal organisation, conflict is inevitable.

Within every individual there are usually

a. a number of competing needs and roles,

b. a variety of different ways that drives an d roles can be expressed,

c. many types of barriers which can occur between the drive and goal and

d. Both positive and negative aspects attached to the desired goals.

These complicate the human adaptation process and often result in conflict.

Definitions

"Conflict is a process in which an effort is purposefully made by one person or unit to block another that results in frustrating the attainment of the other's goals or the furthering of his or her interests." -- **S.P. Robbins.**

"The appearance of difference, difference of opinions, of interests." -- **Mary Parker Follet.**

"Conflict may be viewed as a breakdown in the standard mechanism of decision making." -- **Louis R. Pondy.**

On the basic of the above descriptions it may be said that conflict is not confined at the individual level alone but is manifesting itself more and more in organisations. Employees have become vociferous in their demands for a better deal. Various departments in an organisation face a situation full of conflicts on account of a number of reasons like goal diversity, task interdependence etc.

Causes of Conflict

We can categories the causes of conflict into one of the following three categories.

1. Communicational Aspect of Conflict

Poor communication can also have a powerful effect in causing conflict. Any misunderstanding or partial information during the communication process is another factor supporting it. Due to the improper sending and receiving of the information conflicts situation. The filtering of information is also said to be playing its role at various levels of the organisation structure. Amount of information is functional upto a point, beyond which it becomes a source of conflict. Semantic difficulties arise due to differences in background, training, selective perception and incomplete or inadequate information regarding others. In respect of completion of any job in absence of the senior or supervisor it is essential that proper information in a correct and understandable form must be disseminated.

2. Behavioural Aspect of Conflict

This type of conflicts arises because of human thoughts, feelings, attitudes, emotions, values, perceptions and reflects basic traits of a personality. So perceptions of certain people any arise conflicts among others. On the other hand individuals who are of low self-esteem may feel threatened by others in

simple matters and over-react causing a conflict.Conflict in the modern society are mostly behavior oriented. They induce unrealised expectations and complexity of social and organisation system. Conflict may also arise due to differing views regarding any issue or cause which is requiring participation. Under privileged and the one having unrealised expectations also cause conflicting situation. From organisationalbehaviour point of view, there is a conflict between the goals of the formal organisation and psychological growth of the individual.

3. Structural Aspects of Conflict

These conflicts arise due to issues related to the structural design of the organisation as a whole as well as its sub-units. Some of the structurally related factors are:

(i) Size of Organisation

The larger the size of the organisation, the more is the basis for existence of conflict. In a big organization there is less goal clarity, more supervisory levels and super vision and greater chances of information being diluted or distorted as it is passed along.

(ii) Participation

It is seen that if subordinates are not allowed to participate in the decision-making process they show resortment which gives rise to conflict. On the other side, if more participation of the subordinates are allowed then also chances of conflict increases as they become more aware of the things in detailed manner.

(iii) Role Ambiguity

Role is a certain set of activities associated with a certain position in the organisation. When the work is ill-defined the person at that position fails to perform well. This creates conflict with that person and the others who are dependent on that particular individual. Such conflicts can be reduced by redefining and classifying roles and their inter-dependencies.

(iv)Scarcity of Resources

The resources are made available to the working employees, but when there is an uneven distribution it gives rise to dissatisfaction and resentment. Specially in declining organisation cut back is made on personnel and services so that the concerned unit shrinking pool of resources and this breeds conflict. The chances of conflict rise high when resources such as capital facilities, staff assistance and many other factors start decreasing or are in inadequate forms.

Types of Conflicts

(a) Goal Conflict

Goal conflict arises when two or more motives block one another. There are three types of goal conflict.

1. Approach-Approach-Conflict

Where the individual is motivated to approach two or more positive but mutually exclusive goals. For example, a young person faced with two excellent job opportunities, or an executive who has choice between two very attractive offices to work.

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. For example, Managers engaged in Long-range planning are very confident of a goal 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. The Managers may reach a point where approach equals avoidance. The result is a great deal of internal conflict which may cause indecision, ulcers or even neurosis.

3. Avoidance-Avoidance-Conflict

Where the individual is motivated to avoid two or more negative but mutually exclusive goals. For example, the worker who detests his supervisor and has too much pride to accept unemployment compensation,. This worker cannot easily resolve his avoidance-avoidance-conflict in a time when jobs are very scarce.

(b) Role Conflict

A role consists of a pattern of norms and is directly related to the theatrical use of them. A role is the position that has expectations evolving from established norms. As a pattern of prescribed behaviour, a role is a bundle of norms. As a pattern of actual behaviour, a role is one side of a set of social relationships. An individual can have many roles simultaneously.

Since the individual has many roles to play in an organisation, role conflict is bound to exist. The classic example of role conflict is of a first-line supervisor. The best approach to resolve this conflict would be to recognise the existence of role conflict, attempt to understand its causes and ramifications and then try to manage it as effectively as possible.

(c) Inter-Personal Conflict

Conflict situations inevitably are made of at least two individuals who hold polarised points of view, who are somewhat indolent or ambiguous and who are quick to jump to conclusions. Our popular framework for analysing dynamics of interaction between self and others is Johari Window.This model has been developed by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham (the name JOHARI).

LEVELS OF CONFLICT

Newstrom and Davis refer to conflict as "any situation in which two or more parties feel themselves in opposition. Conflict is an interpersonal process that arises from disagreements over the goals to attain or the methods to be used to accomplish these goals".

Conflict can occur in three levels:

1. Inter-Personal Conflict

If it were true that the sole motive of all activity is the desire to avoid pain and to secure pleasure, conflict could hardly arise. But neither it is true nor possible as there are always incompatible motives which impel us to incompatible goals as individual human being and also as members of social groups and organisations. And this is what gives birth to a conflict. When this happens within an individual, we call it "MENTAL CONFLICT" and when it happen two individuals or amongst many members of a group or groups, it is known as "INTER PERSONAL CONFLICT".

Conflict is a painful manifestation of energy and by consuming within the organisation the energy that should be sustaining fruitful work of mind and body, may reduce and weaken the organism

and prepare the way for disorder. When applied to the groups or group members, this wasteful use of energy in "inter-personal conflict" results in simple disagreement to serious fights.

2. Organisational Conflict

Individuals in the organisation have many conflicting experience is organisational setting as for example

(a) The boss wants more production, the subordinates want more consideration.

(b) Customers demand faster deliveries peers request schedule days.

(c) Consultants suggest changes, subordinates resist change and

(d) The rule book prescribes a formula, but the staff says it will not work. These are four types of organisational conflict.

(a) Hierachial Conflict

There may be conflict between the various levels of the organisation. The board of directors may be in conflict with the top management, middle management may be in conflict with supervisory personnel, or there may be general conflict between management and the workers.

(b) Functional Conflict

There may be conflict between various functional departments of the organisation. Conflict between the production and marketing departments in an industrial organization is a classic example.

(c) Line-Staff Conflict

There may be a conflict between the line and staff. It often results from situations where staff personnel do not formally possess authority over line personnel.

(d) Formal-Informal Conflict

There may be conflict between the formal and informal organisations. For example, the informal organisation's norms for performance may be incompatible with the formal organisation's norms of performance.

Role on Conflict in Today's Organisations :

Today conflict has become one of the most vital aspects of national, organisational, group and individual development. As a result, new set of assumptions have been accepted about conflict. These assumptions are

➢ Conflict is inevitable,

➢ Conflict is determined by structural factors such as the design of a career structure or the nature of a class system,

➢ Conflict is integral to the nature of change,

➢ A minimal level of conflict is optimal.

Reduce Organisational Conflict

Based on these assumptions, the following approaches have been developed to reduce organisational conflict

a. Buffers can be erected between conflicting parties.

b. To help the parties in the conflicting situations, develop insights into themselves and how they affect others.

c. Redesign the organisational structure in order to reduce the conflict.

It is not always necessary to reduce the conflict as conflicts to help development in many situations, Conflict can lead to innovation and change, it can energise people to activity, develop protection for something else in the organisation and be an important element in the systems analysis of the organisation. Such factors indicate thatconflict can be managed to work for rather than in the modern organisation.

Harmony and Conflict in Inter Group Relations

Two or more groups, like two or more individuals, can coordinate their activities for mutual gain. In this case they're likely to be an atmosphere of acceptance and goodwill. We can find such harmonious relations at all levels, ranging from two couples on a double date to two nations engaging in cultural exchange. Two or more groups, like two or more individuals, can also compete for scare resources. In this case they are likely to generate an atmosphere of ill will, mistrust, and suspicion. This type of relationship can also be identified at all levels, from feuding families to nations at war.

3. Inter Group Conflict

Definitions of conflict usually involve an element of competition and an element of aggression (Coser, 1956; Brickman, 1974). Let's define inter group conflict as the state existing between two or more groups that are competing over scarce resources when one of the aims of the competition is to neutralise, injure or eliminate the competitor. The resources under dispute may be physical (a good home, farmland, oil fields), economic (money, good jobs, bright prospects), psychological (self-esteem, self-actualisation), social (prestige, influence) or any combination thereof. By referring to these resources as scarce, I mean that each contending group considers them inadequate to fulfill everyone's needs.In some ways, conflict between two or more groups is analogous to conflict between two or more people. In both inter group conflict and interpersonal conflict, own-gain and relative-gain motivation overpowers joint-gain motivation, although in the case of intergroup conflict we must refer to "team" rather than "individual" interests. However, inter group conflicts have at least three very special properties that distinguish them from interpersonal conflicts.

First, the death of one of the participants ends an interpersonal conflict. The death of one participant does not end an inter group conflict. Because new contestants arise to take the place of the fallen, inter group conflict can persist over generations. The conflict may even gain the status of a tradition. For the person born into along-warring group, knowledge of the conflict will become on e of the earliest memories, and constrictive alternatives will be very hard to imagine.

Second, inter group conflict is not governed by the same norms that govern interpersonal conflicts. Whereas, norms may discourage all violence within a group, they may systematise and organize violence between groups. An isolated murder represents social disorganisation, or a failure of norms to regulate individual conduct.

The near-annihilation of an enemy in warfare reflects social organisation, or a success of norms to regulate individual conduct.

Organisation and conformity are required, for example, to quickly mobilise an army and send it dashing off across the border.A third factor that distinguishes individual and group conflict is that inter group

conflict is often accompanied by intra-group (within- group) cooperation. People will pull together to subdue the enemy.

Functions of Conflict

Most of the social-psychological literature on inter group conflict is based on the premise that conflict is harmful to all participants and must be eliminated. However, not all writers are reformers, and some have claimed that inter-group conflict serves important adaptive and maintenance functions for the group. Obviously, warfare can be instrumental if it gains for the group the strip of land, the resources, or the freedom that it seeks. (Curiously, the plum of victory has been given scant attention in social psychology). Coser (1956) has listed a number of other functions or uses of inter group conflict; here we will consider three of the major arguments.

First, conflict prevents the stagnation and decay of the social system by stimulating innovation and creativity. Conflict, my lead to new social norms and reforms. According to Hare (1969), for example, black rebellion did more to reduce social inequalities in academia than did decades of "whimpering for integration". Conflict can also spur the economy and technology. World War II ended the Great Depression and triggered rapid developments in such different fields as pesticides, medicine, electronics, aviation, nuclear engineering, and manufacture of rayon stockings. Suchexpensive inventions become likely when there are seriouschallenges to strong vested interests.

Of course, technological advancement, esprit de corps, and the making of new friends would seem to be rather paltry gains if the ultimate result is annihilation of the society. However, Coser believes that, for three reasons, conflicts will be self-limiting. First, conflict sometimes binds the contending groups together. In the process of conflict, two previously unrelated groups form a negative relationship, out of which a positive relationship can evolve. For example, in an effort to head off war, two nations may discover a mutually advantageous course of action (such as splitting a contested weak nation down the middle).

Second, conflict at a low level of intensity may establish and maintain a balance of power. Paradoxically, conflict on a small scale may be one of the most effective deterrents to conflict on a large scale, since small-scale conflict allows each side to show strength and resolve, which deters the other side from escalating the conflict.

Finally, when a war becomes large enough so that other nations enter in, shifting coalitions and alliances may prevent the conflict from becoming an all-out war of annihilation.

Functions of Conflict Resolution

Most writers who have dealt with inter group relations have emphasised the negative consequences of conflict. Whether we are dealing with a battlefield or "merely" with the systematic blocking of alternatives (as in the case of racial discrimination), conflict involves personal suffering and social loss. This loss is measurable not onlyin terms of material and money but also in terms of wasted human potential.

Certainly most of the positive effects of inter group conflict can be achieved in peaceful ways as well. Negotiation and bargaining can lead to a favourable allocation of resources. Technological advancements do not depend on warfare. For example, the space program led to rapid technological developments in electronics, plastics, nutrition and computers and nobody was deliberately killed in the process. Cohesiveness and solidarity might be brought about through increased rewards within the

society as well as through external threat. Thus, wars on poverty, famine, and disease, like wars on neighbours, can raise society's cohesiveness. Finally, international alliances may be based on trade or cultural exchange rather than on a pact of "mutual defense" against some third party.

Techniques, approaches or mechanisms to deal with conflict

Managers have to realise that conflict is a natural ingredient in every organisation. Practically, there are three main strategies, techniques, approaches or mechanisms to deal with conflict which can be discussed as follows:

(I) Conflict Encouragement

A manager may find some situations where conflict needs to be encouraged. This is so when certain types and amounts of conflict are found to stimulate satisfaction and performance of individuals or groups. The principal way s or techniques to encourage constructive conflict may be outlined as follows:

a. Bringing and outside expert or consultant for the purpose of shaking up people and thereby stimulating constructive conflict.
b. Personally encouraging creative and innovative thinking and action processes among people.
c. Fostering competitive situations in inter-personal and group relations.
d. Discouraging avoidance of conflict, compromises and compatibility on goals and performance standards and also discouraging mild acceptance of assigned roles and responsibilities.
e. Expressly criticising mediocrity, low levels of skills, lack of honesty and commitment, misuse of resources, blocked communication, poor performance, etc.

(II) Conflict Reduction

Sometimes conflicts rise to alarming levels and thereby adversely affect the work performance in the organisation. In such situations, the question of conflict encouragement does not at all arise. Hence, they need to reduce, i.e., minimise them and bring down to some tolerance level.

a. Some techniques of conflict reduction may be summarised as follows:
b. In complex and dynamic organisations, conflict may be reduced by enhancing coordination activities and better communication flows.
c. If the conflict stems differences over distribution of scarce or deficient resources, the manager can reduce it by increasing the amount of available resources.
d. In case the excessive conflict stems from differences in goals, the manager can reduce the conflict by focusing everyone's attention on a subordinate goal, such as common objective of survival, major financial crisis, or defending against an externalthreat.
e. The managers can facilitate compromises to reduce especially the labour-management conflict.

(III) Conflict Resolution

Conflict in organisation is inevitable. Sometimes even the best managers find themselves in the middle of dysfunctional conflict, whether it is due to inattention or due to the circumstances which are beyond their control. In such situations managers have two options open to them :

(a) Avoidance, or

 (b)Resolution.

Avoidance means to choose to do nothing, i.e., staying neutral at all costs, downplaying disagreement, or failing to participate in the conflict situation, by pretending that there is no conflict and hoping that time will take care of all conflicts.

Conflict resolution means a situation in which the underlying reasons for a given conflict are eliminated. Managers can use a number of techniques or strategies for resolving conflict as follows:

1. Diffusion

Diffusing strategy attempts to buy time until the conflict between two parties becomes less emotional or less crucial.

The following methods are classified as diffusion strategy:

(a) Smoothing

Smoothing or accommodation involves,

a. Playing down differences and dissensions (i.e., making them seem less important) among the conflicting parties and highlighting similarities and areas of agreement, and

b. Peaceful coexistence through a recognition of common interests in the goal, in the hope that the parties would eventually realise that they are not as far apart as they initially believed. With this approach, problems are rarely permitted to come to the surface and thus superficial harmony is maintained but the potential for conflict remains.

(b) Compromise

Compromise is a 'give-and-take' exchange, resulting in neither a clear winner nor loser. Compromise can be used when the object, goal or resource in conflict, can be divided up in some way between the competing parties. In other cases, one party may yield on one point if it can gain something in exchange from the other party. Compromise is the most typical way of dealing with labour-management conflict. However, compromise takes time which management may not be able to afford always. Moreover, since party gains its full desires, the antecedent conditions for future conflicts are probably established; and the conflict which appears to be settled for a while, may well reappear at some time.

2. Power Intervention

A power intervention is a frequently used resolution approach. It involves the use of power to end conflict.This includes the following:

(a) Hierarchical Intervention or Forcing

Especially when time is important, higher level management steps into a conflict and orders the conflicting parties to handle the situation in a particular manner. This is forcing.

(b) Use of Mediation or Arbitration

A consultant or an arbitrator may be employed to hear and settle the dispute.

(c) Politics

Political resolution of conflict generally involves the distribution of power between the conflicting parties. If one party can accumulate sufficient power through resources accumulation or the

formation of a coalition, that party can exert considerable influence over the outcome of the decision or solution to the problem.

3. Organisational Interactions

When work needs to be coordinated, when resources must be shared, and when otherwork-flow interdependencies exist, conflict often arises. Managers have number options available to reduce conflicts by adjusting the organisation design of such friction points as follows:

a. Buffering approach can be used when the inputs of one group are the outputs of another group. Under this approach, an inventory is built up between the two groups so that any output slowdown or excess is absorbed by the inventory and does not directly pressure that target group.

b. Illogically sequenced procedures should be changed to remove unnecessary difficulties.

c. Groups, especially those which are prone to conflict, may be separated by reducing contact between them.

d. Training programmes may be designed and implemented for improving interpersonal and group relationships, and for socialisation of new members.

e. Monetary and non-monetary incentives may be installed for the group as a whole, instead of on an individual basis, for higher performance and productivity.

f. Communication systems may be redesigned so as to resolve conflict situations.

g. Work-group may be established with overlapping memberships.

h. Better coordination may be effected through a liaison-group, which will prevent destructive clashes. Such a group may be given formal authority to resolve conflict.

i. Changes in the design of physical workplace may be used effectively to resolve conflict - such as office space, desks, etc.

4. Confrontation

Three methods or techniques may be used under confrontation strategy as follows:

(a) Problem Solving

It involves bringing together the conflicting parties to conduct a formal confrontation meeting, so as to have the parties present their views and opinions to each other and work through the differences in attitudes and perceptions. An atmosphere of trust and openness has to be built, where neither party feels that it has to win every battle to maintain self-respect. Instead, conflicting parties recognise that something is wrong and needs attention. When success is achieved through problem solving, it may be believed that true conflict resolution has occurred.

(b) Mutual Personnel Exchange

It involves increasing the communication and understanding between groups by exchanging personnel for a period of time-it is assumed that the exchanged personnel can learn about the other group and communicate their impressions back to their original group.

(c) Super ordinate Goals

Super ordinate goals are common, more important or highly valued goals on which the conflicting parties are asked or appealed to focus their attention. Such goals are unattainable by one group or individual alone and generally supersede all other goals of each group or individual.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Conflict management is what we're doing when we identify and deal with conflict in a reasonable manner. To manage conflict the management Gurus say that we must develop and use skills like effective communication, problem solving, and negotiating. When we resolve issus, we need to focus on the things we need or desire as a group, and not things needed or wanted by individuals. This promotes working with each other instead of against each other. There are some proven strategies that you can use to help resolve conflicts within your groups. The Ohio Commission on Dispute Resolution and Conflict Management in USA describes five popular styles.

COLLABORATING
1. Why should I collaborate?
- ✓ Cooperation will help everyone achieve their goals and keep relationships healthy.
- ✓ A Collaborator's Attitude: Talking through the conflict will help us find creative ways to solve our problems where everyone is satisfied in the end.

2. When should I collaborate?
- ✓ Everyone trust each other
- ✓ No one wants total decision or resolution power
- ✓ Everyone needs to have a part in the decision
- ✓ Everyone involved will change their thinking as more information is available
- ✓ People need to work through personal hurts and disappointments
- ✓ When should I choose another method?
- ✓ When you need a resolution that won't take a lot of time and money
- ✓ When some may take advantage of others' trust

COMPROMISING
1. Why should I compromise?
Winning something while losing a little is sometimes okay.

2. A Compromiser's Attitude: We should all meet halfway to do what is best for the group and each of us can still get part of what we want.

3. When should I compromise?
- ✓ No one at the table has more position or power than anyone else and everyone is equally committed to the group's goals.
- ✓ Time can be saved by agreeing on a situation that works for everyone "for now"
- ✓ Achieving all of your goals are only somewhat important

4. When should I choose another method?
- ✓ Things that are important to you may be lost in the fray
- ✓ Someone's demands are too great for the rest of the table.

ACCOMODATING
1. Why should I accommodate?
Our commonalities are more important than other issues and facing differences may hurt relationships.
2. An accommodator's attitude:

I will please others by playing down how important the issue or conflict is in order to protect relationships.

3. When should I accommodate?
- ✓ Issues not as important to you as it is to others
- ✓ You know you can't win
- ✓ Everyone agreeing is the most important thing
- ✓ The things people have in common are more important than their differences

4. When should I choose another method?
- ✓ Some ideas don't get attention
- ✓ Credibility and influence can be lost.

COMPETING

1. Why should I compete?
Resolving a conflict is associated with competition and winning.

A competitor's attitude:
- ✓ I must use all of my power to win the conflict.

2. When should I compete?
- ✓ You know you're right
- ✓ A quick decision is necessary
- ✓ Strong personalities are overshadowing other people
- ✓ Defending your rights or position

3. When should I choose another method?
- ✓ Can make conflict worse
- ✓ Those on the losing end may attempt to get back at the winners.

AVOIDING

1. Why should I avoid?
Not the right time or place to address this issue.

2. An avoider's attitude:
I avoid conflict by leaving, avoid, or putting off discussions.

3. When should I avoid?
- ✓ Conflict is small and the future of a relationships is at stake
- ✓ There is no time to devote to conflict resolution
- ✓ Other issues are more important than the conflict
- ✓ There is no chance of getting your concerns heard
- ✓ One party is too emotionally involved and others can better resolve the conflict
- ✓ More information is needed

4. When should I choose another method?
- ✓ Decisions may be made by default
- ✓ Putting off or avoiding issues may make matters worse.

STRATEGIES FOR MANAGING CONFLICT

Methods for managing conflict:

Given the right opportunity and motivation all conflict can be resolved but not always to the satisfaction of all parties. The effect of disagreement and the methods for resolution depend on how conflict is managed by the participants.

The following are some common methods that can help to effectively manage conflict.

1. Denial or Avoidance

With this approach, individuals attempt to reduce or get rid of the conflict by denying it exists, both parties shun each other or dodge the issue of disagreement.

2. Suppression

"We all get along here", "we run a happy ship", "don't rock the boat", and "nice people don't fight", are the voices of suppression. People who use suppression play down their differences in a belief it is better to "go along to get along."

3. Power or Dominance

Power is often used to settle differences. The source of power may be physical, or vested by authority or position. Power strategies, however, result in a win-lose situation.In other words, in order for somebody to gain something, somebody else has to lose something. Normally the loser will not support the final decision in the same way as the winner, and may even attempt to sabotage the decision.

4. Third Party Intervention

Using this strategy requires a third party that is unbiased and is not taking sides to upport either party in conflict. The third party may be known or unknown to the parties involved or may even be from a different location. Some assumptions in using a third party are:

  i.   The third party is trusted or respected by participants.
  ii. All parties involved will accept the decision of the third party.
  iii. The third party has the power or authority to rule over the decision.
  iv. The third party is an expert, has knowledge or is competent to give a decision about the issue(s) in dispute.
  v.   All parties believe a just and fair decision will be rendered.

5. Compromise or Negotiation

Compromise and negotiation are often regarded as virtues in our culture. Compromise is an agreement between parties about what each should give or get in a particular situation. "You give a little, and I'll give a little so we can meet each other halfway", is a way we have been taught to get along with others. It is believed all parties will profit from the compromise or at least have a feeling of being treated fairly. Negotiation reaches an impasse when one or all participants become set in what they are willing to give and limits have been reached. The compromise, therefore, would allow all parties to reach an agreement with which all would be somewhat satisfied or rewarded.

6. Integration or Collaboration

This approach requires all parties in a conflict situation to recognize the legitimate abilities and expertise of each other in the process of resolution. This method attempts to find an acceptable solution

that does not necessarily require giving and getting as in a compromised solution. The group problem solving concept is considered the optimum form of managing conflict because it encourages a common search for creative alternatives to resolve the conflict that is rewarding to all parties.

<div align="center">

Unit V

</div>

Organisation change – Process – Causes of resistance to change and Overcoming resistance to change –Organisation Development – OD Process and Techniques – Organisation Culture – Factors influencing organisation culture – Organisational Effectiveness – Process and factors influencing organizational effectiveness.

ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Changes are taking place all around without exception. It is but natural that everything changes over time. What remains constant is change itself? Therefore, it's the responsibility of the manager to appreciate the change, assess its impact on the organization and prepare to adopt it, if necessary. Depending on the magnitude of change, it may impact an individual, a group, structure, process and subsystems. By scanning the environment and deciphering how changes in the environment are likely to widen the gap between desired and actual state of affairs of organization such as productivity, customer and employer satisfactions ,the degree and impact of change could be gauged. Manager can be a change agent by introducing planned changes in the organization.

Meaning and Nature of Change

The term change in the organization context refers to any alteration that occurs in the work environment. Planned changes mean those changes which are effected in a planned manner after assessing the need for change and working out the details as to when and how they will be carried out. A planned change is also called proactive change.

In contrast, reactive change is the one which takes place in random fashion as a crisis situation develops. For proactive or planned change to be initiated, manager shall be sensitive to the environmental changes affecting the organization so that organizational crisis situations can be averted.

Planned change or proactive change is purposeful or goal directed. There are two widely recognized goals of the planned change.

1. One, it sets to improve the organizational ability to cope with, or adapt to change environment.
2. Second, it seeks to change employee knowledge, attitude and behavior. Change in any part of the organization tends to effect the whole organization. Change is a human as well as a technical problem. Whenever there is a change, social equilibrium in the organization is affected. When change occurs in the organization, it requires employees to make new adjustments as the organization seeks new equilibrium.

Definition of Organisational Change

"Change is alteration occurring in the work environment that affects the ways in which the employees must act. These changes may be planned or unplanned, evolutionary, positive or negative, strong or weak, slow or rapid,and stimulated either internally or externally". **-- Tom Duening.**

"The term change refers to any alteration which occurs work environment of an organization."

FORCES/ PRESSURE/ FACTORS FOR CHANGE

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

A. External Forces

External environment affects the organizations both directly and indirectly. The organizations do not have any control over the variables in such an environment. Accordingly, the organization cannot change the environment but must change themselves to align with the environment. A few of these factors are:

1. Technology: Technology is the major external force which calls for change. The adoptions of new technology such as computers, telecommunication systems and flexible manufacturing operations have profound impact on the organizations that adopt them.

The substitution of computer control for direct supervision is resulting in wider spans of control for managers and flatter organizations. Sophisticated information technology is also making organizations more responsive. Both the organizations and their employees will have to become more adaptable. Many jobs will be reshaped. Individuals, who do routine, specialised and narrow jobs will be replaced by workers who can perform multiple tastes and actively participate in decision making. Managements will have to increase their investment in training and education of the employees because

employees' skills are becoming obsolete more quickly. Japanese firms have progressed rapidly because they are very fast in adopting new technological innovations.

2. MarketingConditions: Marketing conditions are no more static. They are in the process of rapid change as the needs, desires and expectations of the customers change rapidly and frequently. Moreover, there is tough competition in the market as the market is flooded with new products and innovations every day. New methods of advertising are used to influence the customers. Today the concept of consumerism has gained considerable importance and thus, the consumers are treated as the kings.

3. SocialChanges: Social and cultural environment also suggest some changes that the organizations have to adjust for. There are a lot of social changes due to spread of education, knowledge and a lot of government efforts. Social equality, e.g., equal opportunities to women, equal pay for equal work, has posed new challenges for the management. The management has to follow certain social norms in shaping its employment, marketing and other policies.

4. Political Forces: Political environment within and outside the country have an important impact on business especially the transnational corporations. The interference of the government in business has increased tremendously in most of the countries. The corporate sector is regulated by a lot of laws and regulations. The organizations do not have any control over the political and legal forces, but they have to adapt to meet the pressure of these forces.
In our country, the new economic, policy has liberalised the economy to a large extent. Many of the regulatory laws have been amended to reduce the interference of the Government in business.

B. Internal Forces

Internal forces are too many and it is very difficult to list them comprehensively. However, major internal causes are explained as follows:

1. Nature of the Work Force: The nature of work force has changed over a passage of time. Different work values have been expressed by different generations. Workers who are in the age group of 50 plus value loyalty to their employers. Workers in their mid-thirties to mid-forties are loyal to themselves only. The youngest generation of workers is loyal to their careers.

The profile of the workforce is also changing fast. The 1990s has been described as a decade where organizations will have to learn to manage diversity. The new generation of workers has better educational qualifications; they place greater emphasis on human values and question authority of managers. Their behavior has also become very complex and leading them towards organizational goals is a challenge for the managers. The employee turnover is also very high which again puts strain on the management. The work force is changing, with a rapid increase in the percentage of women employees, which in turn means, more dual career couples. Organizations have to modify transfer and promotion policies as well as make child care and elder care available, in order to respond to the needs of two career couple.

2. Change in Managerial Personnel: Change in managerial personnel is another force which brings about change in organization. Old managers are replaced by new a manager which is necessitated

because of promotion, retirement, transfer or dismissal. Each manager brings his own ideas and way of working in the organization. The informal relationships change because of changes in managerial personnel. Sometimes, even though there is no change in personnel, but their attitudes change. As a result, the organization has to change accordingly.

3. Deficiencies in Existing Management Structure: Sometimes change are necessary because of some deficiencies in the existing organizational structure, arrangement and processes. These deficiencies may be in the form of unmanageable span of management, larger number of managerial levels, lack of co-ordination among various departments, obstacles in communication, multiplicity of committees, lack of uniformity in policy decisions, lack of cooperation between line and staff and so on. However, the need for change in such cases goes unrecognized until some major crisis occurs.

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

PROCESS OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGES

There are four-steps for organizational change process. Use this process to guide you in using culture to drive change. The below diagram represent that:
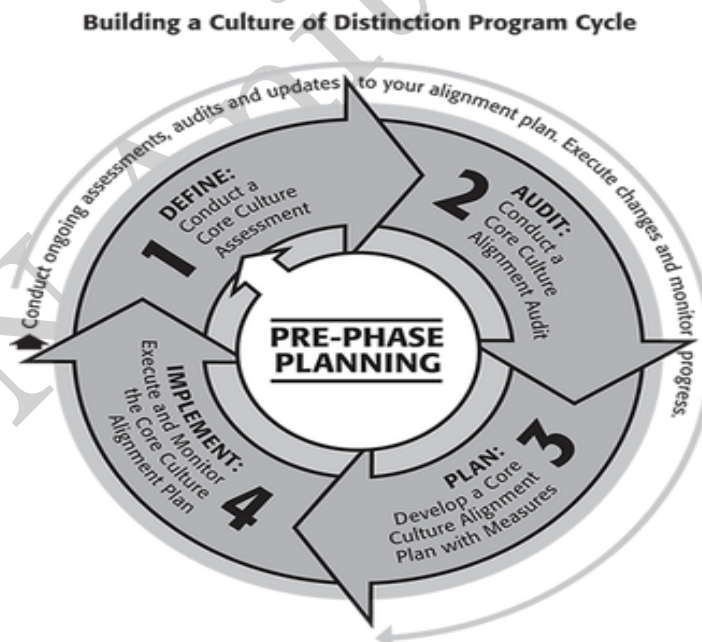
Organisational Change Process

1. Define the Core Culture of your organization

> Define your organization's central principles—its Purpose and Philosophy—that describe the organization's contribution to society and distinctive character.

> Build on that identity-defining foundation by establishing the strategic Priorities that will enable your organization to compete and thrive.

2. Audit for alignment

> Audit your Internal and External Practices and Projections to evaluate their alignment with the Core Culture–the Purpose, Philosophy, and Priorities.
> Calculate your Alignment Index and provide recommendations to improve alignment.

3. Develop a plan to improve alignment

> Develop a Core Culture Alignment Plan to improve alignment of Practices and Projections with the Core Culture.
> Set measures to improve alignment.

4. Implement the plan and monitor success

> Execute the plan to weave the Core Culture principles throughout the organization so everyone lives by the principles that will generate success.

Any organizational change process is ongoing. This is not a project; instead, it is a new way to view your organization and insert change, as needed, rather than at specified periods.

CHANGE PROCESS
Since management initiates more changes in the organization, its primary responsibility is to implement change successfully. Management is called a change agent because its role is to initiate change and make it work. Many changes also originate in external environment. Rate of change varies according to nature of environment. Stable environment means less change. Dynamic environment means more change.

Kurt Lewin, the father of change process, stated three stages in initiating and establishing any change unfreezing, changing and refreezing.

Unfreezing
It is a process of preparation for change through discontinuation of the old practice, attitudes, or behaviours. This is the initial stage where change agents sense need for something new and are impatient with status quo. Thus the system is to be unfrozen from its complacency.

Changing (or moving)

In this stage planned change is initiated and carried out. Change could relate to any aspect of the organization. With the participation of members affected by change, changes have to be carefully implemented.

Refreezing

This phase ensures that the planned change introduced is working satisfactorily and there is a reasonable guarantee that the change will indeed fill the gap and bring the system to the desired state of equilibrium. If the refreezing phase is neglected, the change will not bring desired result and may be even total disaster.

RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Resistance is a natural response to change and recognising and managing resistance is a key skill for the effective change manager.

Resistance is a healthy part of any change process. Manage it effectively and it can strengthen your change initiative. Ignore it and it can quietly undermine all your great intentions.

Although change is inevitable, people tend to resist it in a rational response based on self-interest. Resistance to change is not always bad or harmful. In some cases, resistance is positive also. Resistance to change can also be a source of functional conflict. For example, resistance to a change in product line can stimulate a healthy debate over the merits of the idea and, thus, result in a better decision. However, it also hinders adaptation and progress.

Driving Forces for Change	Forces Resisting Change
Internal Force ⟶	⟵ **Individual Resistance**
1. New technology	1. Fear of the unknown
2. Changing work values	2. New learning
3. Creating of new knowledge	3. Disruptions of stable friendships
4. Product obsolescnce	4. Distrust of management
5. Desire for leisure and alternative work schedules	
Environmental Forces ⟶	⟵ **Organization Resistance**
1. Competition	1. Threat to the power structure
2. Changes in consumer demands	2. Inertia of organizational structure
3. Resource availability	3. System relationship
4. Social and political change	4. Sunk costs and vested interests
5. International change	

Reasons of Resistance to Change

Some evidences of resistance to change are very overt such as wildcat strikes, work stoppage, turnover and protests about a proposed change. Resistance to change, may also be very subtle and indirect, such as dissatisfaction, grievances, and requests for transfers, absenteeism and conflict among the members of a work team. The reasons of resistance to change can be divided for analytical purposes, into two broad

categories of individual and organizational resistance to change. This is shown in the Table 9.1. In the real world, the reasons often overlap.

Individual level change

Individual level changes may take place due to changes in job assignment, transfer of an employee to a different location or the changes in the maturity level of a person which occurs over a passage of time. The general opinion is that change at the individual level will not have significant implication for the organization. But this is not correct because individual level changes will have impact on the group which in turn will influence the whole organization. Therefore, a manager should never treat the employees in isolation but he must understand that the individual level change will have repercussions beyond the individual.

Individual Resistance

Individuals resist change for a variety of reasons. Here are the four reasons why individuals may resist change:

1. Fear of the Unknown: Changes often bring with it ambiguity and uncertainty. If, for example, the introduction of a new computer system requires that the employees learn some specific statistical technique, some may fear they will be unable to do so. They may, therefore, develop a negative attitude toward the introduction of new computer system.

1. New Learning: For doing new task, one requires to learn a new language, develop a new technology, or adjust to a totally new culture. No doubt, learning new ideas can be exciting, most people report that excitement comes only after the learning is occurred, not before.

2. Disruption of Stable Friendship: Almost all organizational changes disrupt the previous stable friendship. This is turn, results in uncomfortable feelings of social isolation and loneliness. This may serve as a source of indirect resistance to change.

3. Distrust of Management: There are well-documented findings available from the history of labour relations that managers exploited laborers. That's why employees often suspect the reason for change and try to oppose the same.

Below are suited some additional reasons why people resist changes. Some of these appear to be rational and emotional. These reasons are :

1. Economic Factors: The economic reasons for the resistance to change may be the following:

i.   Workers may fear that the change will lead to technological unemployment. Generally, new technology is associated with the reduction of labour intake and therefore, people will resist a change that will affect their employment.

ii.   Workers fear that they will be idle most of the time due to the increased efficiency of the new technology, which in turn may lead to retrenchment of labour force.

iii. Workers may fear that they will be demoted if they do not acquire the skills required for the new jobs.

iv.   Workers resist the change which leads to setting high job standards, which in turn may reduce opportunities for bonus or incentive pay.

2. Habits: All human beings are creatures of habit. The modern life is so complex that nobody wants to consider the full range of options for the hundreds of decisions we have to make every day. Instead all of us rely on habits or programmed responses. For example, whenever we decide to go out for dinner, we generally try to go to our tried and tested restaurant instead of trying a new one every time.

Due to this nature of human beings whenever a person is confronted with a change, his basic tendency will be to resist the change. For example, whenever a person is transferred, his first reaction, most of the time, is to resist the change because it will lead to a lot more complexities like shifting the house, change of schools of the children, making adjustments in the new place, finding new friends, joining new group etc. Thus, every person will try to take the easy way out by resisting this change.

3. Insecurity: One of the major reasons for resistance to change is uncertainty about the impact of change, specially on job security. The fear of the unknown always has a major impact on the decision of the individuals. Not knowing what the change would bring about makes the employees anxious and apprehensive about the change.

4. Lack of Communication: If the workers are given an opportunity to participate in the process of change the resistance is likely to be less. But if the change is not properly communicated that to in an acceptable manner to the employees, it is likely to cause resistance.

5. Extent of Change: If there is a minor change and the change involves only the routine operations, the resistance, if any, will be minimum. But the major changes like reshuffling of staff will lead to major visible resistance. Similarly, the process of change is slow; the resistance will be less as compared to rapid or sudden changes.

6. Psychological Factors: One of the major reasons for resistance can be the emotional turmoil that a change may cause, especially if the past experiences with the changes have not been positive. The psychological reasons for resistance to change are:

  i.   Workers may not like criticism implied in a change that the present method is inadequate and unsuitable.
 ii.   New changes may lead to reduction of the personal pride of the workers because they fear that new work change will do away with the need for much manual work.
iii.   Workers may have the fear that the new jobs will bring boredom and monotony as a result of specialisation brought by the new technology.
iv.   They may resist the change because harder work will be required to learn and adapt to new ideas and they do not want to take the trouble in learning new things.
 v.   The workers may be incapable of understanding the implications of new ideas and methods.

7. Social Factors: Individuals have social needs like friendship, belongingness etc. for the fulfillment of which they develop social relations in the organization. They become members of certain informal groups. The change will bring a fear in the mind of people because there is generally dislike for new

adjustments, breaking present social relationships, reduced social satisfaction, feeling of outside interference in the form of change agent etc.

MANAGING / OVERCOMING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

In a sense, resistance to change is simply a form of feedback that can be used very productively to manage the change process. Six key strategies have been suggested for managing resistance to change. These are reviewed briefly.

Overcoming Resistance to Change

Kotter & Schlesinger suggest that there are six ways of overcoming resistance to change

- Education & Communication
- Participation & Involvement
- Facilitation & Support
- Manipulation & Co-option
- Negotiation & Bargaining
- Explicit & Implicit Coercion

1. Education& Communication
- ➢ The starting point for successful change is to communicate effectively the reasons why change is needed!
- ➢ Honest communication about the issues and the proposed action helps people see the logic of change

- Effective education helps address misconceptions about the change, including misinformation or inaccuracies
- Education and communication are unlikely to achieve very short-term effects. They need to be delivered consistently and over a long-period for maximum impact

2. Participation& Involvement
- Involvement in a change programme can be an effective way of bringing "on-board" people who would otherwise resist
- Participation often leads to commitment, not just compliance
- A common issue in any change programme is just how much involvement should be permitted. Delays and obstacles need to be avoided

3. Facilitation& Support
- Kotter& Schlesinger identified what they called "adjustment problems" during change programmes.
- Most people (though not all) will need support to help them cope with change
- Key elements of facilitation and support might include additional training, counselling and mentoring as well as simply listening to the concerns of people affected
- If fear and anxiety is at the heart of resistance to change, then facilitation and support become particularly important

4. Co-option & Manipulation
- Co-option involves bringing specific individuals into roles that are part of change management (perhaps managers who are likely to be otherwise resistant to change)
- Manipulation involves the selective use of information to encourage people to behave in a particular way
- Whilst the use of manipulation might be seen as unethical, it might be the only option if other methods of overcoming resistance to change prove ineffective

5. Negotiation& Bargaining
- The idea here is to give people who resist an incentive to change – or leave
- The negotiation and bargaining might involve offering better financial rewards for those who accept the requirements of the change programme
- Alternatively, enhanced rewards for leaving might also be offered
- This approach is commonly used when a business needs to restructure the organisation (e.g. by delayering)

6. Explicit& Implicit Coercion
- This approach is very much the "last resort" if other methods of overcoming resistance to change fail
- Explicit coercion involves people been told exactly what the implications of resisting change will be
- Implicit coercion involves suggesting the likely negative consequences for the business of failing to change, without making explicit threats

> The big issue with using coercion is that it almost inevitably damages trust between people in a business and can lead to damaged morale (in the short-term)

ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Organizational development is a planned effort for a work group and/or the organization, managed by leadership and supported by employees, to increase organization effectiveness through planned change in processes and systems.

Organization development as a practice involves an ongoing, systematic process of implementing effective organizational change.

A few Definitions on OD:

"As an integrated strategy that uses group process to focus on the whole culture of organization in order to bring about planned change. It seeks to change beliefs, attitudes, values, structures, and practices so that the organization can better adapt to technology and live the fast pace of change". **-- Keith Davis.**

"An applied, macro-level approach to planned change and development of complex organizations".**-- Fred Luthans.**

"OD is a systematic integrated and planned approach to improve the effectiveness of the enterprise. It is designed to solve problems that adversely affect the operational efficiency at all levels". **-- Koonzet. al,**

CHARACTERISTICS OF OD

OD characteristics are implied in its definitions.

They differ substantially from those of a typical training program which are summarized in the following lines. Focus on the whole organization:

> In OD attempts are made to develop the whole organization so that it can be responding to changes effectively.
> In contrast, traditional training programs tend to focus quite narrowly on specific jobs or small work groups.

Systems organization:

OD is concerned with structure, process as well as attitudes. It lays emphasis on how parts relate, not on the parts themselves.

Problem solving:

OD seeks to solve problems rather than to discuss theoretically. This focus on real ongoing problems, not artificial ones, is called action research. This characteristic of OD is so important that OD is sometimes defined as "organizational improvement through action research."

Experiential learning:

OD offers experiential learning which means participants learn by experiencing in the training environment the kind of human problems they actually face on the job.

Contingency orientation:

OD is said to be situational or contingency-oriented. Unlike traditional training approaches which emphasize one best way to solve the problems, OD is flexible and pragmatic, adapting actions to fit particular needs.

Team building:

OD's general role is to build better team work throughout the organization. OD attempts to integrate four elements- people, structure, technology and environment.

Feed back:

OD relies on data feedback to participants who made decisions using it.

OBJECTIVES OF OD:

The main objectives of OD are to:

1. Improve organisational performance as measured by profitability, market share, innovativeness, etc.
2. Make organisations better adaptive to its environment which always keeps on changing.
3. Make the members willing face organisational problems and contribute creative solutions to the organisational problems.
4. Improve internal behaviour patterns such as interpersonal relations, intergroup relations, level of trust and support among the role players.
5. Understand own self and others, openness and meaningful communication and involvement in planning for organisational development.

OD PROCESS:

A typical complete OD program includes the following steps.

Initial diagnosis:

OD program is decided after the consultant meets the top management. By means of interviews with various persons the consultant seeks necessary inputs.Data collections and surveys may be made to know the organizational climate and organizational behavioral problems. By meeting the groups away from work, the consultant develops information, from issues pertaining to conditions that contribute most to job effectiveness, conditions that interfere with job effectiveness and the changes in the way the organization operates at present.

Action planning and problem solving:

Groups use the data to develop specific recommendations for change. Their discussion focuses on problems in the organization. Plans made are specific pinpointing who is responsible and by what time the action shall have been completed

Team building:

During the group meetings the consultant encourages groups to examine how they work as a team. He also helps them to see the value of open communication and trust as pre-requisites for improved group functioning.

Intergroup Development: first small group teams are developed followed by development of large groups comprises several teams.

Evaluation and follow- up:

The consultant helps the organization evaluate results of OD efforts and develops additional programs in areas where additional results are needed.

If the organization expects to gain the full benefits of OD, all the steps in the process are to be applied.

ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT TECHNIQUES

Organisational development is not an overnight transformation; it is indeed a gradual process that has to be implemented systematically and in tandem with the external environment.

An organization will work together with a team of change agents in order to draft up the intervention plan and agree on the changes and techniques that are to be implemented. The following activities aim to help both organizations and employees get closer to and fulfill their potential.

1. Survey feedback

The survey technique involves data be collected via a questionnaire. The collected information is meant to help managers make decisions. The answers to the survey feedback will range from quality of work, working condition, working hours, salaries, and employees' attitude in relation to all of the above.

The team of managers proceeds to analyze and interpret the gathered data. They pinpoint problems, assess the results and start drafting plans for solutions. All the members of the organization are expected to submit this data. Manager meetings are meant to bring subordinates and superiors together in order to discuss the information and interpret it. All levels of management play an active role in this technique whose end result is implementing necessary changes.

2. Team building

Team buildings have been increasing in popularity as an independent component of Organizational Development. Within OD, team buildings are designed to improve the capacity of the organization's members of working together in a harmonious environment. Organizational effectiveness can be boosted through enhancing work group dynamics and promoting a safe and understanding working place.

In order to help team members open up and speak their minds on work related issues, the professional trainer will lead group discussions. The trainer does not actively participate in the discussion, but merely guides the conversation in order to ensure maximum efficiency. Team buildings' main purpose is to increase sensitivity to team members' behavior by promoting a healthy group functioning. Interpersonal interactions and behavior play a significant part of team buildings, encouraging employees to express their views.

3. Sensitivity Training

One of the most popular Organizational Development techniques, sensitivity training asks employees to interact in order to better understand each other. As a result, team members get better acquainted, form bonds, and cease to be judgmental and prone to become more motivated and efficient in the working environment.

Carrying out free communications and forming interpersonal relationships are bound to improve their group experience as a team, offering members the chance to unequivocally express themselves in a safe and controlled workplace. Sensitivity training will not only increase awareness of self but also awareness of others. These two are some of the main pillars of Organizational Development, on which trust and comfort are meant to build a new order within the company.

4. Brain Storming

This Organizational Development technique involves six to eight managers coming together and pitching ideas for solving a problem. Brain Storming aims to promote creative thinking, whilst bringing team leaders together and helping them engage in a lucrative discussion of fixing a common issue. The participants are required to critically assess the matter that is put forward. They are then asked to contribute new ideas or new angles on tackling the conflict. The principle behind brain storming is that managers come together and build a plan based on all of their suggestions.

No expert conducts the discussions, which encourages all leaders to speak freely and make suggestions. The brain storming technique is meant to get participants to debate potential solutions and choose the best ones. All of this is done in a safe environment where members can express themselves freely.

5. Management by Objectives

Part of Management Development, this technique is also successfully used in Organizational Development as a method of reviewing and assessing performance. Management by Objectives implies clearly pinpointing the goals of the organization and assigning them to managers. Their responsibility is to deliver results in a time efficient manner.

This result oriented technique is meant to promote the joint effort of team leaders, laying the grounds for an excellent appraisal system. The accomplished objectives will be used to measure the performance of the managers.

The Management by Objectives technique is generally carried out in four essential steps:

- Objectives set by top management.

- Individual targets and objectives.

- Autonomy in choosing strategies.

- Performance review and appraisal.

6. Quality circles

This technique requires up to a dozen team members to come together on their own accord in order to discuss important work related issues and come up with efficient solutions that can be

implemented by the management team. The method that has its roots in the 60s is meant to be carried out once a week during working hours. Any team member who feels they can bring their contribution is free to join the discussion.

Quality circles have been shown to heighten moral, reduce costs and boost quality in the working environment. All the success of the technique is owed to the effort of the participants who are willing to devote their time in order to pitch solutions and join forces to fix problems.

7. Process consultation

An expert or an Organizational Development consultant gives feedback to the trainee and offers insight into solving problems. Process consultation can help team members experience a change of perspective and experiment with various problem fixing suggestions. The clear insight provided by the expert or consultant is extremely valuable since it offers both team members and top managers guidelines on how to approach, handle and tackle a wide array of work-related problems.

Advantages of Organization Development

Organization development has some advantages. An organization can enjoy these advantages by resorting to all steps of OD systematically and scientifically. These advantages are as follows:

1. **Change throughout organization:** Development activates are undertaken throughout the whole organization.
2. **Greater motivation:** After undertaking and completing OD program, managers and employees feels motivated to work with joy.
3. **Increased productivity:** OD increases productivity. Because employees can work with new method and machines.
4. **Better quality of work:** Quality work, goods & services through successful OD program can be ensured.
5. **Higher job satisfaction:** Mangers and employees became satisfied with changed things and more facilities.
6. **Improved Teamwork:** Employees get team spirit and teamwork may be encouraged as they become satisfied and motivated with top management.
7. **Better resolution of conflict:** After getting the organization developed, managers and employees mentalities also get developed and broadened. Thus they can resolve conflict easily.
8. **Commitment to objectives:** Goal orientation and commitment are created among the employees. After getting everything developed they don't get any scope of showing negligence.
9. **Increased willingness to change:** OD program creates the awareness to accept change without resistance. If the managers and employees are convinced they become willing to any change to be executed later.
10. **Reduced absences:** Absenteeism is reduced and employees attend the office and works in time which leads to high productivity.
11. **Lower Turnover:** Turnover is one of the problems of an organization through OD program employee turnover rate becomes lower.

12. **Creation of learning individuals and groups:** With a number of development programs taken very often, individuals and groups learn many things. They become equipped to management development program in future.

Disadvantages of Organization Development

Organization Development program suffers some limitations also. Degree of these limitations may vary from one organization to another. However some limitations are discussed below:

1. **Major time requirements:** OD programs take long time. Not only that for taking any action plan for OD, planners take much time.

2. **Substantial expenditure:** It costs many. A lot of funds are required to execute to OD program. Sometimes organization cannot manage funds.

3. **Delayed pay off period:** In some cases OD program is affected for delayed pay off period. That is why some organizations become reluctant.

4. **Possible failure:** OD program may be failed due to some reasons. These failures are both human related and non-human related.

5. **Possible envision of privacy:** Privacy of the organization may be leaked out though the OD program. Due to the involvement of irresponsible people it happens so.

6. **Possible psychological harm:** Some psychological harm is experienced while taking OD program. Employees with strong psychology can protect it.

7. **Potential conformity:** Due to potential conformity with and results of different actions, OD programs might create misunderstanding and confusion.

8. **Emphasis on group process:** Very often emphasis is laid on group process. If the group does not mean so or take it seriously, and OD program is affected.

9. **Conceptual ambiguity:** OD program concept, its operational possibility potential output etc. may not be clearly understood by some people who are involved with OD.

10. **Difficulty in evaluation:** Evaluation of OD program does not take place properly. This can raise many objectives from some corners.

11. **Cultural incompatibility:** If OD program does adjust with the existing culture, it can bring desired results.

These are some important limitations or disadvantages of OD program. Despite that, organization will have to undertake development program by avoiding possible limitations.

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE
MEANING

Organizational culture is the set of assumptions, beliefs, values and norms that are shared by the members of an organization. It may be consciously created by its key members, or it may have simply evolved over time. It represents a key element of the work environment in which employees perform their jobs. A culture may exist across an entire organization, or it may refer to the environment within a single division, branch, plant, or department. The idea of organizational culture is somewhat intangible, for we cannot see it or touch it, but it is present and pervasive. Like the air in a room, it surrounds and affects everything that happens in an organization. Because it is a dynamic systems concept, culture is also affected by almost everything that occurs within an organization.

DEFINITIONS

"Organizational culture" is defined as the philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms that knit an organization together and are shared by its employees – **Ralph Kilmann.**

DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Every organization has a unique culture. Some of the important determinants of organizational culture are given below;

- ♣ The Extent of responsibility and freedom given to employees.

- ♣ The extent to which the employees are encouraged to be creative and aggressive.

- ♣ The degree of co-ordination between different departments.

- ♣ Top management support

- ♣ Rules and regulations of the organization.

- ♣ The way the employees identify themselves with the organization.

- ♣ The reward system

- ♣ The system of communication in vogue.

CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE
Common language and terminology

Only the members of a particular organization may be familiar with certain common language and terms peculiar to their work situation. They would have developed these terms in view of their several years of work experience. A stranger or an outsider may not understand the real meaning of these terms.

Work Norms

The norms of work developed by the members of an organization are reflective of its culture. If "one need not be more loyal than the king" is the work philosophy of a particular organization, "Do anything to satisfy the customer" may be the philosophy of another.

Priorities

Every organization has certain priorities. For example, if one organization gives priority to maximum customer satisfaction another may give priority to product quality or prompt after – sale service.

Expectations

The employees in every organization have certain expectations. For example, in certain organizations the practice may be to consult the existing employees in the matter of appointing new employees or in buying a new machinery and so on. On the other hand, there are organizations where the employees may be indifferent to who is appointed. They may not have an expectation that the management should consult them on such matters.

Guidelines for new recruits

The organizational members may also prescribe guidelines for the new recruits. The latter can survive only if they faithfully follow such guidelines.

TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

The organizational culture may be classified by following types:

- ➢ Subculture
- ➢ Dominant Culture
- ➢ Strong Culture
- ➢ Weak culture
- ➢ Authoritarian Culture
- ➢ Participative culture
- ➢ National culture

Subculture

Subculture refers to a set of values that are shared by the employees of a particular department in an organization. It is the result of problems or experiences peculiar to a particular department.

Dominant Culture

It refers to a set of values that are shared by all the members of an organization. For example, the employees of an organization may hold the view that under no circumstances they would take part in any strike programme.

Strong Culture

In the case of strong culture, the core values are intensely held and widely shared by all the members of an organization. The attitude of the employees in such an organization will be positive and the rate of labour turnover will be low. The employees are convinced about the actions of the management and they repose full faith in the latter.

Weak culture

In an organization having weak culture, the core values are not intensely held and widely shared by all the members of the organization. The employees in such an organization, obviously, do not possess a positive attitude. The rate of labour turnover is also likely to be high.

Authoritarian Culture

In this case, the leader of the organization exercises full control over the subordinates who have to strictly carry out the orders and instructions of the former. It is based on the assumption that the leader knows what is good for the organization and would always strive for its interests.

Participative culture

It is based on the belief that the subordinates are motivated to work better when they are involved in the process of decision making. It ensures that the leader does not thrust his ideas on the employees.

National culture

Organizational culture is considerably influenced by the culture of the land. For example, the business establishments in India reflect Indian culture in their activities, eg., holidays declared, festivals celebrated etc.

FACTORS INFLUENCING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

At an organisational level, culture is a factor of the interactions between the people in that workplace. Our collective ability to constructively manage workplace relationships, particularly in the face of inevitable tension and conflict, defines our organisational culture.

There are five main factors affecting the organisational culture as follows:
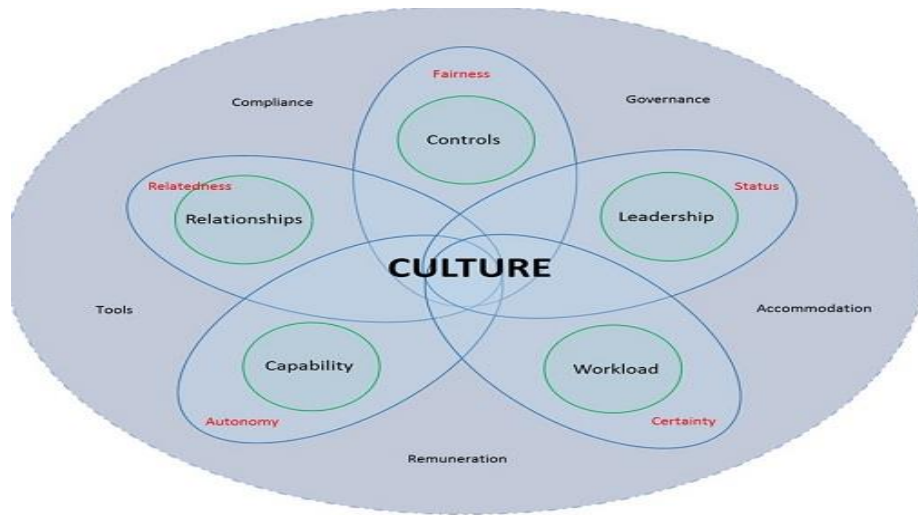
1. Leadership

How important is status in the organisation? How close or removed are top management from the shop floor? What gets rewarded and recognised by leaders? How do leaders communicate with their employees? How trusted are leaders?

2. Workload

To be clear, this is not an observation of the work itself, but of the expectations of how much of a load employees are expected to carry. Is the workload distribution equitable? Is it predictable? When an employee arrives for work today, will she know what lies ahead during the day? Is the workload shared and what happens to the work when they take leave?

3. Capability

How well are people trained to do their jobs? How long does it take for an employee to reach a level of job mastery? Is the approach to learning and to training structured so that employees can expect to reach a level where they can function in an autonomous way?

4. Relationships

Does the workplace support and encourage relationship building? What are the social norms of the workplace? What happens if somebody steps outside the social norms? Do employees trust the organisational complaint or grievance systems? How dependent are employees on one another in being able to achieve success?

5. Controls

What job controls exist to guide the work? How closely are people supervised? Is their work checked, approved or randomly sampled? Can an employee expect to receive regular feedback on their performance from a line supervisor?

These five categories are at the centre of the majority of organisational conflict. Interestingly, they align with the SCARF Model, developed by Dr David Rock, the pioneer of Neuroleadership. The five domains of the SCARF model are listed on the Leading Culture Model.

Organisational culture is a complex issue. Leaders who develop mature work systems and model constructive behaviour around the five key factors will find that organisational culture becomes a much simpler issue to understand and master.

Other Factors
- Influence of the founder ("shadow of the leader")
- Size & development stage of the business (e.g. start-up, multisite, multinational)
- Leadership & management style
- Organisational structure, policies & practices
- Employee & management reward structures (e.g. pay, bonuses, individual v team rewards)
- Market /industries in which it operates
- Working environment & nature of tasks (e.g. physical, office, remote working, flexible working)
- External environment (e.g. legal, economic, social)
- Attitude of organisation to risk-taking & innovation
- Sector: e.g. service, manufacturing

ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

MEANING

Organizational effectiveness may be explained as the capacity of an organization to procure and utilize the resources efficiently for the attainment of the desired objectives.

Definition

"Effectiveness of an organization can be seen in terms of the survival of the organization" – **John Kimberly.**

"Effectiveness may be defined as the degree to which an organisation realizes its goals**" – AmitaiEtzioni.**

LEVELS OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Organizational effectiveness is influenced by individual effectiveness and group effectiveness. In other words, there are three levels of effectiveness:

1. Individual effectiveness.

2. Group effectiveness and

3. Organizational effectiveness.

1. Individual effectiveness depends upon the extent to which every individual performs his task. Through performance appraisal, managers assess the effectiveness of performance of the subordinates.

2. In an organization, individuals work as a group always, i.e., the work of one is influenced by the work of another. Group effectiveness, therefore, becomes more important. Even if one person does not perform to the required level, effectiveness of the group may get affected.

3. If group effectivenessdepends upon individual effectiveness, organizational effectiveness depends upon group effectiveness.

CAUSES OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Among the various causes of individual effectiveness the following are important:

1. Attitude
2. Ability
3. Knowledge.
4. Skill
5. Motivation.

Group effectiveness is influenced by the following factors:

❖ Leadership
❖ Extent of co-operation.
❖ Group norms
❖ Role played by members
❖ Status patterns.

Organizational effectiveness depends upon:

❖ Organizational culture
❖ Work environment – both physical and social.
❖ Type of technology
❖ Strategy employed
❖ Organizational structure.

APPROACHES OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

The following approaches are normally used to study organizational effectiveness:

1. Goal approach

2. Systems approach

3. Strategic constituencies approach

1. Goal approach

Every organization has certain goals to attain. Some of these are

➢ Sales and profit maximization

➢ Higher production and productivity

➢ Maximum customer satisfaction.

➢ Greater market share.

➢ Low rate of labour turnover

> ➢ High employee morale etc.

According to the goal approach, the extent to which these goals have been achieved is the criterion to measure effectiveness.

The assumptions usually made in the goal approach are as follows;

> ➢ The organization has certain definite goals.
>
> ➢ The goals have been explained to the employees and they have understood the same.
>
> ➢ There is consensus among the various groups in the organization to work in a co-ordinated manner towards the attainment of these goals.
>
> ➢ It is possible to measure goal attainment.

The limitations of the goal approach are:
> ➢ There may be conflict between personal goal and organizational goal.
>
> ➢ Often too many goals are pursued at the same time. Attainment of one goal may make the attainment of another difficult.
>
> ➢ Measurement of goal attainment may be difficult in certain cases.

2. Systems approach

According to Edgar schein,, "The capacity of the organization to survive, adapt, maintain itself and grow, regardless of the particular functions it performs" is what the systems approach is all about. The manner in which individuals and groups within the organization perform the tasks explains its capacity to maintain itself internally. The transactions of the organization with other organizations explain its interaction with the external environment.

The system approach is concerned with the following:
> ➢ Acquiring the necessary resources (inputs) required.
>
> ➢ Coping with the environment.
>
> ➢ Ensuring the flexibility of the internal operations.
>
> ➢ Enhancing the organization's capacity to do better.

The following are the assumptions of the systems approach:-
> ➢ An organization consists of inter – related parts that constitute a system.
>
> ➢ A proper balance between the various parts of the system is achieved.
>
> ➢ Effectiveness is influenced by the interaction of the organization with the environment – both internal and external.
>
> ➢ The organization will steadily replenish its resources.

3. Strategic constituencies approach

According to the strategic constituencies approach, effectiveness depends upon the capacity of the organization to satisfy those who are associated with it (referred to as "constituencies") – the shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, creditors, government and the society at large. The organization must strive to achieve a balance among the interest of the various constituencies. When this is done, organizational effectiveness is said to be achieved.

FACTORS INFLUENCING ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

RensisLikert has grouped the various factors influencing organizational effectiveness under the following three categories.

1. Casual Variables
2. Intervening variables
3. End result variables

1. Casual Variables

These are independent variables that determine the course of development within an organization and the result achieved by the organization and consists of the following;

- ❖ Leadership strategies, skills and styles.
- ❖ Management's decisions.
- ❖ Organizational philosophy, objectives, policies and structure
- ❖ Technology etc.

2. Intervening variables

These variables reflect the internal state and health of the organization and include;

- ❖ Commitment to objectives, motivation and morale of members
- ❖ Skills in leadership, communication, conflict – resolution, decision making problem – solving etc.

3. End result variables

These are dependent variables that are caused by casual and intervening variables. These reflect the achievements of the organization and include the following;

- ❖ Production.
- ❖ Costs
- ❖ Sales
- ❖ Earnings
- ❖ Management – union relations.
- ❖ Turnover etc.